PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT OF COMMUNITY POLICE FORUMS IN THE WESTERN CAPE: A CASE-BASED ANALYSIS
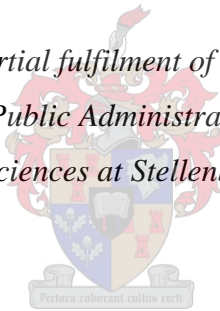
by

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

Since the early 19th century, many organisations have implemented performance management because it leads to improved organisational results, as indicated in numerous articles and journals. This study reviews the application of private and public sector performance management systems to voluntary community-based organisations and community police forums (CPFs) in particular. However, limited research has been conducted on the effects performance management has on CPFs, which is in a multiple stakeholder relationship.

A qualitative study was performed. The evidence of this case-based qualitative study is focused on two CPFs in the Western Cape. The study made use of the organisational inputs to construct a weighted performance index based on its compliance and execution indicators. The performance index was measured against the policeable crime categories of the corresponding periods to determine whether a high performance index translates into a decrease in crime.

The analysis in this study is based on the four leadership learning-for-performance questions, which are posted to these two organisations for continued performance improvement. The study found that these questions are related to action and learning to ensure continuous performance improvement that ultimately leads to individual empowerment, institutional enhancement, and an improved organisational business process.

The results support the findings of previously conducted studies, namely that managing community-based organisations strategically is more challenging due to their conflicting and multiple stakeholder relations. The research also identified an absence of measures to assess performance to determine if these two CPFs are reaching their intended objectives.

This study contributes to the literature, as it is one of few studies assessing the performance management of CPFs. This paper contributes towards the body of knowledge by paving the way for additional research to guide and assist these community-based organisations to improve their performance through well-defined indicators to measure performance.

OPSOMMING

Sedert die 19de eeu het vele organisasies prestasiebestuur toegepas omdat dit, soos aangedui in verskeie artikels en joernale, 'n verbetering in die uitslae van organisasies teweeggebring het. Die navorsingsverslag het die toepassing van prestasiebestuurstelsels op private en publieke sektore ondersoek, asook die van gemeenskapsgebaseerde organsasies, en meer spesifiek gemeenskapspolisiëringsforums (GPF's). Nieteenstaande is daar beperkte navorsing gedoen wat die uitwerking van prestasiebestuur kon bepaal op GPF's wat in 'n vennootskap met verskeie rolspelers staan.

'n Kwalitatiewe studie is onderneem. Die bewyse van hierdie gevalle-gebaseerde kwalitatiewe studie is op twee GPF's in die Wes-Kaap gefokus. Die studie maak gebruik van die organisasie se insette om 'n gelaaide prestasie-indeks te konstrueer gebaseer op hul nakomings- en uitvoeringsaanwysers. Die prestasie-indeks is gemeet teen die polisieërbare misdaadskategorie van die oorstemmende periodes om te bepaal of 'n hoë prestasie-indeks 'n vermindering van misdaad teweegbring.

Die ontleding in hierdie studie is gebaseer op die vier leer-vir-leierskapsprestasie vrae wat gebruik is om hierdie organisasies te meet vir deurlopende verbetering in prestasie. Die studie het ook getoon dat hierdie vrae verband hou met aksie en leer om te verseker dat deurlopende verbetering in prestasie lei tot individuele bemagtiging, institusionele groei asook 'n verbetering van die organisasie se besigheidsproses.

Die resultate ondersteun vorige studies se bevindinge wat getoon het dat dit meer uitdagend is om gemeenskapsgebaseerde organisasies strategies te bestuur vanweë hul teenstrydige en verskeie venootskappe met belanghebbendes. Die studie het ook gevind dat daar 'n gebrek is aan maatstawe om die prestasie van hierdie twee GPF's te kan meet om te kan bepaal of hul voorgenome doelwitte bereik is.

Hierdie studie dra by tot die akademiese literatuur vanweë beperke navorsing oor die onderwerp oor prestasiebestuur van GPF's. Hierdie studie dra verder by tot die bestaande kennis deur die geleentheid te skep vir addisionele navorsing om gemeenskapsgebaseerde organisasies te lei en te ondersteun om hul prestasie te verbeter deur middel van deurdagte aanwysers om hul prestasie te meet.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank God Almighty for giving me the strength, perseverance, and courage during the numerous turbulences while conducting this research project.

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The completion of this research project would not have been possible without the support of my wife, Astrid, and my daughters, Shelley-Rae and Lisa, whom I robbed of valuable and quality family time and who created the time and space for me to focus on this academic study.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AGM	Annual General Meeting
CODESA	Convention for a Democratic South Africa
CPFs	Community Police Forums (plural)
CPF	Community Police Forum (singular)
EFQM	European Foundation for Quality Management
ISO	International Standardisation Organisation
NDP	National Development Plan
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NHW	Neighbourhood Watch
NPA	National Peace Accord
NPM	New Public Management
NPO	Not-for-profit organisation
SAP	South African Police
SAPS	South African Police Service
TQM	Total Quality Management
UCCPF&BWC	Uniform Constitution for Community Police Forums and Boards in the Western Cape

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CHAPTER 1 : INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1   INTRODUCTION

Given the conflict that existed between a large portion of the South African population and police during apartheid, community policing emerged as a philosophy to drive police reform and to enhance transparency of services rendered by the local police. It is therefore that community police forums (CPFs) were established to democratise and legitimise the South African Police Service (SAPS) by promoting accountability at a local level (Pelser, 1999: 2).

The underlying thinking of Section 18.1 of the South African Police Service Act, Act 68 of 1995, is that CPFs should establish and maintain a partnership between communities and the SAPS; promote communication between SAPS and the community; promote co-operation between the SAPS and the community in fulfilling the needs of the community regarding policing; improve the rendering of police services to the community at national, provincial, area, and local levels; improve transparency in the SAPS and accountability of SAPS to the community; and promote joint problem identification and problem-solving by the SAPS and the community.

This is the core of community policing as defined by Yero, Othman, Abu Samah, D'Silva and Sulaiman (2012: 1) who assert that community policing is achieved through regular law enforcement, prevention, problem-solving, community engagement, and partnership. This approach is thus to establish a partnership between the local people and the police in addressing crime. As a result, the National Development Plan expects the police to "serve the community, safeguard lives and property without discrimination, protect the peaceful against violence and the weak against intimidation, and respect the constitutional rights of all to equality and justice" (National Development Plan, 2011: 340).

Since the subject of how effective CPFs conduct their oversight function has not been sufficiently researched, this study undertakes an investigation into how CPFs implement performance management at a local police precinct level within the Western Cape. This study is informed by the view of De Waal, Goedebuure and

Geradts (2011: 779), who state that there is a general inclination that organisations that employ performance management perform better than those that are less performance driven. Traditionally, performance management only focussed on financial measures such as profit and return of investment to measure performance, but according to Armstrong and Baron (2005: 2), "performance management is a natural process of management and it contributes to the effective management of individuals and teams that translates into high levels of organisational performance". Academics and authors concur that performance management aims to make the good better; share understanding about what is to be achieved; and develop capacity by providing support and guidance to people who need to deliver high performance by achieving their full potential to benefit themselves and the organisation.

Since limited studies have been conducted on the performance of CPFs in the South African context, the value of this study may prompt more research in its field. It is against this backdrop that this study argues that organisations within a multiple stakeholder relationship should be able to understand that effective and ethical governance necessitates procedures to promote organisational learning, knowledge management for change, and innovation to improve organisational performance (Schwella, 2014:85).

1.2   RESEARCH GOAL STATEMENT

The goal of this research is to conduct a case-based analysis of performance management of Community Police Forums (CPFs) in Western Cape. The research is exploratory in nature and thus specific research questions cannot be formulated at the commencement of this report. However, the findings and recommendations at the end of the report could inform future research on the topic of performance management practices of CPFs.

The findings of this research report will contribute to inculcate performance management as a practice within CPFs in the Western Cape. In addition, the findings and recommendations could inform institutionalisation improvement, new training modules, and ongoing performance monitoring of CPFs.

In order to reach this goal, a number of steps have to be taken through the research process. These steps are:

- To introduce the focus by setting the research question, especially what will be the focus of the study, and how it will be achieved;
- To provide an overview of the literature as it relates to performance management in the private sector, public sector and not-for-profit sector;
- To provide an overview of the transition of policing in South Africa as well as the institutionalisation, structure, policies and challenges of CPFs in the Western Cape;
- To assess and analyse the functioning of CPFs in the Western Cape based on a case-based approach of two CPFs; and
- To summarise and conclude the report with recommendations to improve performance management of CPFs based on the research.

1.3   MOTIVATION

The background motivation for this study is the researcher's interest in improving the effectiveness of CPFs and his equally intense interest in performance management. The researcher currently volunteers as a mentor for the two CPFs, i.e. the two case studies, which will be analysed in this study, while being in the employment of the Department of Community Safety.

Fryer, Anthony and Ogden (2009: 480) are of the opinion that one of the key challenges of the not-for-profit sector is facing the conflicts that exist between the different interest groups, which have a direct bearing on their performance. These interest groups could consist of political groups, recipients of services, internal conflict, management members, or different interest groups or funders, which have different expectations of these organisations. Based on this challenge that CPFs are facing, it is the researcher's intention that the results of this research product will provide a better understanding of performance management for the volunteers serving in these forums.

Finally, the study will represent a unique opportunity to the limited amount of academic enquiry into improving the effectiveness and efficiency of CPFs in South Africa and specifically the Western Cape.

1.4   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

When conducting social science research, the unit of analysis refers to the "what" of a research study, which could vary from individuals, groups, organisations and institutions, social artefacts, or social actions (Babbie and Mouton, 2008: 87). Babbie and Mouton (2008: 87) are of the opinion that qualitative research, like the current study, allows for a small number of cases that has to be studied, multiple data sources to be used, and flexibility for the researcher to adapt and to make changes to the research design features where necessary. One of the qualitative research design methods that will be employed will be a case study approach, which will be beneficial to conduct the study since it has the potential for theory development.

As one of the prerequisites of case studies, multiple sources of data will be sourced since the rationale is based on convergence and replication whereby the latter refers to the number of occurrences a phenomenon occurs (Babbie and Mouton, 2008: 282).

Since the goal of this research study is to conduct a case-based analysis of performance management of CPFs in the Western Cape, two critical factors of a performance management system, as identified by Padma, Ganesh and Rajendran (2006: 3), become important. They (Padma, Ganesh and Rajendran, 2006: 3) postulate that these two critical factors, namely top management commitment and performance measurement monitoring and control, are being used by organisations when conducting performance assessment. In order to measure these two critical factors, one of the most reliable data sources identified by the researcher is the minutes of CPFs' monthly executive meetings, since it relates to the theory of Babbie and Mouton (2008: 282). This theory focuses on conducting case studies in terms of measuring the frequencies or occurrences from its data source in order to develop a performance index based on weights and relevance.

The additional data source which will be solicited consists of official crime statistics that will be used to serve the purpose of providing the nature and distribution of crime

in two case-based policing precincts. According to De Kock, Kriegler and Shaw (2015: 14), one practical approach is to contextualise the actual crime statistics into four broad categories namely: less policeable crimes, somewhat policeable crimes, more policeable crimes, and police-detected crimes, but these categories are not necessarily mutually-exclusive. In addition, De Kock et al. (2015: 14) are of the opinion that the distinction is helpful, since "many changes in crime trends have little to do with the police, but rather broad socio-economic or cultural factors".

Since the focus of the study is to assess the performance of CPFs, the focus will be on policeable crime categories, since it is those crime categories the SAPS and CPFs, in conjunction with their neighbourhood watches (NHW), can influence or reduce. De Kock et al. (2015: 15) cite that policeable crime consists of property-related crime categories, which include, amongst others, burglary at residential premises, burglary at non-residential premises, theft of motor vehicle and motor cycle, and theft out of or from motor vehicle.

Since the performance index that has been constructed and crime trends that have been analysed, the study will attempt to address the following assumptions:

- There is a direct correlation between compliance and execution;
- A high compliance score translates into a high execution result; and
- A high execution result will effect a decrease in certain crime categories.

1.5   LITERATURE REVIEW

The researcher conducted a comprehensive review of the literature on the following topics for the purposes of this study:

- Definitions, objectives and purpose of performance management;
- Various models of performance management;
- Performance management in the private and public sectors; and
- Performance management in the NGO/volunteer sector especially within multiple stakeholder relations.

The contextual review of policing in South Africa and the adoption of community policing will follow the theoretical analysis, based on academic journals and books, government documentation, and CPF material.

1.6   STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study deals with the various issues relating to performance management in order to improve organisational effectiveness and efficiency. Chapter 1 provides an introduction and overview to the research study. This is done by introducing the research problem and research question linked to the research goal and the related objectives. The chapter includes an overview of the research methodology used in executing this research and reference is made to the concepts on which the literature review will further expand. The outline of the rest of the chapters in this study are outlined below.

A comprehensive theoretical overview of performance management will be provided in Chapter 2 to place performance management into context in terms of improving organisational effectiveness and efficiency. This will be done by exploring the definitions, objectives or purpose of performance management and to explain how performance measurement fits into the performance management framework. The theoretical overview will attempt to gain a better understanding of some of the performance management models, as it relates to the private sector, the public sector and the not-for-profit sector. The chapter will conclude by summarising the concepts, definitions and challenges within the mentioned private, public and volunteer sectors.

Chapter 3 will provide a brief overview of the transition of the South African police, its challenges and constraints as well as the role police played in pre- and post-Apartheid South Africa. Key concepts, such as community policing and community, will be explained against this background. This will be done to place community police forums (CPFs) into context. The chapter will also provide the background of the policies and legislative framework that guide the CPFs in South Africa and in particular the Western Cape in terms of the South African Police Service Act, Act 16 of 1996. Furthermore, the chapter will explain the institutionalisation of CPFs in the Western Cape, including the functions and processes of establishing CPFs. This

chapter will conclude with the current challenges that the CPFs face in terms of executing their legislative mandate as well as a brief synthesis of the chapter.

In Chapter 4, the focus will be on the gathering of data in an attempt to measure the organisational governance by means of a collection of inputs and weights to determine a CPF performance index. These results will be correlated with the crime trends of a number of identified subcategories of crime to determine whether CPFs, together with the SAPS, reduce the number of reported crimes as part of their problem-identification and problem-solving function. The results will then be used to address the four critical questions raised by Schwella (2014: 87) in terms of organisational performance. The chapter will conclude with a summary of the main findings.

Chapter 5 will provide a theoretical review, contextual analysis and findings by means of a summary of the research, coupled with the final conclusions and recommendations.

In order to provide credible and theoretically grounded conclusions and recommendations in the final chapter, the relevant concepts of performance management need to be understood. This will be dealt with in the theoretical overview in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 2 : PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT: A LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The goal of the literature overview is to provide an outline of the literature as it relates to performance management in the private sector, public sector and the NGO/voluntary sector. The overview will consist of the following objectives:

- The first objective of the literature overview aims to place performance management into context in terms of improving organisational effectiveness and efficiency;

- The second objective of the literature review aims to explore the definitions, objectives or purpose of performance management and to explain how performance measurement fits into the performance management framework;

- The third objective aims to gain a better understanding of some of the performance management models that were developed. The models to be discussed will include the balanced scorecard, European Foundation for Quality Management Model for Business Excellence (EFQM), Total Quality Management framework (TQM) and the International Organisation Standardisation (ISO) 9000 system;

- The fourth objective aims to attempt to provide insight into the evolvement of performance management in the private sector, the application of performance management in the private sector, and challenges faced by this sector;

- The fifth objective aims to explore performance management in the public sector in terms of the evolvement performance management as well as the challenges this sector faces when dealing with performance management;

- The sixth objective aims to provide insight of the NGO/volunteer sector by discussing its context, provide definitions of this sector, its multiple stakeholder relations and challenges faced by this sector; and

- The final objective of the literature overview is to synergise and summarise the concepts, definitions and challenges within the private, public and volunteer sectors.

2.2   CONTEXTUALISATION OF PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

The following section will explore performance management in the context of improving organisational and individual efficiency. Currie (1977: 4, quoted in Baxter and MacLeod, 2008: 57) that as far back as the 13th century Walter of Henley measured how best to plough to the best advantage and Leonardo da Vinci explored the most efficient way for a person to shovel earth.

According to Currie (1977: 4, quoted in Baxter and MacLeod, 2008: 57), the first pioneering work was done in the 19th century by Charge Babbage who developed a scientific approach to measure performance. The mathematician divided tasks into basic elements focussing on the importance of balancing the individual's operations in a process and the optimal size of a manufacturing unit. It is thus clear that the initial management of performance did not solely focus on financial criteria but rather on optimal utilisation of resources.

Armstrong and Baron (1989, quoted in Qureshi, Shahjehan, Rehman and Afsar, 2010: 1856) state that performance management as a strategic and integrated approach is employed to ensure continued success by developing individuals to improve the group and personal performance, thus increasing organisational efficiency. Chavan (2009: 393) postulates that globally managers are being challenged by economic fluctuations, advancement of information technology and a dynamic business environment. It is therefore evident that skilled managers were needed to make effective business decisions, promote interpersonal relations and meet the demand of its constituents with the right strategy.

In dealing with performance management and understanding its importance, Radnor and McGuire (2004: 257) assert that strategy, process, system and people are interdependent as per Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Organisational diamond for performance management
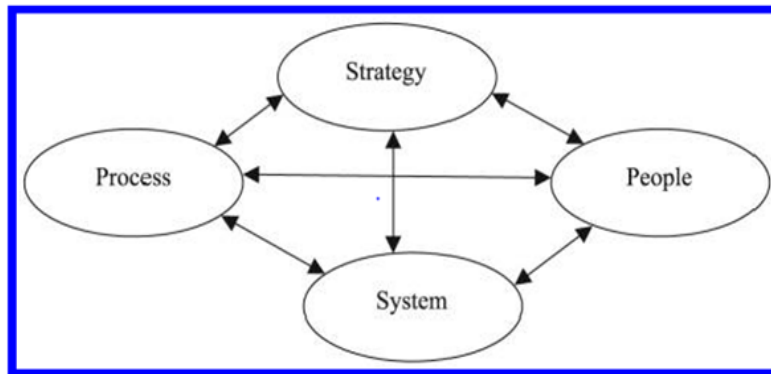
Source: Radnor and McGuire (2004: 257)

Strategy refers to the direction of the organisation as well as to the understanding of their strategic outcome while processes like the organisation's business processes and organisational structure ensure a coherent set of performance targets and indicators. People, in turn, are important in terms of their motivation, culture, skills and training to ensure ownership and accountability in the performance. The final element is system which refers to the performance management system in terms of whether or not it is realistic in achieving the intended outcome and behaviour. Based on the interdependency of these four facets, whichever affects one of these has a direct effect on the performance management.

Hence, Punniyamoorthy and Murali (2008: 420) agree that organisations are constantly attempting to be successful in an increasingly competitive and evolving environment. This is done by adopting processes in which they have to ensure not only to do it right but to ensure they are doing the right thing. Johnson and Scholes (2001, quoted in Punniyamoorthy and Murali, 2008: 421) elaborate on these views when they state:

> "Strategy is the direction and scope of an organisation over the long term: Which achieves the advantage for the organisation through its configuration of resources within a changing environment, to meet the needs of the markets and to fulfil stakeholder expectation."

2.3   DEFINITIONS AND ELEMENTS OF PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

The following section explores the definitions of performance management outlined by various authors. This section also delineates the purpose of performance management and clarifies how elements such as effectiveness and efficiency are underpinned in the performance management ideal. In conclusion, the importance of performance measurement in the process of performance enhancement of organisations is defined.

2.3.1   Definitions of performance management

According to De Waal, Goedebuure and Geradts (2011: 779), there is a general inclination that organisations that employ performance management perform better than those that are less performance driven. Armstrong and Baron (2005: 2) agree with this assertion and maintain that "performance management is a natural process of management and it contributes to the effective management of individuals and teams that translates into high levels of organisational performance". They conclude that performance management aims to make the good better; share understanding about what is to be achieved; develop capacity by providing support and guidance to people who need to deliver high performance by achieving their full potential to benefit themselves and the organisation. This is due to performance management, which traditionally only focussed on financial measures such as profit and return of investment to measure performance.

In contrast, Minnaar (2010: 157) views performance management as a continuous process while performance monitoring measures actual performance in relation to planned performance and performance evaluation as a means to determine whether the capacity and performance of an organisation are in balance.

Performance management is generally viewed as a management tool that strives to improve the performance of an organisation. "Performance" according to Qureshi et al. (2010: 1857) can be defined as "the accomplishment, execution, carrying out and working out of anything ordered or undertaken" or according to Armstrong et al. (2005: 2) performance can be regarded as behaviour, i.e. the way individuals, teams or organisations get work done.

2.3.2   Objective of performance management

Biron, Farndale and Paauwe (2011: 1297) are of the opinion that amongst the diverse objectives of performance management, these objectives can be categorised as strategic and tactical goals. Strategic goals, on the one hand, are generally implemented by management to connect the organisational goals with individuals' goals to ultimately affect individual attitudes and behaviour. Tactical goals, on the other hand, deal with issues such as individual performance, poor performance, and individual shortcomings.

In the 1980s, according to Kouzmin, Löffler, Klages and Korac-Kakabadse (1999: 122), performance focussed on the "three E's", namely economy, efficiency and effectiveness. In the 1990s, performance focussed more on quality and consumer satisfaction (Kouzmin et al. 1999: 122). This trend was characterised by the development of performance measurement systems to enable comparisons of similar activities and to measure customer satisfaction. One of these measures was the use of citizen surveys to determine the number of complaints and to focus on the long-term impact of programmes as cited by Kouzmin et al. (1999: 123).

Behn (2003: 587) identified a number of reasons about why managers consider using performance management to improve their organisation's performance. The reasons presented are for evaluation, controlling, budgeting, motivational, promotional, celebratory, learning and improvement purposes.

Furthermore, Halachmi (2005: 503) offers some of the following reasons regarding why performance measurement is a step towards improving performance:

- If you cannot measure it you do not understand it;
- If you cannot understand it you cannot control it;
- If you cannot control it you cannot improve it;
- If they know you intend to measure it, they will get it done;
- If you do not measure results, you cannot tell success from failure.

Srimai, Radford and Wright (2011: 664) state that as performance management evolved from the 1980s to 1990s, organisations were becoming more demand driven and realised that existing performance measures were not sufficient to manage organisations but rather to link strategy with performance management. Performance

management, according to Behn (2003: 591), has the ability to complement or reveal where programmes are failing or are doing extremely well. Results of performance management data provide this opportunity to gain internal and external insight. This insight enhances the opportunities to celebrate the organisation's achievements which further motivate staff to improve their performance in the future.

Finally, one of the main purposes of performance management is to determine what is working and what is not working since performance measurement contains valuable information. This information used by managers can be used to determine what is contributing towards the improved performance. For this reason Schwella (2014: 87) developed an action learning process for organisational leadership. The action learning process consists of four questions to assist managers, namely:

- What happened?
- Why did it happen?
- What can I/We learn from this?
- How can the learning be used to improve performance?

Since performance measurement has the ability to evaluate, control, motivate, promote, celebrate and assist with organisational learning to improve performance, organisational leadership remains a key challenge. Organisational leadership needs to determine what should be measured and how it should be utilised.

Jackson (1993: 10) is of the view that the value placed on performance indicators is questionable, because it is difficult to evaluate which results to use, whether resources are being used optimally or whether organisations are more effective due to improved performance management. One should concede that organisations are better off when they have performance information available for decision-making.

It is for this reason that Halachmi (2005: 507) states that little attention is paid to the critical supporting factors, such as information technology, change management, project management, and risk management, which are critical factors of a performance management system.

The purpose of implementing a performance management system is therefore to measure the current status of programmes against the objectives or project goals. The evaluation accordingly determines whether the organisation is improving or

conditions are worsening. In terms of using performance management as a controlling tool, the performance management has the ability to control the behaviour of staff by specifying particular actions against set standards. Additionally, since budget allocations are influenced by external stakeholders, the execution of programmes can be influenced by performance management data to assist managers with, amongst others, resource allocation decisions. Finally, performance management also has the ability to assist managers to motivate staff especially when targets are being stretched or increased.

2.3.3   Efficiency and effectiveness

In order to have a common understanding of efficiency and effectiveness within the context of performance management, the general definitions identified by Lawton and Rose (1994: 155) refer to:

Figure 2.2: The three E's
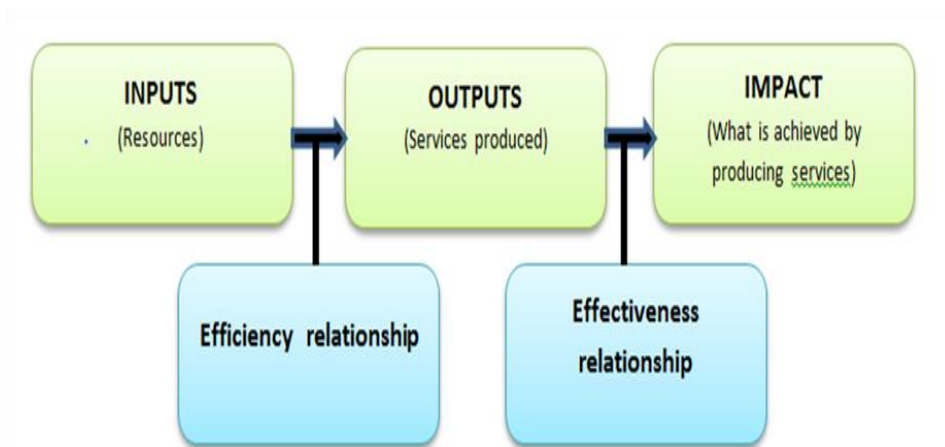
Audit Commission (1988, quoted in Lawton et al., 1994: 155)

Efficiency refers to where the least resources are applied to achieve a specific target while effectiveness refers to the extent to which objectives are met. Figure 2.2 indicates that efficiency deals with inputs and outputs while effectiveness deals with outputs and impact. Liu, Cheng, Mingers, Qi and Meng (2010: 306) are of the opinion that it is critical that a performance management system must contain elements of efficacy, efficiency and effectiveness. Efficacy refers to "what" the performance management system produces, efficiency refers to "how" it produces outputs and effectiveness refers to "why" the performance management is doing what it does.

Som, Saludin, Shuib, Keling, Ajis and Nam (2010: 121) suggest two performance criteria for organisations, namely programme effectiveness and organisational efficiency. Programme effectiveness refers to the degree to which programmes or services are reaching their intended purpose. Organisational efficiency, in turn, refers to the use of resources to affect the programme or service results. A culmination of these two criteria into possible performance indicators suggests clients' satisfaction, increase in number of clients, programme or service quality, and overall programme or service impact.

Wainwright (2003, quoted in Moxham and Boaden, 2007: 829) affirms that resources are the inputs that contribute to a programme or activity. Resources could be variables such as income, human resources or equipment. On the one hand, organisations achieve their mission through activities by means of these inputs. Outputs, on the other hand, are those countable units that are direct results of a programme but not necessarily the objectives of an organisation. Outcomes refer to the benefits for the intended beneficiary, usually planned but less countable and forms part of the organisational objectives. Finally, impact refers to all the changes resulting from activities, long-term as well as short-term, intended as well as unintended and negative as well as positive.

2.3.4   Role of performance measurement

Busi and Bititci (2006: 8) define performance management as the use of performance measurement to bring about positive change in an organisation's culture, systems and processes. This change is brought about by redirecting available resources and redefining goals followed by agreed individual objectives and standards. The term performance measurement has been used interchangeably with performance management, but it is the metric that determines organisational performance.

Goh (2012: 33) is of the opinion that performance measurement is to assist organisational performance improvement. In order to comprehend one of the sub-systems of performance management, performance measurement forms an essential component of a performance management system due the benefit of having information available for learning and performance enhancement.

Srimai et al. (2011: 673) further postulate that a "performance measurement system has to be integrated as the core of a performance management system, which can be loosely defined as a system that uses performance measurement as a means to manage strategy". A performance management system is dependent on performance measurement for feedback and decision-making, as Manville and Broad (2013: 996) agree that performance management is a process through which past actions of efficiency and effectiveness are being quantified.

Goh (2012: 38) suggests that stakeholder involvement; learning and evaluative culture and managerial discretion are three critical factors to be considered in a performance measurement system.

Figure 2.3: Characteristics of an effective performance measurement system
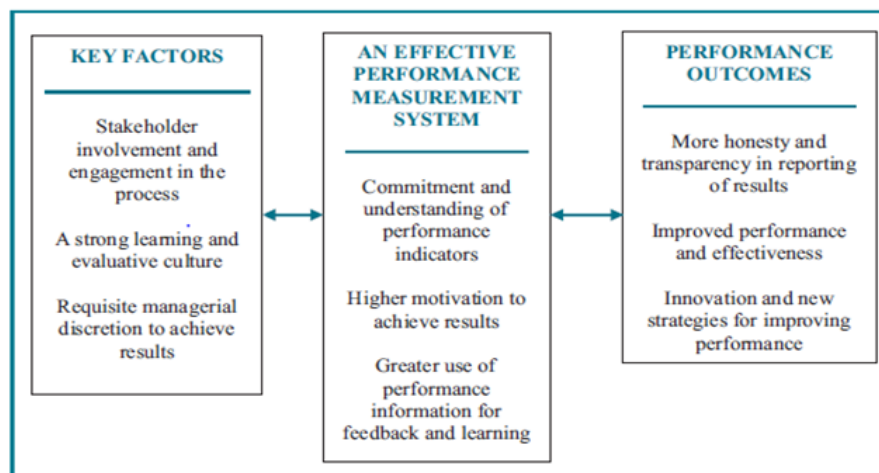
Source: Goh (2012: 38)

Figure 2.3 indicates that when these three critical factors are implemented in developing a performance management system, it would result in the desired positive performance outcomes. The intended outcomes of having these three critical factors incorporated in the performance measurement system are that they increase participants' commitment to achieve; increase motivation when targets are reached due to the inclusiveness of the system and with performance results feedback, and increase the emergence of new and innovative strategies.

Performance measurement, as a sub-system and crucial element of performance management, identifies where a desired change is required to generate a desired behaviour to yield improved performance. Radnor and Barnes (2007: 393, quoted in

Fryer, Anthony and Ogden, 2009: 480) differentiate performance management and measurement as:

> Performance measurement is quantifying, either quantitatively or qualitatively, the input, output or level of activity of an event or process. Performance management is action, based on performance measures and reporting, which results in improvements in behaviour, motivation and processes and promotes innovation.

It is therefore evident that the emphasis placed on the performance measurement system is as important as the performance management system. In order to determine the quality of the performance measurement system, cognisance of the following aspects needs to be taken into consideration:

- What to measure;
- How to measure;
- Data interpretation; and
- Communicating the results

Hernandez (2002, quoted in Radnor et al., 2004: 259) cautions that performance measurement will be of little value to a community if it is only used for the purpose of data collection and reporting. Performance measurement has the ability to address the needs of the community through data analysis whereby performance measurement becomes a tool for service delivery improvements. These improvements are possible since performance measurement involves a range of organisational activities to improve the performance of individuals which ultimately leads to organisational effectiveness.

2.4   PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

The goal of the following section is to gain a better understanding of some of the performance management models that were developed to improve organisational effectiveness since the early 1900s. Srimai et al. (2011: 672) propose that a well-defined performance management system should have an external monitoring system for indicating changes in the external environment; an internal monitoring system for indicating changes in the internal environment; a review system to provide significant information for decision-making; and an internal deployment system to deploy

revised strategic objectives where needed. Srimai et al. (2011: 673) further points out that a "performance measurement system has to be integrated as a core of a performance management system, which can be loosely defined as a system that uses performance measurement as a means to manage strategy". This means that a performance management system is dependent on performance measurement for feedback and decision-making.

Generally, performance management focussed on financial management, but as the demand increased for greater efficiency and accountability, more universal models of performance management were developed. Amongst those that will be discussed is the balance scorecard, the European Foundation for Quality Management Model for Business Excellence (EFQM), the Total Quality Management framework (TQM), and the International Organisation Standardisation (ISO) 9000 system.

2.4.1   Balanced scorecard

The balanced scorecard was developed by Kaplan and Norton in 1992 as a universal performance management tool as confirmed by Sharma (2009: 7) who emphasises that the success of any organisation is measured by its performance, which is a reflection of its strategies. Due to limited resources, organisations had to not only frame the right strategies, but also manage them. Hence, the balanced scorecard was seen as the "strategic chart of accounts" which links strategy and action according to Sharma (2009: 7)

Hoque and Adams (2011: 308) further reinforce the notion that due to the pressure on organisations to improve their performance, the balanced scorecard filled the void by using a combination of inputs, outputs and outcomes measures of performance. On the one hand, input measures track information such as staff time, budgets and natural resources while output measures consist of number of people served, services rendered or units of production. Outcomes, on the other hand, focus on whether the overall objective of a programme has been met.

According to Carmona and Sieh (2004: 358), balanced and all-encompassing measurement systems have been developed to determine organisational performance. The balanced scorecard allows managers to answer four key questions, as outlined in Figure 2.4:

- Financial perspective: How do we look at our shareholders?

- Customer perspective: How do our customers see us?

- Internal perspective: What must we excel at?

- Innovation and learning perspective: How can we continue to innovate and create value?

Figure 2.4: Balanced scorecard: framework to translate a strategy into operational plans
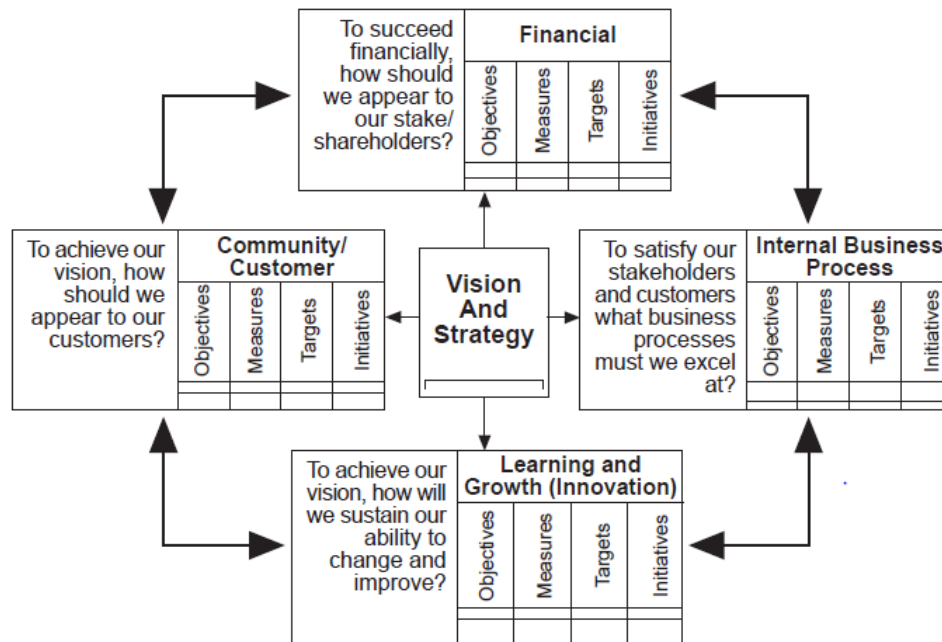
Source: Mwita (2000: 29, quoted in Kaplan and Norton, 1996)

By measuring what matters and improving alignment of strategy to day-to-day operations, the following steps have been developed by Sharma (2009: 12) to implement a balanced scorecard as per Figure 2.5.

Sharma (2009: 13) agrees with the balanced scorecard's four perspectives in that the financial perspective does not disregard the traditional need for financial data, as financial data will always be a priority for managers.

The concern is that it tends to create an uneven or unbalanced view in relation to the other three perspectives. In terms of decision-making, the customer perspective has improved since one of the leading indicators of performance management is whether customers are satisfied.

Figure 2.5: Implementing a balanced scorecard

Assessment of mission, vision, values and challenges	Development of strategic initiatives to support strategic objectives aligned to organisation's human resources	Implementation of IT system and software for real-time data
Development of strategy to focus on customer needs and organisational values	Development of performance measures, baseline and benchmarking data	Cascading enterprise level scorecard to business units to day-to-day operations
Development of strategic objectives linked to the four perspectives	Formalisation of enterprise-wide strategy map	Evaluation of scorecard by interrogating strategies, performance measures, level of customer satisfaction

Neglect of this perspective lends itself to organisational decline. The business process or internal perspective places emphasis on linking the mission of the organisation to their outputs and outcomes in terms of service delivery. Sharma's final view is the learning and innovation or growth perspective which refers to the individual and organisation's willingness for self-improvement.

Furthermore, Soderberg, Kalagnanam, Sheehan and Vaidyanathan (2011: 689) are of the opinion that the balanced scorecard, as a performance management tool, was designed to assist organisations in implementing their strategies. Thus, the pre-condition for a balanced scorecard is that the performance measurement must stem from the organisation's strategy. They, Soderberg et al. (2011: 695) further argue that performance measurement creates the following benefits:

• Alignment of strategic objectives with strategy;

• Importance of non-financial drivers of performance;

• Developing a consistent system of objectives;

• Shareholder value-based system; and

• Improved organisational results in the long term.

However, Manville and Broad (2013: 997) cautions that the balanced scorecard has a 70% failure rate which can be attributed to poor design. The poor design is due to the performance indicators that are not being aligned to the strategy of the organisation,

lack of communication, not sufficient support from senior management, and inadequate implementation of the balanced scorecard.

Manville and Broad (2013: 996, quoted in Kong, 2008) questions the suitability of balanced scorecards for non-profit organisations in terms of the customer perspective. This concern pertains to whether non-profits have service users rather than customers; the suitability of the balanced scorecards within a multiple stakeholder relationship, and the environmental context within which the non-profits operate.

In summary, the balanced scorecard is viewed as translating strategy into meaningful performance measures and targets; assisting with motivating the entire organisation; assimilating processes; and integrating all levels, management to operational, to enhance organisational effectiveness.

2.4.2 Total Quality Management

Bemowski (1992, quoted in Montes, Jover and Fernandez, 2003: 190) affirms that the term Total Quality Management (TQM) was used by the Naval Air Systems Command in 1985 to describe how the Japanese culture of management focussed on improving quality. Although no single definition exists to describe TQM, the common understanding is that it is considered as a philosophy or an approach to performance management (Montes et al., 2003: 190).

According to Montes et al. (2003: 196), academics and practitioners are in agreement that the TQM model can be divided into two categories, namely elements and content to improve organisational performance. TQM content consists of factors such as the business orientation and the environment whereby the aforementioned has a customer focus by means of a market advantage, and the efficiency of its product design, reliability, and cost reduction. In terms of the environment, the degree of market uncertainty plays a contributing role in improving performance. Moreover, Montes et al. (2003: 196) assert that there is a positive relationship between TQM contents, its business orientation, and the environmental uncertainty.

Figure 2.6: Relationship between TQM and performance.
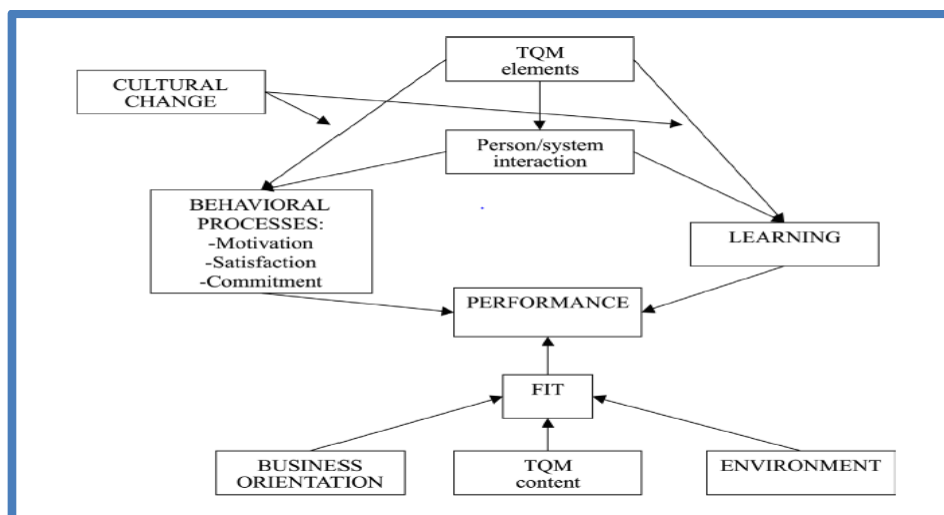
Source: Montes et al. (2003: 193)

In terms of TQM and organisational performance, the following five factors as indicated in Figure 2.6, are being used to evaluate the effectiveness of a TQM programme:

• Managerial leadership and commitment;

• Human resource management;

• Relationship between customers and suppliers;

• Internal culture of the organisation; and

• Process management.

Powell (1995, quoted in Montes et al., 2003: 196) state that the results of a study to determine the correlation between the implementation of TQM and the financial profitability, the following results were yielded:

• TQM programme has an economic value, and

• There is a positive relationship between the success of a TQM programme and factors such as management commitment, ability to empower employees, benchmarking, and measurement systems.

Additional elements that were identified are personal factors and learning. In terms of personal factors, the TQM needs to recognise current differences amongst employees pertaining to knowledge, skills, capability, degree of effort directed to performing tasks, and the general culture and social values of the individual. Montes et al. (2003: 201) cite previous studies conducted by Brown and Mitchell (1993), Schneider et al.

(1980), and Schneider et al. (1992) that these TQM elements will impact positively on performance due to individual's improved job satisfaction, motivation, and personal commitment.

Finally, one of the key elements identified is the ability to recognise and incorporate learning, training and innovation to cope with uncertainties and an evolving environment. Montes et al. (2003: 201) stress that TQM creates an organisational learning process which is conducive to equip employees with a series of skills which enable them to develop.

In conclusion, there needs to be an alignment between TQM content and the business strategy which needs to fit the environment. The same applies for the TQM elements that deal directly with organisational performance which in turn deals with individuals; what they do; their ability to do more; and the institutional efforts to improve their performance.

2.4.3   European Foundation for Quality Management's Business Excellence Model (EFQM/BEM)

Baxter et al. (2008: 66) suggest that the EFQM model originated in 1991 due to the Deming and Baldrige awards that drove performance improvement in Europe. Leading organisations saw the value of this initiative and formed the European Foundation for Quality Management, which is primarily based on self-assessment.

According to Carmona and Sieh (2004: 357), the EFQM has been widely used in the UK public sector. The model was developed with the conviction that satisfied customers, happy staff and a positive social impact can be the result of effective leadership. The model is underpinned by the fact that through effective leadership, organisational policy and strategy will direct processes and human behaviour.

Figure 2.7: EFQM model of business excellence.

The EFQM model, Figure 2.7 postulates that organisations evaluate themselves against nine performance criteria. The performance criteria consist of:

- Leadership: Take cognisance of how effectively those managing the organisation act in relation to the quest for excellence;

- People management: Recognise that quality is delivered by people, to people and through people;

- Policy and strategy: Interrogate those factors of the organisation that are directed towards the attainment of total quality;

- Resources: Place emphasis on the effective and optimal utilisation and maintenance of the institution's physical resources;

- Processes: Consider business processes such as design, development, and production;

- People satisfaction: Determine the level of satisfaction of employees in terms of morale and management behaviour, amongst others; and

- Customer satisfaction: Consider how customers respond to the services or goods it delivers;

- Impact on society: Consider the impact of the organisation on, for example, the environment, quality of life, and conservation of resources; and

- Business results: Measure the success of the organisation in terms of elements such as albeit financial or non-financial, and business objectives.

According to Carmona and Sieh (2004: 358), the EFQM is ideally suited for organisations that are already at the level of excellence in all their operations, but they caution that the model relies heavily on perceptions, is cumbersome and bureaucratic in its application, and not very dynamic.

2.4.4   International Organisation Standardisation (ISO) 9000

Singh and Mansour-Nahra (2003: 231) state that the ISO 9000 is one of those performance management tools that was introduced by the private sector and emulated by the public sector and statutory bodies to reform themselves. Carmona and Sieh (2004: 351) postulate that the ISO 9000, as a quality management system, has its origins in military quarters of the 1940s and developed further in the energy, defence and telecommunications sectors.

According to Carmona and Sieh (2004: 351), the ISO 9000 structure consists of:

- Management responsibility;
- Resource management;
- Process management;
- Measurement and analysis; and
- Improvement.

According to Padma et al. (2006: 3), the system can be divided into critical factors, which organisations are assessed on, and indicators to measure its performance. They cite that critical factors consist of top management commitment, customer focus, quality process management, continuous improvement, measurement monitoring and control, and the final factor is its human resource management.

In terms of measuring organisational performance, Padma et al. (2006: 3) state that the ISO 9000 measures organisations in terms of key performance indications such as customer satisfaction, employee morale, growth in exports, profitability, competiveness, sales growth, and market share.

 Singh et al. (2003: 232) propose that the ISO 9000 system sets standards with guidelines to manage quality products or systems whereby organisations are accredited. The accreditation demonstrates to customers that the delivering

organisation achieved a basic level of quality assurance. Advantages for organisations to be accredited consist of:

- Achieving process improvements;
- Improving processes and customer focus; and
- Becoming more efficient operationally.

In conclusion of the discussion on the ISO 9000, Singh et al. (2003: 239) assert that having the right motivation for using the system can be beneficial but cautions against at as well when they cite Rahman (2001, quoted in Sing and Mansour-Nahra, 2003: 239) that found there was no significant difference in organisational performance between ISO 9000 and non-ISO 9000 registered organisations. This could be due to other non-ISO 9000 organisations that do have an effective performance management system in place.

Based on the four systems discussed, namely the balanced scorecard, the European Foundation for Quality Management Model for Business Excellence (EFQM), the Total Quality Management framework (TQM) and the International Organisation Standardisation (ISO) 9000 system, they all have the common purpose of improving organisations' performance.

What most academics agree on is that these systems originated in the private sector and later these processes were emulated to suit the public sector and NGO sector conditions to improve efficiency and effectiveness.

2.5   PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT IN THE PRIVATE SECTOR

The goal of this section is to provide an overview of performance management in the private sector by means of the following objectives:

- To provide a background of the private sector in terms of an attempt to improve their performance;
- To explain performance management within the context of the private sector; and
- To identify the challenges in the private sector in terms of performance management.

2.5.1   Background of the private sector in terms performance management

Furnham (2004: 83) is of the opinion that within the broader context of performance management, evidence of it can be found in AD China and Rome of performance management practices and in the 18th and 19th centuries additional signs in Britain and America was practising the appraising of performance. Hence, by the 1950s in America and by the 1960s in Europe more than half of companies had performance appraisal processes in place.

According to Baxter et al. (2008: 57), Soho Engineering Foundry of Boulton provides some early evidence of scientific performance management that was used in the early 1800s. Soho then already made use of concepts such as market research, production planning and cost accounting. Attention was then placed on employee welfare and working conditions. Other pioneers of performance management in the private sector were made by Taylor and the Gilbreths. Taylor, according to Baxter et al. (2008: 58) focussed on work outputs and work measurement while Frank and Lillian Gilbreth according to Baxter et al. (2008: 58) focussed on recognising the importance of exploring alternative ways of performing a particular task as part of a series of tasks within an organisation.

These tasks all contribute to the effective utilisation of financial and non-financial resources as Walker (2007, quoted in Hellqvist, 2011: 929) assert that performance management is one of the main contributors to organisational efficiency as performance management evolved as work output, later as productivity and currently as performance. According to Hellqvist (2011: 929), performance management was viewed as an expansion of performance appraisal, which is to measure individual employee performance.

Tung, Baird and Schoch (2011: 1287) agree that organisations must constantly identify their current positions due to the changing environment they operate in to be more efficient and effective.

2.5.2   Performance management within the context of the private sector

Punniyamoorthy and Mutali (2008: 422) are of the opinion that current managers should be competent in assessing the efficiency of their organisation in terms of the

various components of its business operation. The authors (Punniyamoorthy and Murali, 2008: 422) refer to components such as employee satisfaction, social obligations, quality standards, customers, and other non-financial aspects that contribute towards an effective organisation. They (Punniyamoorthy and Murali, 2008: 422) further propose that these attributes need an appropriate strategy to link them effectively. Therefore, Kaplan (1996, quoted in Punniyamoorthy and Murali, 2008: 422) is cited who affirms that:

> An outstanding corporate strategy is not a random collection of individual building blocks but a carefully constructed system on interdependent parts […] [I]n a great corporate strategy, all of the elements (resources, business and organisation) are aligned with one another.

This is why Chavan (2009: 396) concurs that organisational strategy will determine the specific performance measures that are required for non-financial elements. However, the author (Chavan, 2009: 396) cautions that such a process requires the leadership to outline specific indicators of success. These indicators enable employees to embrace these standards in their day-to-day operations.

Moreover, Biron et al. (2011: 1294) assert that performance management denotes that organisations are engaged in a range of activities to enhance the performance of individuals and units which eventually improve the effectiveness of the organisation. These authors (Biron et al., 2011: 1294) are of the opinion that all the stakeholders need concrete information to understand the organisation's significance which serve to assist shaping and strengthening behaviour.

According to Hellqvist (2011: 930), performance management should be viewed in terms of how every aspect of the organisation is managed from its strategy to its operational activities and how the effectiveness of all these efforts can be measured. These include inputs such as the values that staff members are contributing, their behaviour, as well as their competencies.

Qureshi et al. (2010: 1856) are of the opinion that performance management can be viewed as a strategic and integrated approach to communicate the success of the

organisation to its people. This is done in order to improve group and personal performance (Qureshi et al., 2010: 1856). Hence, the need emerges from more organisations to implement performance management to achieve better results and improved psychological outputs.

2.5.3   Challenges of performance management faced by the private sector

Biron et al. (2011: 1296) caution that one of the crucial elements of an effective performance management system is how the system is implemented. They are of the opinion that when a performance management system is improperly implemented or maintained, the effects could become an additional strain on the organisation instead of it being a motivational tool or negatively affecting employee relations.

Furthermore, Vakkuri and Meklin (2006: 243) caution that some limitations managing performance management do exist due to performance measurement that is restricted to only those organisational activities that are measurable; that performance measurement systems tend to focus on the short term; that organisations tend to alter their behaviour based on the measurement system; and due to misrepresentation, organisations tend to improve their reports instead of improving their performance.

On a management level, Montes et al. (2002: 192) cautions that previous studies indicate that when organisations implement a performance management system, productivity is expected to increase and the assumption is made that the increase in profits is the consequence of the intervention. What should be kept in mind is that other events might have occurred concurrently with the intervention or due to the Hawthorne effect, which occurs when staff works harder and better due to the new approach and not the actual performance management system that is implemented.

Haines III and St-Onge (2012: 1170) argue that when human capital development is undermined, performance management might be viewed as a bureaucratic requirement since it does not enhance employee development or performance improvement. Qureshi et al. (2010: 1856) concur that effective performance management is not possible if focus is not placed on performance-driven behaviour and managers acting as role-models.

2.6   PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

The goal of this section is to provide an overview of performance management in the public sector by means of the following objectives:

- To provide a background of the public sector in terms as it replicated private sector principles to improve their performance;

- To explain performance management within the context of the public sector; and

- To identify the challenges of the public sector in terms of performance management.

2.6.1   Background

Batley and Larbi (2004: 38) suggest that during the 1970s and 1980s a number of motivators instigated public sector reforms. Some of the motivators were the global economic crises which led to budget deficits; public criticism for an efficient and effective public service due to increased taxation; and the need for good governance since good governance is underpinned by efficiency and accountability.

These public sector reforms as defined by academics and scholars as New Public Management (NPM) consisted of a set of management approaches and techniques replicated from the private sector and adopted for the public sector. Hence, Fryer et al. (2009: 479) state that one of the basic tenets of public sector reforms is performance management as an attempt to improve the public service performance.

The NPM as cited by Minogue (1998: 18) saw public sector reforms replacing "old public administration" with "new public management" principles based on public sector critiques and reforms in the United Kingdom. Minogue (1998: 18) summarised these reforms in terms of some of the following principles:

- Steer the ship, rather than row it;

- Empower communities, rather than simply delivering services;

- Be mission driven, rather than rule driven; and

- Fund outcomes, rather than inputs.

It is against this backdrop that the NPM approach raised the fact that if managers are given the freedom to manage, they must be under obligation to account for their organisation's performance by meeting specific targets with their available resources.

Mwita (2000: 19) is of the opinion that the public sector was traditionally described as non-productive and taxing on the economy, but it was positively influenced by the dawn of the NPM. This is further recognised by Hoque et al. (2011: 308) who assert that the NPM doctrine promotes private sector management principles and accounting norms in order for the public sector to enhance its performance resulting in improved decision-making. The evolvement of NPM for governments to adopt private sector principles consequently provided the stimulus for various performance management systems to be adopted.

2.6.2 Context of performance management within the public sector

Phillips (2007: 732) postulates that for public sector organisations to improve their performance, they should focus on both strategic and operational levels. The strategic level refers to what the organisation aims to achieve and operational level refers to those leading processes which require monitoring.

Figure 2.8: Performance management within the strategic planning lifecycle.

Source: Sharif (2002: 66) adapted from Glueck (1980)

Sharif (2002: 65) argues that a grounded methodology is needed for implementing performance management approach that aims to communicate the strategic goals of the organisation. Based on Figure 2.8, each of these four stages has an inter-dependent relationship in terms of performance management:

- Strategic planning: Execute the business

    Continuous development required

- Strategic management: Create the future

    Potential of the organisation identified

- Budget Control: Meet the budget

    Current processes defined

- Medium-range planning: Predict the future

    Tactical information refined

The above framework, according to Sharif (2002: 65), provides the current status of the organisation as well as a prediction into the future.

Kouzmin et al. (1999: 121) assert that in order to understand performance management in the public sector one needs to understand the differences between the private sector and public sector. While the private sector focuses on bottom-line profits and consumer demands, the public sector operates with a fixed budget and is insensitive to consumer demands to a certain degree.

With the evolvement of performance management from the 1980s to 1990s, as confirmed by Srimai et al. (2011: 664), the organisations were becoming more demand driven. They realised that existing performance measures were not sufficient to manage organisations but rather to link their strategy to performance management.

Jarrar and Schiuma (2007: 5) agree that performance measurement assists public sector organisations by means of:

- Planning and implementing strategies;
- Influencing organisational behaviour;
- Focusing, compelling, monitoring and rewarding staff;
- Communicating to stakeholders both internally and externally; and
- Developing the principles of a learning organisation.

Based on the above literature, it is evident that performance management form an integral part of the strategic management of public sector organisations as it informs the strategy and direction of the public agency.

2.6.3   Performance management challenges facing public sector institutions

Jarrar and Schiuma (2007: 5) noted that since performance management focuses on outputs, results and the implementation thereof, the public sector has not been very successful in the application of performance management. One of the reasons is that managers tend to be more focussed on obtaining immediate results. This is to the detriment of long-term vision and goals.

Northcott and Taulapapa (2012: 169) subsequently identified systemic shortcomings in terms of inadequate information systems, lack of management support, time constraints, poor linkages to employee rewards, unsuitable key performance indicators and organisational resistance as some of the key challenges for the implementation of performance management systems. One of the practical challenges facing public managers is how public sector institutions identify and incorporate causal relationships since the key to performance management is the cause-and-effect link. Performance management causality remains a challenge for performance management champions within the public sector.

Radnor et al. (2004: 259) concur that performance management in the public sector currently focuses more on performance measurement and evaluation; that targets are not considered; and that a lack of ownership exist. Radnor et al. quote Hernandez (quoted in Radnor et al., 2004: 259) as stating the following:

> [I]f performance management is simply viewed as a data-collection and reporting exercise, it will serve little purpose to a community. It is only through an analysis of data that performance measurement can become a tool for continuous service improvement.

2.7   PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT IN THE NPO/VOLUNTARY SECTOR

The goal of this section is to provide an overview of performance management in the NPO/voluntary sector by means of the following objectives:

- To provide a background of the NPO/voluntary sector in terms of the extensive use by the public sector to improve their performance;
- To define the NPO/voluntary sector as a conduit to assist mainly the public sector in meeting social needs;
- To explain performance management within the context of NPO/voluntary sector and its complex multi-stakeholder relations; and
- To identify the challenges the NPO/voluntary sector faces in terms of performance management.

2.7.1   Background

According to Conaty (2012: 291) governments are increasingly seeking support to meet service delivery demands by accepting cooperative responsibility to serve marginalised communities or groups. One of the major partners in such collaboration is an extensive use of NPO or voluntary non-profit organisations to alleviate social and political pressures for greater efficiency, improved services, and an effective delivery of services.

Conaty (2012: 290) further agrees that health, social welfare, and education were predominantly the speciality of voluntary activities, funded by the state, while maintaining their identity as a not-for-gain organisation. The relationship between the state and NPOs were born from the expectation of the state to meet public demands, which could translate into public sector efficiency and effectiveness.

Although the transition from private sector performance management principles for the public sector environment has been extensively documented, the transition to the hybrid NPO/public sector setting has received less attention. De Waal et al. (2011: 780) are of the opinion that the impact of performance management is more evident in profit organisations than in public sector due to the traditional focus placed on private sector studies and even less in the NPO/voluntary sector.

2.7.2   Definitions of NGOs or voluntary organisations

Shastri (2008: 74) defines NPOs as non-profit, voluntary community groups that are organised at a local, national or international level and that are task driven with a common purpose. At a local level, Friedman (1998, quoted in Pelser, 1999: 4) suggests that "community is not a uniform, definable entity; communities are extremely divided with little commonalities in terms of needs and aspirations".

Drawing on the World Bank's views, Shastri (2008: 74) defines NPOs as "private organisations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interest of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services or undertake community development" but voluntarism and philanthropy remains central to what defines these organisations.

According to Kong (2007: 283), NPOs could also represent an umbrella of organisations in the non-profit sector, for example social services, animal welfare, and culture, that has a mission to meet social needs irrespective of how broadly or narrowly their mission might be.

2.7.3   Context of performance management in the NGO/voluntary sector

To comprehend the complexity of NPO stakeholder relations within the context of performance management, Conaty (2012: 295) is of the opinion that NPOs and its various stakeholders are accountable to one another in terms of setting its objectives as per Figure 2.9. In the public sector environment, as funders of these NPOs, four main stakeholders are identified, namely executive politicians, legislative politicians, customers or citizens and the administration. Internal stakeholder relations referred to relationships between operational staff and professional staff. Additional stakeholders found in mainstream NPOs are supra stakeholders that consist of the ownership organisation, which could be either religious or sector based, that is responsible for the organisation's existence.

Conaty (2012: 294) identifies the following stakeholder relationships within a hybrid NPO environment:

Figure 2.9: NPO stakeholder performance relationships

Notes: [a]Equity invested ownership organisation, i.e. charity, religious order etc.; [b]Service users include people with intellectual disabilities and their families. The numbered lines highlight the additional performance relationships found in the hybrid setting
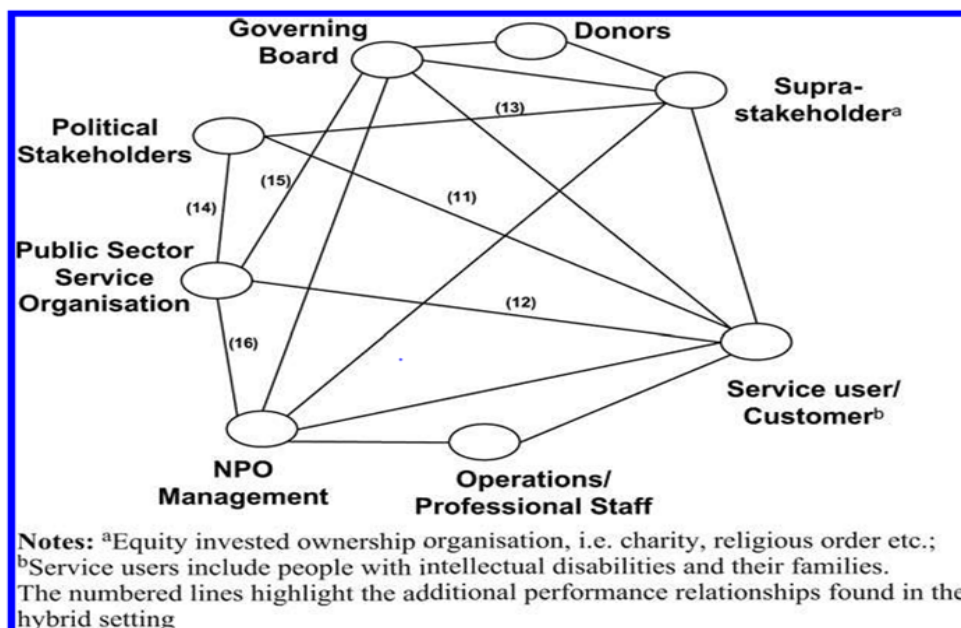
Source: Conaty (2012: 295)

1. Performance budgets and audits between the board and the supra-stakeholders in terms of compliance, regulations, and standards;

2. General service delivery charters between the board and end users of services;

3. Performance and accountability reporting between management and the board;

4. Individual service agreements between the management and service users or customers;

5. Accountability measures on the mission and ethos and the super-stakeholder;

6. Interaction between end users or customers through policy processes;

7. Undertaking between the board and donors on agreed outcomes or outputs;

8. Agreements between donors and supra stakeholders;

9. Performance agreements between management board and individual staff;

10. Interaction between operational staff and customers;

11. Commitments or agreements between political stakeholders and end users;

12. Specific agreements between public sector organisations and end users;

13. High level undertaking between political stakeholders and supra-stakeholders;

14. Performance budgets and audits between political stakeholders and public sector organisations;

15. Negotiated service delivery agreements; and

16. Operational agreements between NPO management and public sector organisations.

Figure 2.9 illustrates the complex range of stakeholder relations and these permutations provide unique challenges in terms of performance management for hybrid NPOs. Besides the management of these relations, additional challenges such as defining performance, performance measurement, and performance accountability contribute further towards the complexity.

According to Moxham (2009, quoted in Manville and Broad, 2013: 995), there is a lack of systemised performance monitoring, yet numerous performance measures exist due to the number of reports that needs to be generated for multiple stakeholders. In addition, Boorsma and Chiaravalloti (2010: 300) warn that, due to the multiple constituents, non-profits should not examine their performance solely on financial indicators to satisfy "selected" recipients.

De Waal et al. (2011: 790) provide some relief when they argue that in a previous study conducted in the NPO sector, the introduction of performance management had a positive impact on non-financial performance – especially customer satisfaction. These results are in contradiction to previous studies which indicated that performance management is primarily used to monitor and assess the utilisation of financial resources. Another condition, as referred to by de Waal et al. (2011: 790), is that the impact of performance management depends on continued attention given by the management of NPOs to become and stay successful. Therefore Shastri (2008: 75) proposes that a strategic approach for managing NPOs will result in the enhancement, growth, and sustainability of this sector.

As discussed earlier with regard to the for-profit sector, the common goal is to generate profits and then to measure organisational success by means of cost saving and value for money. Therefore, the intellectual capital of leaders in the NPO should be able to recognise human resources elements such as attitude, competencies, experiences, and skills. Additionally, reference is made to the importance of its tacit knowledge, which refers to the knowledge embedded in the minds of people in the organisation; innovativeness; and talents of staff, in order to achieve a competitive advantage as postulated by Kong (2007: 290).

2.7.4   Challenges facing NPOs/voluntary organisations

One of the key challenges identified for this sector is the high level of paternalism, since multiple stakeholders can demand information and dictate how funds are spent. Manville and Broad (2013: 995) confirms that increased accountability and multiple stakeholders' requirements transformed the NPO sector to become more business focussed.

Moxham and Boaden (2007: 826) further states that due to government's strategy to utilise the voluntary sector for public service delivery, NPOs are increasingly under pressure to comply with the public sector's accountability requirements. They, (Moxham and Boaden, 2007: 826) assert that once governments have subsidised these voluntary organisations, they have a responsibility to keep track of the performance of their funding recipients.

Just as much as the private sector and public service had to reinvent themselves to improve their efficiency and effectiveness, voluntary organisations have come under increased scrutiny due to the role they play as an extension of the public service (Moxham and Boaden, 2007: 827). Notwithstanding the role they play, research in the field of measuring performance of voluntary organisations remains limited, especially in relation to the impact that they make. To measure the impact of voluntary organisations, one has to overcome numerous challenges such as determining the causal relationship between the activities and outcomes; ability to demonstrate positive impacts; and the availability of baseline data. Additionally, De Waal et al. (2011: 793) assert that it is difficult to demonstrate that one intervention such as performance management is the sole cause of improved performance. He argues that a further challenge is the multiple activities that take place simultaneously within these NPO organisations.

Kong (2007: 283) further notes that managing NPOs strategically is more challenging compared to the for-profit and public sector organisation due to the knowledge economy. He argues that it is because of the NPO sector's conflicting and multiple stakeholder relationships that more knowledge and skills are required to manage these relations.

Fritzen (2007: 27) identifies a further challenge for performance measurement systems to address multi-faceted corruption within complex organisations while Goh (2012: 33) states that when managers are not fully committed to unbiased and fair disclosure of performance information, the possibility exists for suppression and manipulation of performance data, which defeats the purpose of performance management.

Conaty (2012: 300) isolates some critical attributes in terms of challenges for performance management within multiple stakeholder relations. Some of these challenges are:

- Inter-stakeholder relationships can be very complex;
- Conflict of interest may exist between primary stakeholders;
- Cultural and institutional differences amongst stakeholders; and
- Negative organisational outcomes due to a partial loss of identity and independence, especially in interdependent and dependent relationships.

According to Moxham et al. (2007: 832), the term "impact" is used to describe how performance is determined in the voluntary NGO sector. Shar (2003, quoted in Moxham et al., 2007: 832) argues that impact assessment is much wider than performance measurement since impact deals with the consequence of the organisation's effect on the system or environment in which it operates. He (Shar, 2003, quoted in Moxham et al., 2007: 832) further names a number of challenges in calculating impact measurement:

- Determining of a causal relationship between a particular activity and outcome;
- Difficulty of demonstrating positive impact;
- Baseline data not always available;
- Ability to apply quantitative and qualitative data; and
- Diversity of the volunteer/NGO sector.

Finally, Fryer et al. (2009: 488) cites that another challenge facing performance management in the volunteer organisations/NGO sector is the conflicts between different interest groups. These interest groups could consist of political groups, recipients of services, internal conflict, management members or different interest groups or funders which have different expectations of these organisations.

In summary, this section explored and provided a succinct overview of the NPO/voluntary sector in terms of performance management practices and challenges in its quest to increase its effectiveness.

2.8   A PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT SYNTHESIS AND OVERVIEW

A general view emerges from the literature that was consulted, namely that organisations implementing performance management have an advantage over those without it. Reasons cited are that performance management data provides organisations with a framework to measure itself where they are and where they intend to be in terms of their services, products, and resources in relation to its end users. Optimal utilisation of resources as inputs and effective systems and processes that ultimately culminate in increased productivity.

Various performance management models have been developed to measure financial and non-financial indicators although, from the literature that was reviewed, the balanced scorecard seems to be the most documented and of the most interest to the private, public and NGO/volunteer sectors. The application of performance management depends on factors such as leadership commitment, the reasons for implementing a performance management system, and the organisation's internal and external environment.

Although performance management has emanated in the private sector, evidence indicates that non-financial indicators played an equally important role as financial indicators, for example profitability and market share. Currently, public sector performance management has been placed in the spotlight due to increased measuring of accountability, limited resources, and higher demand for quality services. The NGO/volunteer sector is at even greater pressure due to its multi-stakeholder accountability to satisfy donors and funders while striving to meet the growing demand to render public services.

The application and advancement of performance management over the last few decades contributed to the performance improvement in all three sectors, namely the private, public and NGO/volunteer sectors. Strategic leadership, customer demands, and quality of services are all aimed at in improving organisational effectiveness.

Performance management is not without its challenges, as confirmed by various academics, scholars and practitioners. Some suggestions include that a performance management system should not be implemented merely to satisfy donors or be viewed as a data-collection and reporting exercise.

In conclusion, most of the literature consulted discussed what a performance management system should be by outlining its elements, processes and performance measures. What is noticeably limited is how these systems should be implemented and more importantly be maintained.

In terms of the aforementioned literature overview of performance management to improve organisational efficiency and effectiveness, the following section of the research report will explore a description of the structures and functions of community police forums in the Western Cape as it relates to the policies, institutionalisation and current state of community police forums.

CHAPTER 3 : SUMMARY OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1   INTRODUCTION

After the first democratic election in South Africa, which was held on 27 April 1994, the new government, led by the African National Congress (ANC), inherited a deeply divided country that they had to transform. This transformation required that the ANC government had to transform a previous autocratic and repressive state to a representative and inclusive democracy. Breetzke (2012: 299) postulates that some of the major challenges which this new government was facing were to restructure the economy, adjust to globalisation, address the escalating poverty, curb the high unemployment, and combat the increasing levels of crime.

It was expected that crime levels in South Africa would increase during the transition period as countries in Eastern Europe and Latin America also had similar experiences during their transitions (Breetzke, 2012: 300). Breetzke (2012: 300) is of the opinion that the rising crime levels are caused by the influx of migrant labour, a dysfunctional criminal justice system, inequality, and availability of drugs and firearms. He further suggest that these are the main contributors of the increased crime levels (Breetzke, 2012: 300). In addition to the rising crime levels, South Africa also then experienced a high level of mistrust and animosity between the police and a majority of the country's citizens due to the role police played in maintaining the previous oppressive state.

This chapter will focus on how the democratically elected ANC government adopted and institutionalised community policing as a philosophy for a police force that could be accountable to the majority of citizens they previously oppressed. This chapter's goal will be achieved by means of the following objectives, namely:

- To provide a brief overview of the transition of the South African police, its challenges and constraints as well as the role police played in pre- and post-Apartheid South Africa;

- To explain key concepts, such as community policing and community, in order to understand these definitions within the context of the community police forums (CPFs);

- To postulate the policies and legislative framework that guide the CPFs in South Africa and in particular the Western Cape in terms of the South African Police Service Act, Act 16 of 1996;

- To briefly explain the institutionalisation of the CPFs in the Western Cape that will include the functions and processes of establishing the CPFs;

- To explain the current challenges that the CPFs face in terms of executing their legislative mandate; and

- To conclude this chapter with a brief synthesis and summary of the above-mentioned objectives of this chapter.

3.2   BACKGROUND

Since the focus of this research study is on community policing, it is important to understand how public policing evolved in South Africa. In order to achieve the objective of this section, the transition of public policing in South Africa will be discussed briefly within the following three stages. These three stages are:

- Policing in South Africa pre 1994;
- National Peace Accord; and
- Policing in South Africa post 1994.

3.2.1   Policing in South Africa pre 1994

The South African Police (SAP) was formed in 1913 after the independence from Britain three years earlier according to Faull (2013: 19). He (Faull, 2013: 19) cites Nasson (1991) as saying that the first three decades of policing were described as being marked by "relative liberalism and leniency towards Africans". Hence, when the English took control of the Cape Colony in South Africa, English law prohibited the movement of the Boer and the indigenous people by means of British policing practices. These formalised policing structures assisted the colonised powers to reconstruct their legitimacy in South Africa based on European standards.

When Apartheid was formally institutionalised in 1948, Afrikaners[1] were replacing English police officers. The new Afrikaner police safeguarded Afrikaner nationalism and the SAP became an employer for poor white Afrikaner men. Meanwhile black

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[1] Afrikaners - white natives of Cape Province who are descendants of Dutch settlers and speaks Afrikaans

males saw the SAP as a more attractive career choice. They would rather be a black police officer than a farm or mine worker, although they received poor wages compared to their white counterparts and no authority over white civilians as postulated by Rauch (2000: 123).

By the 1970s, according to Faull (2013: 20), as cited by Van der Spuy (1989), the SAP introduced a new strategy to professionalise policing based on USA and UK models to portray police officers as professionals and encourage civilian trust in the SAP. This was done through raising educational standards and an introduction of new technologies. By the 1980s, the SAP focussed on the management of their resources to suppress the civil liberties of black people in South Africa.

According to Rauch (2000: 119) and Van der Spuy (2005: 193), by 1990, there were 11 police forces operating within the boundaries of South Africa, each differently legislated, and functioning within its own jurisdiction. The SAP operated in the mainland and other police agencies operated in the homelands, namely Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda, Ciskei, QwaQwa, KwaNdebele, KwaZulu, Lebowa, Gazankulu and KaNgwane in Apartheid South Africa. Rauch (2000: 119) further cites that during this period there were more than 140 000 police officers operating in South Africa with a core of the SAP drafted into these homeland forces consisting of black officers deemed loyal to the Apartheid model.

According to Pfigu (2012: 71), the Apartheid system of governance was symbolised by high levels of economic inequality and characterised by a ruling white minority and supported by a legislative framework oppressing the non-white population. He cites Shaw and Shearing (1998) and states that during Apartheid policing in South Africa, the system of legal racial segregation ensured the existence of separate residential areas where the police would focus on reducing the opportunities for crime by keeping would-be black offenders away from white victims of crime. Hence, Pfigu (2012: 72) cites Shaw (2001) who suggests that, on the one hand, policing had different meanings to the white and black population, respectively, whereby criminal acts against whites were speedily attended to. Black people, on the other hand, had to be satisfied by adhering to the oppressive laws and a highly militarised police force.

3.2.2   The National Peace Accord

After evidence was found that police collusion contributed towards the high level of violence after the unbanning of the liberation movements, a multiparty peace summit was held. This summit included the ANC, Inkatha and Nationalist Party-led government. The Peace Summit resulted in a formally binding agreement known as the National Peace Accord (NPA) which was signed on 14 September 1991. The binding agreement included specific policing provisions.

According to Pelser (1999: 2), the provisions in the NPA included "that the police shall endeavour to protect the people of South Africa from all criminal acts and shall do so in a rigorously non-partisan fashion, regardless of the political affiliation, race, religion, gender or ethnic origin of the perpetrators or victims of such acts. […] The police shall be guided by the belief that they are accountable to society in rendering their policing services and shall therefore conduct themselves so as to secure and retain the respect and approval of the public. Through such accountability and friendly, effective and prompt service, the police shall endeavour to obtain the co-operation of the public whose partnership in the task of crime control and prevention is essential."

Pelser (1999: 2) postulates further that the NPA provided a code of conduct for the police which states that"…the police have an obligation to 'preserve the fundamental and constitutional rights of each individual in South Africa." This code consisted of:

- Securing the favour and approval of the public;
- Using the least possible degree of force;
- Balancing individual freedom and collective security; and
- Conducting their duties in a professional and honest way.

These measures were identified to neutralise the potential of the police to undermine the new democracy and provided the context for police to be in sync with the community they serve at a local level. In addition, the aim of these provisions was to allow law enforcement agencies to function within a specific conducive environment that provided the framework for how policing should be conducted in a democratic South Africa.

3.2.3   Policing in South Africa post 1994

According to Leggett (2005: 582), the NPA provisions meant that the SAP had to take into account the proposed constitutional reforms. These reforms entailed taking cognisance of community-supported policing in the SAP Strategic Plan. Leggett (2005: 582) citing Rauch (2002) who suggested that the SAP had to reform to insulate the institution from drastic restructuring under the new regime. According to Rauch (2000: 120), the SAP's 1991 Strategic Plan highlighted five areas of change, namely:

- Depoliticising the police force;

- Increasing community accountability;

- Increasing visible policing;

- Establishing improved and effective management practices; and

- Reforming the police training system which included racial integration and restructuring of the police force.

The Convention for a Democratic South Africa (CODESA) further ensured that civil servants from the previous regime had protection in the new state during the amalgamation of the 10 former homelands police forces into the new SAPS according to Leggett (2005: 585). He further postulates that by 1995, at the time of the amalgamation of these police forces, over 20 percent of SAPS members were required to undergo additional training or those defined as "untrainable" to do adult basic education according to Marias (1992, quoted in Legget, 2013: 587).

Newham (2005: 161) in turn states that by 2005 the SAP had transformed by adopting a human rights approach, changing from a "force" to a "service". The SAP became the South African Police Service (SAPS). The SAPS accordingly adopted a community policing philosophy, increased police visibility and ensured decreasing crime rates at a national level. In contrast, challenges were experienced in terms of police misconduct and misuse of power at a local level.

In line with the transformation of the SAPS, Cawthra (2005: 96) confirms that the principal policy relating to police was to oversee the transition from a militaristic force to an approach in favour of community policing. This was achieved by:

- Demilitarising the police;

- Applying a less confrontational public order policing;

- Establishing mechanisms for accountability to communities;
- Integrating and restructuring the police force; and
- Terminating human rights abuse and torture.

During this period the SAPS were also implementing change management to create a "professional, representative, efficient and effective, impartial, transparent and accountable service which would uphold and protect the fundamental rights of all people and which would carry out its mission in accordance with the needs of the community" as postulated by Eloff (2006, quoted in Pfigu, 2012: 83).

Marks, Shearing, and Wood (2009: 145) states that universally, public police organisations were somehow forced to rethink both their roles and their relationship with non-state actors in the co-production of safety. In South Africa, a number of non-state actors such as street committees, neighbourhood watches and community elders were seeking social order without SAPS influence. However, policing policy in South Africa highlighted partnerships as a key pillar to community policing. Authors holding this view further claim that as crime and fear of crime increased, the language and strategies of the SAPS and politicians "became more aggressive" or as noted by Dixon (2004: 263) was the remilitarisation of police discourse. Citizens accordingly see themselves as clients or customers of safety. This approach is confirmed by Tait (2005: 2) in that prior to 2000 when police morale was low, government responded by taking a tougher approach to crime and reverting back to their traditional and controversial crime-combatting strategy.

Although the community policing approach was adopted by the SAPS after the NPA discussions in 1991, Steinberg (2014: 174) argues that the SAPS have returned to Apartheid policing and remilitarised police ranks because of the relationship between the police and the democratically elected government. This is confirmed by Legget (2005). The incorporation of staff with low skills levels meant that the SAPS were left with a huge skills deficit that were unable to translate its previous operations into democratic policing. As a result, some members of the SAPS returned to Apartheid-era policing.

Additionally, as the SAPS were implementing community policing, they also introduced sector policing to support the challenges experienced during the implementation of community policing. Tait (2014: 4) argues that when the SAPS

introduced sector policing by means of the SAPS National Instruction 3 of 2013, its objectives, amongst other things, were to:

- Prevent crime;

- Improve networks;

- Bring police closer to the community;

- Work in co-operation with the community; and

- Help the police better understand local problems by identifying and addressing underlying causes of crime.

In summary, policing in South Africa has been characterised for maintaining political order along racial lines, not being a first choice for would-be job seekers and was constrained by high volumes of unskilled and untrained officers that were incorporated into the SAPS after Apartheid as postulated by Legget (2005: 587).

Since the architects of the South African democracy were aware of these challenges facing the SAPS, the following section will focus on the public oversight mechanism envisaged by relying on communities and a community-policing approach to counter the animosity that existed towards the SAPS.

3.3   DEFINITIONS AND CONCEPTS PERTAINING TO COMMUNITY POLICING

Contact with the international police community influenced South African lawmakers in strategies to address the mammoth task of improving community police relations with citizens when the democratic transition became evident. What became apparent after the establishment of the NPA is that community policing was seen as the "silver bullet" solving the police relations with citizens in a larger fragmented society.

Dixon (2004: 257) propose that the interaction of South African academics and lawmakers with international theorists of community policing was meant to "Africanise" the Anglo-American model of community policing. This was the case even though the relationship between the police and communities was still in transition and the proposed model did not spell out what this suggested relationship should be.

This section will explore concepts such as community policing and community in the context of the CPF. Aiding this discussion, a background of policing will be provided as to why community police forums were considered.

Furthermore, a brief overview will be provided of how western democracies transformed traditional policing to community policing, some complexities to ascertain the success of community policing and the characteristics of community policing.

How community policing were adopted to suit the South African conditions will be discussed after which the section will conclude with some of the key challenges facing community policing – internationally and locally.

3.3.1   Community policing as a philosophy

According to Cordner (1995: 1) community policing is many things to many people, but a common view is that community policing is a philosophy, or an approach, and not a programme. The origins of community policing can be traced back to 1829 according to McLean (2014: unpaginated) with the establishment of the Metropolitan Police in London at a time when citizens were viewed as being able to understand their own safety needs and issues within their community. They subsequently had a right to determine how they should be policed.

In order to have some insight into what community policing is, Grabosky's (2009: 95) is of the opinion that community policing:

- "Determines the legitimate security needs of the public through processes of consultation; and
- [Determines] [c]o-production of public security, either through partnerships with individuals, interests or institutions outside of the police service; or by allowing co-producers to function independently."

Grabosky (2009: 95) is further of the opinion that these features provide some guidelines for what community policing should entail and that the process of consultation might benefit the better-resourced and more expressive members of the community compared to the disadvantaged and marginalised members of the community. Moreover, co-production of public security requires the police to work

with the citizenry to identify problems and develop strategies to address their own security needs.

Davis, Henderson and Merrick (2003: 285) reason that in Western democracies, community policing is characterised by:

- Decentralisation of authority to promote communication between police and citizens;

- A commitment to problem-solving policing;

- Allowing public participation in setting police priorities; and

- Empowering citizens to solve their own crime and disorder problems by means of crime prevention initiatives.

Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1991: 14) differentiate between community policing and traditional policing since community policing by nature brings about improvement in the relationship between communities and the police. This improvement is based on mutual respect and trust. They (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1991: 14) are also of the opinion that traditional policing focuses on crime reduction by arresting perpetrators and by doing so demonises all those living in high-crime areas. Community policing, however, involves communities in the policing process and enlisting them as partners. The community policing philosophy is based on the premise of permanently deploying officers in communities to interact with them on a face-to-face basis each day in order to develop creative solutions to community issues. Whereas traditional policing is reactive, community policing confirms that communities need crime prevention.

These differences between traditional policing and community policing are further reinforced by Greene's (2000: 309) assertions that traditional policing had a narrow law enforcement, crime control or crime repression approach and mainly reactive. Police are viewed institutionally and individually to minimise external interference, independent from communities. As per Table 3.1, traditional policing measures their success based on the number of arrests, the number of crimes and the degree of crime control, thus measuring the effort of their actions and not the results of their actions.

Community policing in turn emanates from the critique of traditional policing whereby it seeks its redefinition in terms of crime prevention and improved community police relations. This methodology is focussed on issues such as public

safety, crime, fear of crime and the quality of community life. He further postulates that much of community policing literature is focussed on capacity building within communities with the prerequisite of building and sustaining the partnership between the police and communities.

Davis et al. (2003: 286), citing Murphy (1998), further support the advantages of community policing by noting that community policing is based on increased citizen involvement in police decision-making. New Zealand and Australia, for example, adopted community policing as a joint effort by police and the public to co-produce safety.

According to Green (2000: 325), the impact of community policing is compound due to the complexity of outcome measures to determine perceptions of safety, fear of crime, and use of public spaces. Greene (2000: 351) cites Bayley and Shearing (1996) who assert that:

> "Policing is no longer monopolised by the public police, that is, the police created by the government. Policing is now being widely offered by institutions other than the state, most importantly by private companies on a commercial basis and by communities on a voluntary basis."

Davis et al. (2003: 286) are of the opinion that community policing in the USA and UK, on the one hand, encourages communities to establish neighbourhood watches, conduct patrols and start crime prevention initiatives through environmental design by citing Skogan (1990). They (Davis et al., 2003: 286) further postulate that police would sponsor public meetings, empower leaders of anti-crime forums, donate equipment and assist with logistical support. Countries such as Canada, on the other hand, as noted by Yero et al. (2012: 51), define community policing as a model that attempts to strike a balance between reactive responses with proactive problem-solving, specifically on the causes of crime and disorder, community-policing is essentially about partnership between police and citizens […] [T]he involvement of local authorities, schools, churches/mosques, social agencies and business groups in crime prevention partnership with the police becomes necessary for the success of community policing.

Table 3:1: Comparisons of social interactions and structural components of various forms of policing

SOCIAL INTERACTION OR STRUCTURAL DIMENSION	TRADITIONAL POLICING	COMMUNITY POLICING	PROBLEM-ORIENTATED POLICING	ZERO-TOLERANCE POLICING
Focus of policing	Law enforcement	Community building through crime prevention	Law, order, and fear problems	Order problems
Forms of intervention	Reactive, based on criminal law	Proactive, on criminal, civil and administrative law	Mixed, on criminal, civil and administrative law	Proactive, uses criminal, civil and administrative law
Range of police activity	Narrow, crime focus	Broad crime, order, fear, and quality of life focused	Narrow to broad – problem focussed	Narrow, location and behaviour focussed
Level of discretion at line level	High and unaccountable	High and accountable to the community and local commanders	High and primarily accountable to the police administration	Low, but primarily accountable to the police administration
Focus of police culture	Inward, rejecting community	Outward, building partnerships	Mixed, depending on problem, but analysis focused	Inward focused on attacking the target problem
Locus of decision-making	Police directed, minimises the involvement of others	Community-police co-production, joint responsibility and assessment	Varied, police identify problems but with community involvement/action	Police directed, some linkage to other agencies where necessary
Communication flow	Downward from police to community	Horizontal between police and community	Horizontal between police and community	Downward from police to community
Range of community involvement	Low and passive	High and active	Mixed depending on problem set	Low and passive
Linkages with other agencies	Poor and intermittent	Participative and integrative in the overarching process	Participative and integrative depending on the problem set	Moderate to intermittent
Type of organisation and command focus	Centralised command and control	Decentralized with community linkage	Decentralized with local command accountability to central administration	Centralised or decentralised but internally focussed
Implication for organisational change/development	Few, static organisation fending off the environment	Many, dynamic organisation focused on the environmental interactions	Varied, focused on problem resolution but with import for organisational intelligence and structure	Few, limited interventions focused on targeted problems, using many traditional methods
Measurement of success	Arrest and crime rates, particularly serious Part 1 crimes	Varied, crime, calls for service, fear reduction, use of public spaces, community linkages and contacts, safer neighbourhoods	Varied, problems solved, minimized, displaced	Arrests, field stops, activity, location-specific reductions in targeted activity

Source: Greene (2000: 311)

According to Davis et al. (2003: 286), countries explored various models to move from authoritarian policing to democratic policing in order to ensure accountability of the police to its citizens by moving from controlling citizens to being accountable to the very same citizens. As countries explored the various models, the conditions under which community policing was developed in Western democracies were different from those in developing countries.

Dixon (2004: 251) suggests that as community policing became a popular philosophy in the USA, it was also embraced by the Netherlands and Sweden while countries like France, Austria and countries of Eastern Europe and the then Soviet Union were resistant to adopt community policing.

A number of contextual factors that influence how community policing functions at a local level were identified by Davis et al. (2003: 286). These factors for successful implementation of community policing are:

- The community composition incorporates similar values, homogeneity and socio-economic conditions;

- A strong network of organisations exists to build crime initiatives according to existing programmes;

- Communities have traditionally more respect for the police instead of a culture of police brutality;

- Decentralised policing systems are more open for experimentation and innovation instead of highly centralised systems; and

- Community policing models are influenced by law enforcement technology such as access to computer-aided programmes to alleviate hotspot crime etc.

In conclusion, Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1991: 14) assert that although community policing comprises of elements of social work, it is closely related to the competence and the compassion that are required from police officers.

3.3.2   Community policing in South Africa

Dixon (2004: 254) cites Schärf (1989) who argues that civil society's participation in policing precedes South Africa's transition to democracy. He (Schärf, 1989, quoted in Dixon, 2004: 254) further highlights the fact that in the white middle class suburbs the characteristics of the Anglo-American concept of community policing were present. These characteristics entailed that partnerships existed between these communities and police and that active civil defence volunteers and neighbourhood watch members were patrolling their areas according to Dixon (2004: 254). He (Dixon 2004: 254) postulates further that in black communities, police were applying traditional policing through co-option and coercion in their effort not to become directly involved in policing these areas.

According to Pelser (1999: 4), community policing in South Africa consisted of five basic principles, namely:

- being service orientated;

- facilitating partnerships;

- identifying, analysing and solving the causes of crime;

- creating a joint responsibility to address crime; and

- creating a culture of accountability to address the needs and concerns of communities.

Pelser (1999: 4) continues by stating that the above principles correlate with the evolvement of the neo-liberal model of community policing of Western Europe. This view is in accordance with Shearing as his definition relates to the second phase of community policing. The first phase of community policing focussed on communities assisting police to collect crime intelligence. While it is not easy for communities to keep the police accountable, police can sometimes be resentful towards those partners that are too critical of them (Mclean, 2014: unpaginated). Tait (2007) in turn holds a more optimistic view, namely that there may also be wider beneficial effects for policing. Community participation in policing involves an interchange between citizens and the police which opens communication channels; brings an increased understanding to the police of community values; increases police responsiveness to community concerns and provide new sources of information to police.

As one of the important actors of community policing, Dixon (2004: 251) provides guidance by citing Brogden and Shearing (1993) that the state should recognise and acknowledge that institutions of civil society are a vital resource to assist community policing. In contrast, Dixon (2004: 251), through his citing of Jagwanth (1994), warns that the assumption of civil society as a resource is based on an assumption that a strong and vibrant civil society exists. For this reason the following section will attempt to explore the concept "community" as envisaged during the NPA and as a vital element in adopting the philosophy of community policy.

3.3.3   Conceptualisation of community

Emmet (2000: 503) postulates that community participation is based on the assumption that there is a "community" willing to participate. One of the conceptual problems with the assumption is by its definition and conception of what community

entails. Emmet (2000: 503), citing Chipkin (1996), notes that in South Africa, the notion of community is associated with class, race, and people. In addition, the assumption exists that communities are generally defined as homogenous and unified. Emmet (2000: 503) cites Chrankshaw (1996) who suggests that conflicting interests can be found within different categories that exist in a community, indicating the diversity of interests and assuming these interests and differences are reconcilable. Ren, Zhao, Lovrich and Gaffney (2006: 469) are of the opinion that one of the reasons these interest groups become involved in community concerns could be found in the relationship between government and individual perceptions. They (Ren, Zhao, Lovrich and Gaffney) suggest that it could be where a strong distrust of government exists for not providing adequate law enforcement protection. Another reason they cite is where community members believe there is a lack of law enforcement resources and the state's effects are ineffective.

Yero et al. (2012: 52) argues that people are inherently good and their co-operation is a necessary factor in building a harmonious community as the term "community" is "stereotyped and obscured" (Thorton and Ramphele, 1988, quoted in Pfigu, 2012: 64) since it can be applied to a variety of things. He postulates that the term "community" does not imply that there is an audience, a willingness to co-operate, a coherent social organisation or a sense of belonging which undermines the notion that community policing is as inclusive as what the philosophy implies. According to Lynn (2006, quoted in Visser, 2009: 13) that "no discourse is real, unmediated or provides the naked truth of community life. All discourses may be applied to understanding of a single community, with greater or lesser degree of fit, and will account for factors that are salient from different perspectives". Hence various stakeholders such as governments, not-for-profit organisations and citizens apply different discourses when referring to community due to its own diverse goals and objectives.

Pelser (1999, quoted in Dixon, 2004: 266) claims that the term "community" is used at a time when the conditions in South Africa were "highly politicised, divided, hostile and fragmented". Midgely, Hall, Hardiman and Narine (1986, quoted in Pfigu, 2012: 64) in turn suggest that "community" refers to a socio-spatial entity which denotes the geographical boundaries. However, it may also refer to either organisations with the same interest or a group or individuals with a common cause.

Emmet (2000: 504) cites Sherman et al (1998) that community-based crime prevention initiatives in poor and crime-ridden communities are ineffective due to its unrealistic demands on "already depleted resources of poor communities". Ren et al. (2006: 465) disagree with Sherman by citing that one in 12 Americans in 1995 routine participate in crime prevention initiatives to enhance the general well-being of their communities. They, (Ren, Zhao, Lovrich, and Gaffney) postulate that these community members enhance police functions by assisting to clear crime scenes, prevent crime from transpiring and maintain public order.

Ironically, a central tenet of community crime prevention programs has been the empowerment of local community leaders to design and implement their crime prevention strategies. This philosophy may amount to throwing people overboard and letting them design their own life preserver. The scientific literature shows that the policies and market forces causing criminogenic community structures and cultures are beyond the control of neighbourhood residents, and that "empowerment" does not include the power to change those policies as cited by Sherman (1997, quoted in Emmet, 2005: 504).

Newham (2005) is of the opinion that in some areas there are poor community police relations due to police perception of the CPF as a complaints forum against them. He (Newham, 2005) also states that in other areas CPF members have vested interest by only representing a specific group such as businesses, political parties or traditional authorities, instead of representing the broader community.

3.3.4   Challenges of community policing

Although community policing evolved since the early 1800s, the following challenges stem from a lack of a clear definition for the complexities associated with the implementation thereof.

Yero et al. (2012: 53) identify a number of challenges facing community policing. They cite Taylor (1998) who suggests that community policing is faced with the following challenges:

- Lack of holistic research since most assessments are carried out on specific programmes;
- General implementation of community policing;

- Problem with full implementation of community policing; and

- Difficulty in determining the relationship between community policing and crime since other factors could have a greater influence in the decrease of crime.

Since community policing is seen as a philosophy, much discourse still exists about whether or not community-orientated policing and community policing is the same thing (Yero et al., 2012: 53). Yero et al. (2012: 53) further postulate that since community policing thrives in homogenous societies, a different approach is needed when policing is conducted in diverse communities.

Cordner (1995: 1) also identifies a number of complexities of community policing:

- Programmatic complexity which is due to a lack of a common definition that makes it difficult to determine whether or not community policing in its totality work;

- Community policing generates multiple intended and unintended effects, hence a lack of a common criteria eliminates the hypothesis whether community policing creates the desired effect;

- Although community policing might render positive results when it is implemented by a single officer or at a departmental level, the same results does not translate when it is implemented at a full-scale station level; and

- Current community policing research only focuses on short-term projects, hence findings of these studies do at times lack credibility.

Since community policing is dependent on forging a partnership between the police and community, what is lacking are the reasons why some people are prepared and others are not prepared to volunteer their time and energy in creating a safer community.

In summary, community policing has the benefit of communities taking ownership of their own safety, though this is subjected to a number of dependencies. One of these dependencies is how police view the relationship, whether or not police recognise the value of citizens as an important resource, and the assumption that police hold, namely that a vibrant and cohesive community exists. Since the two concepts, namely policing and community policing, have been clarified, the following section will focus on the policy framework for the CPF.

3.4   POLICY CONTEXT OF COMMUNITY POLICE FORA

The following section intends to provide a brief overview of the legislation process to formalise the CPF in South Africa and in particular the Western Cape. The objectives of this section is to postulate the process that started with provisions in the interim Constitution in 1993, the South African Police Service Act in 1995, and its inclusion in the Constitution in 1996.

The section will also deal with how the Western Cape Province formalised the CPF by including the functions of the MEC, responsible for safety within the Western Cape, and drawing on the Western Cape Community Safety Act.

3.4.1   The Interim Constitution

Restoring police legitimacy in South Africa seems to stem from Great Britain who during 1908 had to obtain the views of the public in preventing crime (Dixon, 2004: 257). This was done by taking operation policymaking away from the police and assigning it to local elected representatives.

The drafters of the interim Constitution, Act 200 of 1993 took cognisance of the NPA provisions through an Act of Parliament or made provision in the interim Constitution for the establishment of a CPF in terms of improving community-police relations. The interim Constitution, Act 200 of 1993, Section 215 was specific in terms of specifying the functions of community fora that were:

a)   the promotion of the accountability of the SAPS to local communities and co-operation of the communities with the service;

b)   the monitoring of the effectiveness and efficiency of the Service;

c)   advising the Service regarding local policing priorities;

d)   the evaluation of the provision of visible policing services; and

e)   requesting enquiries into policing matters in the locality concerned.

These functions were later omitted from the Constitution which was adopted and incorporated in the South African Police Act, Act 68 of 1996. These legislative provisions addressed:

•   the hostility that existed between communities and the SAPS in terms of them being accountable to local communities;

- the ability of local communities to measure whether or not the SAPS is utilising their resources effectively and efficiently;

- the determining of local policing priorities;

- the evaluation of the SAPS's service; and

- the enquiry into how the SAPS managed its service at a local level.

3.4.2   South African Police Service Act, Act 68 of 1995

After the drafting of the interim Constitution, the South African Police Service Act, Act 68 of 1995, was passed in 1995. It incorporated the objectives, establishment, arrangements and functions of the CPF. According to Newham (2014: 4), the SAPS Act states that the SAPS exists "to prevent, combat, and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law".

In terms of the CPF, the Act, Section 18 (1), sets out the objectives of the CPF and Boards as envisioned in Section 215 of the interim Constitution. The SAPS will accordingly liaise with the communities through local community police fora, area boards and provincial community police boards. The liaising includes:

a)   Establishing and maintaining a partnership between the community and the Service;

b)   Promoting communication between the Service and the community;

c)   Promoting co-operation between the Service and the community in fulfilling the needs of the community regarding policing;

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

e)   Improving transparency in the Service and accountability of the Service to the community; and

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

3.4.3   Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996

Whereas the interim Constitution of 1993 made direct reference to the functions of the CPF, the current Constitution is silent on the role and functions of the CPF. One of the

reasons could be that their functions have been incorporated into the SAPS Act, which was enacted in 1995. Since the 1996 Constitution entrenches the principle of accountability and civilian oversight over the police, other Chapter Nine institutions were further entrenched to conduct oversight. These institutions include the Portfolio Committees on Police, Finance, Public Service and Administration. Notwithstanding the absence of the importance of CPFs, the Constitution provides a broad framework for, amongst other things, how public service institutions should render its services in terms of good governance.

3.4.4   White Paper on Safety and Security

In addition to the SAPS Act, a White Paper on Safety and Security, which aimed to focus on law enforcement, social crime prevention, institutional reform and enhancement of the SAPS, was passed. In reality more emphasis was placed on fighting crime or the "war against crime", such as Operation Crackdown, which focussed on stop-and-searches, roadblocks, and incorporating the Defence Force as part of the police's operations (Cawthra, 2005: 100).

3.4.5   Western Cape Constitution

Chapter Eight of the Western Cape Constitution deals specifically with the policing functions of the Western Cape. This chapter in the Constitution provides the province with the mandate of monitoring police conduct and to promote community-police relations in the Western Cape. The Constitution makes further provisions for the province to investigate or appoint a commission of enquiry in terms of police inefficiency or when there is a breakdown in the relations between the police and the community.

Schedule 4 of the Constitution of South Africa further makes provision for the police as an area over which Parliament and Provincial legislatures have concurrent legislative competencies. According to Newham and Bruce (2004: 21), Section 206 (8) of the Constitution states that effective police oversight is more about the political factors than what the legal framework provides. However, in constitutional democracies, the courts become the final mediator of disputes as postulated by Newham and Bruce (2004: 21). It is therefore that the Western Cape Department of Community Safety in conjunction with SAPS Western Cape and the Western Cape

Provincial Community Police Board developed the Uniform Constitution for Community Police Forums in the Western Cape to regulate the establishment, functioning and management of the CPF in the province. Berg, Cartwright, Lamb and McDonald (2014: 7) advise that when, amongst other things, SAPS personnel render a haphazard and substandard service and the actions of SAPS members undermine positive community-police relations, these could be indicators of poor community-police relations.

3.4.6   National Development Plan (NDP)

Berg et al. (2014: 7) postulate that the National Development Plan 2030 is congruent with the National Planning Commission (2012) that states that by achieving democratic policing in South Africa, the police service should be professional, efficient and demilitarised. The NDP expects the police to "serve the community, safeguard lives and property without discrimination, protect the peaceful against violence and the weak against intimidation, and respect the constitutional rights of all to equality and justice" as prescribed by the National Development Plan (2011: 340).

3.4.7   Western Cape Community Safety Act, Act 2 of 2013

According to Mistry and Kiplin (2004: 6), "each provincial government may approve a constitution and pass legislation regarding a functional area listed in Schedule 4, subject to certain processes and provisions. In effect this means that a provincial legislature may pass legislation with regard to policing matters that fall within its competency". They, Mistry and Kiplin (2004: 6), postulate that these powers have been bestowed on provinces whereby each province is entitled to:

- Monitor the conduct of police;
- Oversee the efficiency of the police service;
- Promote good relations between the police and communities;
- Assess the effectiveness of visible policing; and
- Liaise with the cabinet member responsible for policing on matters relating to crime and policing in the province.

Hence, Section 5 of the Western Cape Community Safety Act of 2013 makes provision for the directives for the establishment of the CPF and boards. The Act

states that in order to promote good relations between the South African Police Service and the community, the Provincial Minister may issue directives regarding the establishment of community police fora and boards in terms of sections 19(1), 20(1) and 21(1) of the South African Police Service Act of 1995. These directives include:

a)   Requirements to identify CPF members;

b)   Procedures to establish the CPF;

c)   Terms of office for the CPF;

d)   Minimum content of a CPF constitution; and

e)   Dispute resolution measures.

The Department of Community Safety must:

- Evaluate the level of the CPF's functionality;

- Regularly attend CPF meetings; and

- Annually report their findings to the Member of the Executive Committee.

The Act also makes provision that the Department of Community Safety may assist the CPF in terms funding, training or resources.

The aforementioned provided an overview of the legislative framework for the CPF as envisaged since the NPA process when the notion of community policing was introduced. The remaining section of this chapter will deal with how community policing is institutionalised at a local police station level.

3.4.8   The CPF in SA: An initial literature based evaluation

Cawthra (2005: 102) postulates that the CPF "tend to work best in wealthy white areas, where in cases they have been actively involved in supporting the police and garnering additional resources" since "the implementation across the country has been patchy at best, and they failed to get off the ground in many cases where they are most needed".

Maroga (2005: 26) found a number of structural limitations for the CPF in performing their functions. These include when a close partnership exists between the CPF and the SAPS, they become sympathetic to "their" police station which ultimately results in representing the needs of the local police station instead of representing the needs

of the community. The inverse thereof is when the CPF becomes overly critical on issues of perceived corruption, poor service delivery where the police feel the CPF oversteps their mandate and become involved in police operations.

In terms of the functions of the CPF to promote community police relations, Amtaika (2010: 606) argues that one of the reasons for the high crime rate in South Africa is caused by social inequality since cities that have high levels of inequality are more susceptible to violence and unrest. The author further argues that the greatest obstacle to effective policing is the weakness or lack of police-community relations. The author concludes that the degree of effective problem identification and problem-solving:

• depends on the community to take responsibility for their protection;

• minimises opportunities for crime; and

• depends on a willingness to co-operate with the police which could be encouraged if the CPFs define and articulate their needs with the police.

Bruce (2011: 4) argues that there seems to be a "downgrading of the importance attached to the accountability function of CPF" since the adoption of the interim Constitution of 1993 and the passing of the SAPS Act in 1995. He argues that the initial purpose of the CPF was to oversee police reform while the SAPS Act prescribed the functions of the CPF as promoting partnership, co-operation and communication. The Act further places the responsibility on the Provincial Commissioner of the SAPS to establish a broadly representative CPF at police stations in the province. In the Western Cape, a Uniform Constitution was developed by the SAPS: Western Cape, Department of Community Safety, and the Provincial Board to regulate the composition and procedural matters of the CPF.

3.5   INSTITUTIONALISATION OF THE CPF

Shearing (2007, quoted in Marks and Bonnin, 2010: 57) argues that policing cannot be left to public police alone as they will never be able to create safe communities on their own since the various actors' views on policing are so diverse. While public police are focussing on crime statistics, national priorities and bureaucratic apathy, communities are more concerned with their safety threats. Although public police are

key actors, it is important to recognise the role communities play in enhancing public safety through community policing.

The following section provides an overview of how the CPF was institutionalised in South Africa from existing peace committees which were mainly political affiliates to a more representative composition consisting of NGOs and businesses. The section will also explore how the CPF in the Western Cape was entrenched by means of a uniform constitution and directives issued by the SAPS and the Department of Community Safety.

3.5.1   The CPF as a vehicle to institutionalise community policing

Key to the transformation of the SAPS was the inclusion of a community policing approach being capsulated in the South African Police Act of 1995. The Act made provision for the SAPS to assess the needs of the community, evaluate its capacity, establish and partner with the CPF, and implement a problem-solving approach to policing.

According to Pelser (1999: 1), at the opening of Parliament on 25 June 1999, South Africa's new President, Thabo Mbeki, reaffirmed the government's commitment to "strengthen the CPF to improve their capacity to mobilise the people against crime and improve co-operation between the people and law enforcement agencies" to curb the escalating crime and violence. In addition, Rauch (2000: 121) states that the interim Constitution was very specific in terms of the establishment of the CPF. The Act required that a CPF should be established at every police station with the then local peace committees being central to the new structures. Although the previous peace committees mainly consisted of political parties, membership was open to community organisations and interested individuals.

Pelser (1999: 4) argues that the first indication of the government's commitment to implement community policing in South Africa was the Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines published in April 1997. The policy document defined community policing as a collaborative, partnership-based approach to problem-solving at a local level. A further need was expressed to urgently transform the SAPS into "an effective organisation, accountable at various levels and responsive to the needs of those it served" according to the Community Policing Policy Framework and

Guidelines (1997). Each station commander has the responsibility to choose community forum members who should be broadly representative of the local community to form a representative CPF. The aims of the CPF include:

- promoting better police-community relations;
- improving the SAPS's accountability and transparency;
- informing the SAPS of community concerns; and
- developing plans to address crime and public order issues.

According to Davis et al. (2003: 296), NGOs and the business sector played a crucial role in the implementation of community policing in South Africa. While the business sector assisted in crime prevention and awareness initiatives by contributing resources to these programmes, NGOs assisted in the training and support of the CPF. Davis et al. (2003: 299) cite Schärf (1996) who asserts that "there has been no successful community police forum established and sustained in any of the townships without the involvement of NGOs or universities".

One of the challenges that the CPF faces is whether or not they can be defined as a formal organ of the state and, if so, whether or not the state have a legal obligation to sustain them (Pelser, 1999: 10). He, Pelser (1999: 10), is of the opinion that the CPF does meet the guidelines as set out in the Constitution of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, Section 239, to be sustained by the state because the state has a constitutional obligation to:

a)   any department of state or administration in the national, provincial or local sphere of government; or

b)   any other functionary or institution

   i)   exercising a power or performing a function in terms of the Constitution or a provincial constitution; or

   ii)   exercising a power or performing a public function in terms of any legislation but does not include a court or judicial officer.

Based on the legal mandate of the CPF as encapsulated in the above-mentioned Act, after the establishment of the CPF at each police station, the intention was arguably not to create state-funded institutions at each and every police station in the country. Hence, the Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines clearly states that

these institutions are based on voluntary community service and participation. The issue of sustainability consequently remains a contentious issue for the CPF.

According to Rauch (2000: 124), after notions of community policing were replicated from international policing models, the SAPS established a Division for Community Relations in 1992 with the responsibility to establish a CPF at each police station. However, due to the huge number of former Security Branch officers in excess, many were deployed to this division which caused huge suspicion within the black communities regarding the purpose of this initiative.

According to Davis et al. (2003: 296), due to the partnership between the police, community and business, a number of new programmes have been developed. These programmes are based on the British model of community policing such as jail cells visits to monitor conditions and reporting complaints to the station commander.

3.5.2   Process of establishing the CPF in the Western Cape

In the Western Cape, the Uniform Constitution for Community Police Forums and Boards in the Western Cape: 2010 (UCCPF&BWC) was adopted on 23 March 2010 to regulate the activities of CPFs. The UCCPF&BWC provided a framework for all the CPFs in the province in terms of establishment, functioning, and composition. In terms of Section 8 of the UCCPF&BWC a Station Commander of a police station must take reasonable steps to establish a community police forum for that station.

The UCCPF&BWC further stipulates that to elect an Executive Committee, the Station Commander shall invite members of the community who must consist of representatives of community-based organisations and representatives of Community Safety Structures and Victim Support Structures. Statutory members serving on a CPF Executive Committee should consist of Sector Commanders, representatives of the municipal police services and law enforcement agencies, and members of the Department of Community Safety responsible for police oversight in the Western Cape.

The constitution further states that the Executive Committee of the CPF should have an elected Chairperson, Deputy Chairperson, Secretary, Assistant Secretary,

Treasurer, Project Co-ordinator, and Public Relations Officer. These offices should come from representatives of community-based organisations at an Annual General Meeting. The functions of these office-bearers are:

Table 3:2: Designations and functions of a CPF executive

DESIGNATION	FUNCTIONS
Chairperson	• Presides over meetings
	• Represents the CPF
	• Supervises the work of the CPF
	• Reports on the activities of the CPF
Secretary	• Arranges meetings
	• Takes minutes of all meetings
	• Keeps all official documentation of the CPF
Treasurer	• Responsible for the finances of the CPF
	• Assists with the development and execution of projects for funding
	• Presents monthly financial reports
	• Responsible for the asset register
Project coordinator	• Responsible for managing and implementing projects
	• Provides the CPF with progress and evaluation reports
Public Relations Officer	• Responsible for the publicity of the CPF
	• Facilitates communication between the media and the CPF
	• Liaises with the SAPS with regards to media statements

Amended directives issued by the Member of the Executive Council responsible for policing in the Western Cape in November 2014 stipulated that Station Commanders should oversee CPF Annual General Meetings at their respective stations. These prescribed directives include:

• The time period when AGMs should be held;

• The period between AGMs;

• Registration of community organisations and elective representatives;

• Reports to be tabled at the AGMs;

• Public notices prior to the AGMs; and

• Responsibility of the Station Commander to approve or reject membership application.

McLean (2014: unpaginated) suggests in the report to the Khayelitsha Commission that "Station Commanders sometimes hand pick CPF members who are deemed supportive of SAPS". Berg et al (2014) are of the opinion that the following measures can further improve the functioning of the CPF by means of:

a)   Improving communication between the CPF and the community;

b)   Suitable and logistical support;

c)   The CPF assisting in community mobilisation;

d)   The CPF becoming involved in station plans and performance evaluation of stations; and

e)   Impact of the CPF in addressing community concerns.

Tait (2014: 10) in turn concurs that community representation is a concern that key stakeholders rarely participate in CPF activities, which could be due to time constraints and marginalisation. Other recommendations include a proper functioning secretariat, improved planning and communication, as well as building the capacity of the CPF.

3.6   CURRENT CHALLENGES FACING THE CPF

The introduction of community policing in South Africa has not been without challenges and constraints. The following section will highlight some of these challenges albeit in terms of the role and functions of the CPF, measuring the effect of community policing or whether or not the CPF is being supported in terms of its legislative mandate.

Although the SAPS Act is clear on the role and functions of CPF, Pelser (1999: 10) argues that the functions of the CPF are contradictory in the sense that they must:

(i)   improve police-community relations;

(ii)   perform oversight of police at a local level; and

(iii)   mobilise the community to take joint responsibility in the addressing crime.

The anomaly is, given the history of police-community relationships, that a community forum was established to oversee the police and be willing to volunteer their time and resources to assist the very same organisation that previously oppressed them.

In addition to the anomaly of the role and the functions of the CPF, Tait (2005: 4) warns that the CPF, from the outset, had a difficult mandate to execute. One role as "partner" and the other as "overseer" are opposing roles which made the CPF prefer the role of partner so as not to fracture the relationship they had with the local police.

Due to the challenges the SAPS experience in terms of moving away from traditional policing to community-orientated policing, McLean (2014: 13) agrees that community policing also brings about tension when police see it as an information-gathering tool and communities see it as changing the balance of power after the birth of democracy. This challenge is further endorsed by Dixon et al (2004: 264) who is of the opinion that the implementation of community policing in developing countries is often not supported by top police management. Moreover, lower ranking police officers are antagonistic towards the CPF due to their own training and experience.

Finally, of importance is to understand why community policing is being introduced. In the absence of a clear definition, Yero et al. (2012: 53) identifies a number of challenges in terms of:

(i)   whether or not a direct link between community policing and crime reduction exists;

(ii)   what effect community policing has on the police itself; and

(iii)   what makes people want to become involved in community police or not to become involved.

3.7   SYNTHESIS AND SUMMARY

This chapter provided an overview on the transition of policing in South Africa, the evolvement of community policing with specific reference to adopting the philosophy to suit South African conditions. The literature also provided a background on the legislative framework developed to institutionalise CPF in South Africa with specific reference to the Western Cape. This chapter concluded by highlighting key challenges that CPFs are facing after 20 years since its adoption.

This section of the thesis attempted to provide some insight into the transition of policing and concluded that policing in South Africa was highly influenced by its political masters of the day. In so doing, it created huge animosity by those that were

recipients of traditional policing while others were subjected to a more "softer" policing approach.

The literature also highlighted the evolvement of community policing internationally as well as the conditions created to "Africanise" community policing in South Africa. What the literature highlighted is that the relationship between community and police was transformed from recipient of security to co-producers of safety. One of the key areas highlighted is how easily the SAPS could and are reverting back to traditional policing due to its internal constraints and challenges.

The legislative framework followed a chronological approach to demonstrate how the CPF was conceptualised as a vehicle to promote community-police relations due to the animosity that existed previously between public policing and a majority of the South African citizenry. The review also explored the attempts made by the SAPS to institutionalise the CPF although key challenges were highlighted in terms of what constitutes such a CPF, issues of representation and composition, and the sustainability and independence of the CPF.

The following section will focus on applying the literature review and conceptualisation of the CPF on two case studies to determine their application to assess how performance management is conducted in practice.

CHAPTER 4 : PRESENTATION OF CASES

4.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter Two concluded that organisations that implement performance management are better off than those that do not implement it. The main reason for this is that performance management measures where organisations are and where they want to be. These measures lead to optimal utilisation of resources, which ultimately leads to increased productivity. Schwella (2014:85) postulates that effective and ethical governance necessitates procedures to promote organisational learning, knowledge management for change and innovation to improve organisational performance. According to Schwella (2014: 87), four key questions should be addressed to ensure continuous action learning to improve organisational effectiveness, namely:

- What happened?
- Why did this happen?
- What can we learn from this?
- How can the learning be used and built back into the system to improve the quality and performance of the system?

In Chapter Three, the study explored the transition of the South African Police Service as well as the adoption and institutionalisation of community policing in South Africa. The Interim Constitution of South Africa and the South African Police Act called for the police to establish Community Police Fora at every police station to ensure they perform a number of activities to ensure police efficiency and effectiveness in the communities they serve. As discussed in Chapter Three, one of the key functions of CPF is to "promote joint problem identification and problem-solving by the SAPS and the community". This function of CPFs will be used to determine if a number of CPF inputs such as meetings, projects and partnerships are contributing to a reduction of crime and how the selected CPFs are responding to what Schwella (2014: 86) refers to as "continuous action learning" to improve organisational effectiveness.

The goal of this chapter is to assess and analyse the effectiveness of two CPFs in the Western Cape from a case-based approach. This chapter's goal will be achieved by means of the following objectives:

- To gather data in an attempt to measure the organisational compliance and execution of activities by means of a compendium of inputs and weights to determine a CPF performance index.

- To correlate the results of the CPF performance index with a number of identified subcategories of crime to determine whether CPFs, together with the SAPS, reduce the number of reported crimes as part of its problem-identification and problem-solving function;

- To use the results in addressing the four critical questions raised by Schwella (2014:87) in terms of organisational performance; and

- To conclude with a summary of the main findings.

4.2   METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

Babbie and Mouton (2008: 87) postulate that when conducting social science research the unit of analysis refers to the WHAT of a research study which could vary from individuals, groups, organisations and institutions, social artefacts or social actions. In addition, Babbie and Mouton(2008: 87) are of the opinion that qualitative research, also the type of research of the current study, allows for a small number of cases that needs to be studied, requires that multiple data sources should be used, and entails that the research design features allow the researcher flexibility to adapt and make changes where necessary. One of the qualitative research design methods that will be explored will be a case study approach which will be beneficial to conduct the study since it has the potential for theory development.

One of the prerequisites of case studies is to make use of multiple sources of data according to Babbie and Mouton (2008: 282). They postulate that the rationale thereof is based on convergence and replication whereby the latter refer to the number of occurrences a phenomenon occurs or mounts.

Since the goal of this research study is to conduct a case-based analysis of performance management of CPFs in the Western Cape, Padma et al. (2006: 3) identified two critical factors of a performance management system. They (Padma,

Ganesh and Rajendran, 2006: 3) postulate that these two critical factors, namely top management commitment and performance measurement monitoring and control are being used by organisations when conducting performance assessment.

In order to measure these two critical factors, one of the most reliable data sources identified by the researcher is the minutes of CPF monthly executive meetings since it relates to the theory of Babbie and Mouton (2008: 282) that when conducting case studies in terms of measuring the frequencies or occurrences from its data source.

The data for this study has been collected by means of a literature review of the minutes of CPF monthly executive meetings as one of the data sources. Additional secondary data are the crime statistics of the two cases which were solicited from the SAPS. This section will start with the first secondary data source.

4.2.1 The CPF performance index

According the Uniform Constitution of Community Police Forums and Board, CPFs are expected to conduct monthly executive meetings. At these meetings, the SAPS is expected to present to the CPF monthly crime patterns and the year-on-year crime comparisons. Based on the crime information, CPFs in conjunction with the SAPS will identify crime prevention initiatives as part of their problem-identification and problem-solving function.

It is also at these meetings where the Neighbourhood Watch Coordinators would present their report on the number of patrols conducted and crime incidents that occurred while they were on patrol. Minutes of CPF monthly executive meetings were solicited for the period April 2011 to March 2015.

Based on the literature consulted, common themes were developed from the data sources and 13 indicators identified. Based on the view of Padma et al. (2008: 3), these indicators were grouped into two categories, namely a compliance category or what they (Padma et al., 2008: 3) refer to as top management commitment and the execution or performance output category. In terms of the compliance, the following indicators were grouped to demonstrate the top management's commitment to improve the organisational effectiveness and efficiency:

- Number of monthly executive meetings held;

- Quorum present at these meetings;

- Minutes available of these meetings;

- SAPS presented the monthly crime statistics;

- Interventions planned;

- SAPS attendance;

- NHW registered; and

- NHW attendance at CPF meetings.

Since top management's commitments need to translate into measurable outcomes, the researcher is of the opinion that these indicators should be weighted less than the actual performance outcomes. This is in line with what Hoque and Adams (2011: 308) postulate that in order for organisations to improve their performance, they need to implement a performance management system by using a combination of inputs, outputs and outcomes. This view is further reinforced by Hellqvist (2011: 930) who cited that performance management should be viewed in terms of how every aspect of the organisation is managed from its strategy to its operational activities and how the effectiveness of all these efforts can be measured. These include inputs such as the values that staff members are contributing, their behaviour, as well as their competencies.

Based on the above views, the following indicators were considered as the direct outputs of CPFs over which these organisations could influence and hence should be weighted more than the top management's commitment or inputs as per Table 4.1:

- Crime statistics discussed;

- Interventions executed;

- NWH Patrolled; and

- NHW reported

Table 4.1 indicates that since CPFs are compelled to conduct monthly executive meetings, they need to ensure that a quorum is present at these meetings and that minutes must be kept of each meeting, a weight of 5% were allocated to each of these

indicators within the compendium of compliance indicators. As part of the SAPS responsibility to attend each CPF meeting, a weight of 5% was also allocated to this indicator. These indicators were allocated a lower weight because they did not influence the strategic outcome of a CPF or influence the quality of these meetings.

Table 4:1: The CPF performance index

NO.	INDICATOR	ACTUAL	WEIGHT	SCORE
A	Compliance		20%	
1	Number of meetings held		5%	
2	Quorum present		5%	
3	Minutes available		5%	
4	SAPS attended		5%	
5	SAPS resources discussed		10%	
6	SAPS presented crime statistics	Frequency reported during April and March	10%	
7	Intervention planned		40%	
8	NHW registered		10%	
9	NHW attended		10%	
B	Execution		80%	
10	Intervention executed		40%	
11	Crime statistics discussed		10%	
12	NHW patrolled		40%	
13	NHW reported		10%	
TOTAL			100%	
ANNUAL TOTAL PERFORMANCE				

In terms of improving the CPF performance, the basket of execution indicators is reliant on the SAPS information where crime was committed and the available SAPS resources. It is therefore that a higher weighting of 10% were allocated to these indicators. A further 10% were allocated to the two neighbourhood watch (NHW) indicators of "NHW registered" and "NHW attended" due to their contribution to influence the execution basket of indications.

The final indicator within the compliance basket of indicators is the ability of CPFs to translate the information of all the indicators to plan interventions which would ultimately contribute towards their effectiveness. Hence a higher weighting of 40% were allocated to "planned interventions" indicator.

Within the CPF execution of basket of indicators, four indicators were identified. These indicators were dependant on the compliance indicators but were activities that could contribute directly towards an effective and efficient organisation. Two indicators namely "crime statistics presented" and "NHW reported" were allocated a weight of 10% each as it provided the CPFs with relevant information on their previous interventions or initiatives. The remaining two indicators namely "interventions executed" and "NHW patrolled" provided the CPFs with their actual core activities a weighting of 40% were allocated to each of them.

Finally, these two main indicators, compliance and execution were provided with a weighting of 20% and 80% respectively since the compliance indicators on the one hand provided a basis for the execution indicators hence the lower weighting. The execution indicators on the other hand provide the CPFs with an outcome measure as postulated by Gogh (2012: 38) that performance outcomes lead to transparent reporting of results and allow for innovation and implementation of new strategies to improve performance. Therefore, a higher weighting of 40% was allocated to each of these two indicators.

The following steps will be used to determine the annual CPF performance index:

- The frequency of each indicator will be used to determine the number of occurrences this indicator was discussed based on the literature (CPF monthly executive meetings);

- Each annual indicator will be multiplied with its allocated weight to determine the individual indicator score;

- Each individual score of the main indicator (compliance and execution indicators) will be added to determine the main indicator score;

- To determine the annual performance index, the total score will be divided by 12 based on the number of compliance and execution programmes a CPF needs to conduct on an annual basis and the result will be expressed as a percentage.

Given that a performance index has been constructed, the study will attempt to answer the following assumptions:

- That there is a direct correlation between compliance and execution;

- That a high compliance score translates into a high execution result;

- That a high execution result will effect a decrease in certain crime categories

Since these assumptions intend to measure the effect of the CPF performance in terms of crime reported within a given period the following section will deal with how the crime statistics will be used in this study.

4.2.2   Crime statistics

Pfigu (2012:125) is of the opinion that crime statistics are both useful and contradictory. He explains that on the one hand police departments use crime statistics to communicate with the citizens they serve, provide feedback to the authorities, assist with the allocation of police resources and the statistics provide an overview of the crime landscape amongst provinces, regions, towns and policing precincts.

On the other hand, he (Pfigu, 2012:125) cites Pollard (1997: 53) who argues that "[c]ounting crime is a notoriously unscientific process. There are different ways of interpreting crime definitions even with the best intentions". There is also criticism amongst academic scholars that crime statistics are not dependable because they do not offer a full reflection of the crimes being committed. Pfigu (2012:125) cites Glanz (1994:39) who notes that the challenge lies in relying exclusively on crime statistics when it is well known that some crimes go unreported. For the purpose of this research thesis, the official crime statistics will be used to serve the purpose of providing the nature and distribution of crime in two case-based policing precincts. According to De Kock et al. (2015: 14) one practical approach is to contextualise the actual crime statistics into four broad categories namely: less policeable crimes, somewhat policeable crimes, more policeable crimes, and police-detected crimes but these categories are not necessarily neatly mutually-exclusive. They, De Kock et al. (2015: 14) are of the opinion that the distinction is helpful, since "many changes in crime trends have little to do with the police, but rather broad socio-economic or cultural factors".

Crimes which are less policeable such as assault, arson, commercial crime and crimes that are somewhat policeable such as murder and sexual offences will be excluded due to the limited influence the SAPS and CPFs have on these crime incidents. The other crime category that will also be excluded will be those crimes which are detected by

the SAPS such as drug-related crime; illegal possession of firearms or ammunition and driving under the influence of alcohol or drugs since these crime incidents are in the sole domain of the SAPS and outside the influence of CPFs.

Since the focus of the study is to assess the performance of CPFs, the focus will be on policeable crime categories since it is those crime categories the SAPS and CPFs, in conjunction with its neighbourhood watches (NHW) can influence or reduce. De Kock et al. (2015: 15) cites that policeable crime consists of property-related crime category which include amongst others burglary at residential premises, burglary at non-residential premises, theft of motor vehicle and motor cycle and theft out of or from motor vehicle. They, De Kock et al. (2015: 16) are of the opinion that when the SAPS and its policing partners are working effectively, they should be able to have a considerable impact on these more policeable crimes. Hence, the research assumption is hereby further refined that:

> "A highly effective CPF will contribute towards a decrease in burglary at residential premises, burglary at non-residential premises, theft of motor vehicle and motor cycle and theft out of or from motor vehicles".

These property-related crime statistics were collected from the SAPS for the period 2009/2010 to 2014/2015 during April and March of each reported year. Due to the low number of some of these reported crime categories those categories will be omitted since they could not assist in developing a pattern for the CPF to intervene and thus were not included in the data analysis process.

The following section will deal with the analysis of the two case-based studies, namely Lutzville and Diepriver policing precincts, based on the data that was collected.

4.3   PRESENTATION OF CASES

The following section will briefly explain how CPFs are structured within the various police clusters in the Western Cape. The section will also include the demographic profile as well as an overview of the performance index for the periods 2011/2012 to

2014/2015 of the two cases that will be assessed. The results of the compliance and execution indicators will be discussed in the section dealing with the data analysis.

4.3.1   Structure of CPF in the Western Cape

As mentioned in Chapter Three, it is the responsibility of each Station Commander to establish a CPF within their policing areas according to the South African Police Service Act, Act 68 of 1996. The 150 police stations in the Western Cape are divided into 16 police clusters with a number of police stations in each cluster. CPFs are also structured along the SAPS structure with a cluster chairperson responsible for the coordination of the cluster and a CPF chairperson responsible for the CPF at a police station level. The structure of the police clusters in the Western Cape is articulated in Table 4.2 below:

Table 4:2: Police stations per cluster

NO.	POLICE CLUSTER	POLICE STATIONS PER CLUSTER
1	Beaufort West	Beaufort West, Laingsburg, Leeu-Gamka, Murraysburg and Prince Albert
2	Bellville/ Kraaifontein	Bellville, Bothasig, Brackenfell, Durbanville, Goodwood, Kraaifontein and Parow
3	Cape Town	Camps Bay, Cape Town Central, Kensington, Langa, Maitland, Pinelands, Sea Point, Table Bay Harbour and Woodstock
4	Da Gamaskop	Albertinia, Barrydale, Da Gamaskop, Groot Brakrivier, Heidelberg, Kwanonqaba, Mossel Bay, Riversdale, Stilbaai, Suurbraak and Swellendam
5	Delft/Kuils River	Belhar, Bellville South, Delft, Kleinvlei, Kuils River, Mfuleni and Ravensmead
6	George/ Oudtshoorn	Calitzdorp, Conville, De Rust, Dysselsdorp, George, KwaNokuthula, Knysna, Ladismith, Oudtshoorn, Pacaltsdorp, Plettenberg Bay, Thembalethu and Uniondale
7	Hermanus/Caledon	Bredasdorp, Caledon, Gansbaai, Genadendal, Grabouw, Hermanus, Kleinmond, Napier, Riviersonderend, Stanford, Struisbaai and Villiersdorp
8	Khayelitsha	Gordon's Bay, Harare, Khayelitsha, Lingelethu West, Lwandle, Macassar, Somerset West and Strand
9	Milnerton	Atlantis, Darling, Malmesbury, Melkbosstrand, Milnerton, Moorreesburg, Philadelphia, Riebeeck West and Table View
10	Mitchells Plain	Athlone, Grassy Park, Lansdowne, Lentegeur, Mitchells Plain, Philippi, Steenberg and Strandfontein
11	Nyanga/Bishop Lavis	Bishop Lavis, Elsie's River, Gugulethu, Manenberg, Nyanga and Philippi East
12	Stellenbosch/Paarl	Cloetesville, Franschhoek, Groot Drakenstein, Klapmuts, Mbekweni, Paarl, Paarl East, Stellenbosch and Wellington
13	Vredenburg	Eendekuil, Hopefield, Laaiplek, Langebaan, Piketberg, Porterville, Redelinghuys, Saldanha, St Helena Bay and Vredenburg
14	Vredendal	Citrusdal, Clanwilliam, Doring Bay, Elands Bay, Graafwater, Klawer, Lamberts Bay, Lutzville, Nuwerus, Vanrhynsdorp and Vredendal
15	Worcester	Ashton, Bonnievale, Ceres, De Doorns, McGregor, Montagu, Prince Alfred Hamlet, Rawsonville, Robertson, Saron, Touwsrivier, Tulbagh, Wolseley and Worcester
16	Wynberg	Claremont, Diep River, Fish Hoek, Hout Bay, Kirstenhof, Mowbray, Muizenberg, Ocean View, Rondebosch, Simon's Town and Wynberg

Source: South African Police Service

The focus of the study is to assess performance management of a CPF at a station level. The two cases that will be explored are Lutzville CPF and Diep River CPF in the Vredendal Cluster and Wynberg Cluster, respectively.

4.3.2   Lutzville CPF

The West Coast District Municipality is one of five district municipalities in the Western Cape. The Matzikama Local Municipality is one of the five local municipalities that fall in the larger West Coast District Municipality. Lutzville is one of the 18 towns or villages in the local municipality whose main economic sectors are manufacturing, agriculture, forestry and fishing.

According to Statistics South Africa, the population of the town has increased by 18.2% from 11 550 to 13 828 between 2001 and 2011. Lutzville has only one police station that is responsible for three policing sectors, namely two sectors in the town and one rural sector that deals with the 252 farms.

Lutzville CPF, which has the civilian oversight mandate over the local police station, conducted their Annual General Meeting on 24 November 2014 to elect their new executive committee to manage the CPF for the next five years. Based on the data solicited from the CPF for the period April 2011 to March 2015, the CPF performance index yielded the following results:

In terms of the compendium of compliance indicators, the Lutzville CPF performed as follows:

- During the period April 2011 to March 2015, the CPF conducted 28 executive management meetings out of the 48 meetings they were supposed to conduct. Since Lutzville CPF only conducted 58% of their meetings, both the compliance and execution indicators are based on these number of meetings conducted;
- The data indicates that a quorum was present at all of these meetings with all the minutes being available to its members as a historic reference to the functioning of the CPF within the policing precinct;
- The SAPS attended 93% of the CPF monthly executive meetings;

- At 93% of these meetings interventions were deliberated to decrease crime in the policing precinct;

- In order to combat crime in the policing precinct, the CPF discussed the SAPS human and vehicle resources at only 18% of these monthly executive meetings;

- The data indicated that the monthly crime statistics were presented at 86% of these meetings;

- During the period April 2011 to March 2015, the CPF had at least one neighbourhood watch structure registered with them; and

- A representative of the NHW structure attended 93% of the CPF meetings.

With regards to the basket of execution indicators, the Lutzville CPF performed as follows during the period April 2011 to March 2015:

- Lutzville CPF reported at 89% of their meetings on the execution of their interventions;

- The crime statistics were discussed at 86% of the CPF monthly executive meetings;

- The NHW submitted a report at 86% of the CPF monthly executive meetings they attended; and

- The NHW reported at 86% of these meetings of the patrols they conducted.

The above synopsis of the Lutzville CPF resource inputs and the outcomes will be analysed in Section 4.4 against the effect these inputs had on the policeable crime over the corresponding period.

4.3.3   Diepriver CPF

Diep River is one of the suburbs in Ward 73 in Sub-council 24 of the City of Cape Town. Sub-council 24, according to the City of Cape Town, has a predominantly white population. Of them, 79% completed matric, 98% live in formal dwellings, and 93% is employed.

According to the SAPS, the population of the policing area has increased by 12.3% from 34 591 to 38 848 between 2001 and 2011. The policing area has only one police station, which is responsible for two policing sectors.

Diep River CPF, who has the civilian oversight mandate over the local police station, conducted their Annual General Meeting on 5 December 2014 to elect their new executive committee to manage the functions of the CPF for the next five years. Based on the data solicited from the CPF for the period April 2011 to March 2015, the CPF performance index yielded the following results:

In terms of the compendium of compliance indicators, the Diep River CPF performed as follows:

- During the period April 2011 to March 2015, the CPF conducted 26 executive management meetings out of the 48 meetings they were supposed to have conducted. Since Diep River CPF only conducted 54% of the meetings, both the compliance and execution indicators will be based on these 26 meetings they have conducted;

- The data indicates that a quorum was present at all of these meetings with all the minutes being available to its members as a historic reference to the functioning of the CPF within the policing precinct;

- The SAPS attended 88% of the CPF monthly executive meetings;

- In order to combat crime in the policing precinct, the CPF discussed the SAPS human and vehicle resources at only 32% or 8 of the monthly executive meetings held;

- During the period April 2011 and March 2015, the crime statistics were presented by the SAPS at 20 or 77% of the monthly executive meetings held;

- Based on the crime statistics that were discussed, at only 5 or 19% of these meetings the CPF deliberated interventions to decrease crime in the policing precinct;

- During the period April 2011 to March 2015, the CPF had at least one neighbourhood watch structure registered with them; and

- A representative of the NHW structure attended all of the CPF monthly executive meetings held.

With regards to the basket of execution indicators, the Diep River CPF performed as follows during April 2011 to March 2015:

- Diep River CPF reported at 12% of their meetings held on the execution of their interventions;

- The crime statistics were discussed at 65% or at 17 of the CPF monthly executive meetings held;

- The NHW submitted a report at 92% of the CPF monthly executive meetings they attended; and

- The NHW reported at 92% of the CPF monthly executive meetings they attended of the patrols they conducted.

The following section will discuss the effect Diep River CPF's resource inputs had on the reported crime statistics over the corresponding period.

4.4   DATA ANALYSIS

The following section will provide the analysis of the data presented by means of the CPF performance index and the crime statistics of the two case studies over the four-year period. The analysis will be based on the four leadership learning-for-performance questions by presenting each case individually before a summary will be presented.

According to Schwella (2014:87), these questions are related to action and learning to ensure continuous performance improvement that ultimately leads to individual empowerment, institutional enhancement, and an improved organisational business process.

4.4.1   What happened?

Based on the data analysed, Lutzville CPF conducted 28 monthly executive meetings during the period April 2011 to March 2015. The CPF performance index was populated for each corresponding year in terms of the 13 indicators that were identified.

Table 4.3 indicates that during the period 2011/2012 Lutzville CPF conducted 6 monthly executive meetings out of the possible 12 meetings they were supposed to conduct. The result of the 50% of meetings held resulted in a compliance score of 5.4, an execution score of 5.2, and a performance index score of 43.6%.

During the following period of 2012/2013, Lutzville CPF conducted 10 monthly management meetings out of the possible 12 meetings. The increase in management meetings held during this period resulted in the compliance score increasing to 8.7 and the execution score to 9.6, which yielded an improved performance index of 78.5% for the period 2012/2013 as per Table 4.3.

Table 4:3: Lutzville CPF performance index

LUTZVILLE COMMUNITY POLICE FORUM			2011/2012		2012/2013		2013/2014		2014/2015	
	INDICATOR	WEIGHT	ACTUAL	SCORE	ACTUAL	SCORE	ACTUAL	SCORE	ACTUAL	SCORE
A	**Compliance**	**20%**		**5.4**		**8.7**		**7.3**		**2.9**
1	Number of meetings held	5%	6	0.3	10	0.5	8	0.4	4	0.2
2	Quorum present	5%	6	0.3	10	0.5	8	0.4	4	0.2
3	Minutes available	5%	6	0.3	10	0.5	8	0.4	4	0.2
4	SAPS attended	5%	5	0.3	10	0.5	8	0.4	3	0.2
5	SAPS resources discussed	10%	3	0.3	1	0.1	1	0.1	0	0.0
6	SAPS presented crime statistics	10%	3	0.3	10	1.0	8	0.8	3	0.3
7	Interventions planned	40%	6	2.4	9	3.6	8	3.2	3	1.2
8	NHW registered	10%	6	0.6	10	1.0	8	0.8	4	0.4
9	NHW attended	10%	6	0.6	10	1.0	8	0.8	2	0.2
B	**Execution**	**80%**		**5.2**		**9.6**		**7.6**		**2.0**
10	Interventions executed	40%	5	2.0	9	3.6	8	3.2	3	1.2
11	Crime statistics discussed	10%	3	0.3	10	1.0	8	0.8	3	0.3
12	NHW patrolled	40%	6	2.4	10	4.0	7	2.8	1	0.4
13	NHW reported	10%	5	0.5	10	1.0	8	0.8	1	0.1
TOTAL		**100%**		**5.2**		**9.4**		**7.5**		**2.2**
ANNUAL TOTAL PERFORMANCE			**43.6%**		**78.5%**		**62.8%**		**18.1%**	

During the period of 2013/2014, Lutzville CPF conducted only 8 monthly executive meetings out of the possible 12 meetings. This decrease from 10 to 8 management meetings held during this period resulted in the compliance score decrease from 8.7 to 7.3 and the execution score decrease from 9.6 to 7.6, which resulted in a performance index of 62.8% for the period 2013/2014.

The final period under review is 2014/2015 when the CPF only conducted 4 monthly executive meetings out of the 12 meetings they were supposed to conduct. It is therefore that the compliance indicator for the period 2014/15 decreased from 7.3 to

2.9 and execution score from 7.6 to 2.0. These scores resulted in a 2014/2015 performance index of only 18.1% for Lutzville CPF.

Diep River CPF in turn conducted 26 monthly executive meetings during the period 2011/2012 to 2014/2015 as per Table 4.4. Based on the performance index of Diep River CPF, the CPF conducted 9 monthly executive meetings out of the 12 meetings they were supposed to execute during this period. The result of the 75% of meetings conducted translated into a compliance score of 5.1, an execution score of 4.6, and a performance index of 39.2% as per Table 4.4.

Table 4:4: Diep River CPF performance index

DIEP RIVER COMMUNITY POLICE FORUM			2011/2012		2012/2013		2013/2014		2014/2015	
NO.	INDICATOR	WEIGHT	ACTUAL	SCORE	ACTUAL	SCORE	ACTUAL	SCORE	ACTUAL	SCORE
A	Compliance	20%		5.1		1.5		2.8		5.7
1	Number of meetings held	5%	9	0.5	3	0.2	4	0.2	10	0.5
2	Quorum present	5%	9	0.5	3	0.2	4	0.2	10	0.5
3	Minutes available	5%	9	0.5	3	0.2	4	0.2	10	0.5
4	SAPS attended	5%	9	0.5	3	0.2	3	0.2	8	0.4
5	SAPS resources discussed	10%	4	0.4	1	0.1	1	0.1	2	0.2
6	SAPS presented crime statistics	10%	7	0.7	2	0.2	3	0.3	8	0.8
7	Interventions planned	40%	1	0.4	0	0.0	2	0.8	2	0.8
8	NHW registered	10%	9	0.9	3	0.3	4	0.4	10	1.0
9	NHW attended	10%	9	0.9	3	0.3	4	0.4	10	1.0
B	Execution	80%		4.6		1.7		2.7		5.9
10	Interventions executed	40%	1	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.4	1	0.4
11	Crime statistics discussed	10%	7	0.7	2	0.2	3	0.3	5	0.5
12	NHW patrolled	40%	7	2.8	3	1.2	4	1.6	10	4.0
13	NHW reported	10%	7	0.7	3	0.3	4	0.4	10	1.0
TOTAL		100%		4.7		1.7		2.7		5.9
ANNUAL TOTAL PERFORMANCE			39.2%		13.8%		22.6%		48.8%	

During the following period of 2012/2013, Diep River CPF only conducted 3 monthly management meetings (25%) out of a possible 12 meetings. This decrease of executive management meetings held during this period resulted in the compliance score decreasing from 5.1 to 1.5 and the execution score decreasing from 4.6 to 1.7. These decreases resulted in an overall performance index of 13.8% for the period of 2012/2013.

During the period of 2013/2014, Diep River CPF conducted only 4 monthly management meetings out of the possible 12 meetings. This increase from 3 to 4 monthly management meetings held during this period resulted in the compliance score increasing from 1.5 to 2.8 and the execution score increasing from to 1.7 to 2.7, which resulted in a performance index of 22.6% for the period of 2013/2014.

The final period under review is 2014/2015 when Diep River CPF conducted 10 monthly executive meetings out of the 12 meetings they were supposed to conduct. If the number of meetings held is an indication of top management's commitment to improve their outcomes or performance measures, their compliance score increased from 2.8 to 5.7 and their execution score increased from 2.7 to 5.9 during this period. These scores resulted in a 2014/2015 performance index of 48.8% for Diep River CPF.

When conducting a comparison of the two cases solely on the performance index, the following deductions can be made:

- The number of meetings per year does not relate to a high performance index as in the case of Lutzville CPF during 2011/2012 and Diep River CPF in 2014/2015 when they scored 43.6% and 48.8% respectively;
- The same number of meetings per year does not translate into CPFs performing within the same range. When both CPFs conducted 10 monthly executive meetings, Diep River CPF scored 48.8%, while Lutzville CPF scored 78.5%; and
- When both CPFs conducted 4 monthly executive meetings, both their compliance and execution scores were within the 2.0 to 2.9 range.

What the above indicate is that the number of meetings a CPF conducts does not translate into a high performance index. The following section will bring the second variable into the equation by testing the earlier assumption that a high performance index will lead to a decrease in reported policeable crime.

Figure 4.1: Lutzville policeable crime categories for 2010/2011 to 2014/2015
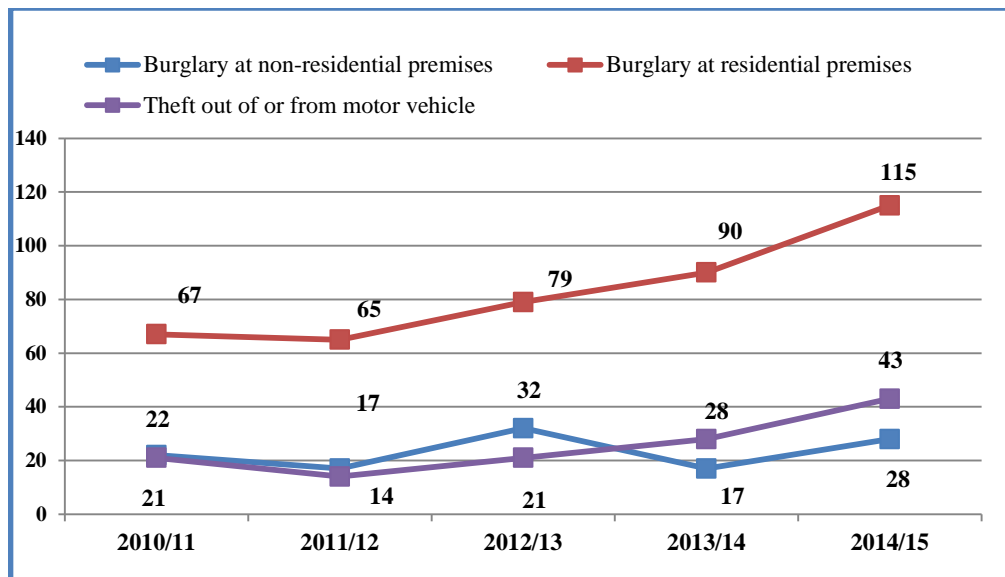
Source: South African Police Service

Due to the low number of theft of motor vehicles in the Lutzville policing precinct, this crime category has been omitted in the analysis of Figure 4.1. In terms of the other policeable crime categories, the following can be deduced based on the crime trends, as indicated in Figure 4.1:
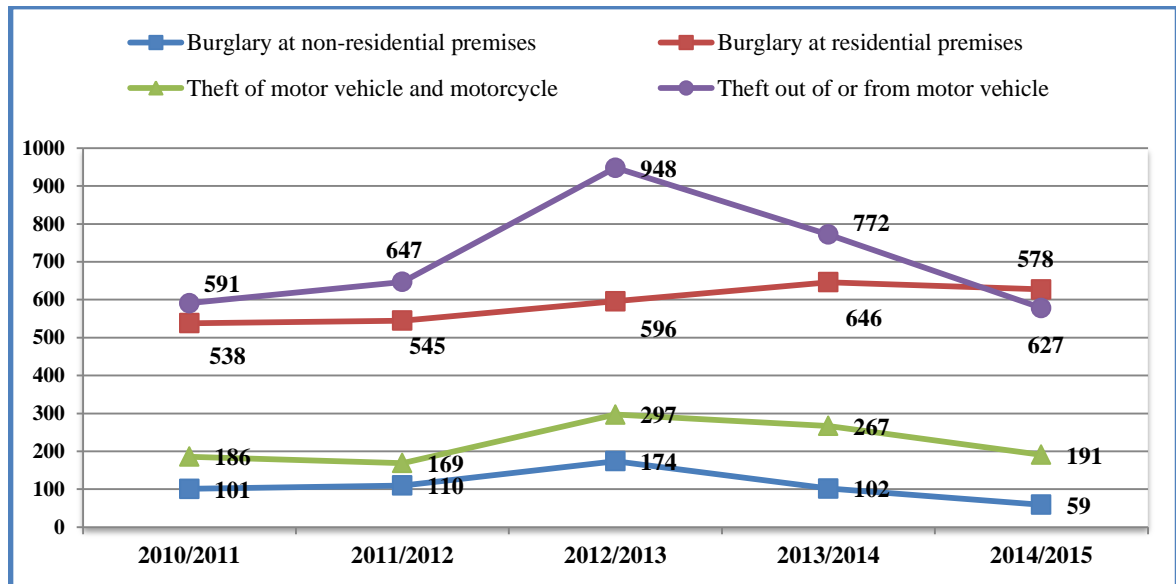
Table 4:5: Lutzville CPF performance assessment

PERIOD	LUTZVILLE CPF PERFORMANCE			POLICEABLE CRIME STATISTICS
	COMPLIANCE	EXECUTION	PERFORMANCE INDEX	RESULT
2011/2012	5.4	5.2	43.6%	Slight decrease in all three policeable crime categories.
2012/2013	8.7	9.6	78.5%	Increase in all three policeable crime categories.
2013/2014	7.3	7.6	62.8%	A further increase in both burglary at residential premises and theft out of or from motor vehicles with a decrease in burglary at non-residential premises.
2014/2015	2.9	2	18.1%	A further increase in all three policeable crime categories.

The above results indicate that although the Lutzville CPF performed well during 2012/2013 and 2013/2014, their inputs did not translate into a decrease in crime while when they performed below 50% the identified policeable crimes either decreased or

increased. It can be concluded that irrespective of Lutzville CPF performance, their inputs did not yield a positive result.

Figure 4.2: Diep River policeable crime categories for 2010/2011 to 2014/2015

Source: South African Police Service

In terms of Diep River CPF, the following deductions can be made based on Figure 4.2, which refer to the reported policeable crimes for the period 2010/2011 to 2014/2015 and the performance index developed as per Table 4.4.

Table 4:6: Diep River CPF performance assessment

PERIOD	DIEP RIVER CPF PERFORMANCE			POLICEABLE CRIME STATISTICS
	COMPLIANCE	EXECUTION	PERFORMANCE INDEX	RESULT
2011/2012	5.1	1.5	39.2%	Increases in three of the four policeable crime categories.
2012/2013	1.5	1.7	13.8%	Increases in all four policeable crime categories.
2013/2014	2.8	2.7	22.6%	Decreases in three of the four policeable crime categories.
2014/2015	5.7	5.9	48.8%	Decreases in all four crime categories.

The above results in Table 4.6 indicate that although Diep River CPF performed below 50% for the period under review, the results further indicate that during the period 2011/2012 to 2012/2013 theft out of or from motor vehicles, burglary at non-

residential premises, and theft of motor vehicle and motorcycles increased when the CPF performance was at 39.2% and 13.8% respectively. During the following two periods, the CPF performance increased to 22.6% and 48.8% respectively and three of the four policeable crime categories decreased. What can be concluded for Diep River CPF is that although their execution score was well below 5, policeable crimes decreased irrespectively.

It can thus be debated whether these results are what these two CPFs predicted based on their inputs to attain these outcomes or whether there is a misalignment of performance inputs and performance measures. These results are in line with the views of Cooper et al. (2002, quoted in Schwella, 2014:86) that in the absence of reflecting on the results and replanning, individual learning and institutional learning will not manifest in improved performance.

4.4.2   Why did this happen?

According to Schwella (2014: 87), a diagnostic analysis is required of what these actions (fluctuations in performance) caused in terms of the results (increase or decrease in crime) that are linked to an increased or decreased performance. The following section will deal with the relationship between these two variables, namely performance of the CPF on the one hand and the effect it had on crime on the other hand. The analysis will consist of determining whether a correlation exists between a high performance index (PI) and the effect the performance had on each individual policeable crime category per CPF.

The correlation coefficient, which is a value between -1 and +1, will be determined to measure how strong these two variables are related to each other. A correlation coefficient of +1 indicates a perfect positive correlation since when one variable (performance index) X increases, another variable (policeable crime) Y increases. As variable X decreases, variable Y decreases. The reverse also holds true whereas a correlation coefficient of -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation. As variable X increases, variable Y decreases. As variable X decreases, variable Y increases.

Lutzville variables comparison

This section will focus on the correlation between the CPF performance and:

- Burglary at residential premises;
- Burglary at non-residential premises;
- Theft out of or from motor vehicles; and
- Total policeable crimes.

Figure 4.3 indicates that the burglary at residential premises follows the same pattern as Lutzville PI for the two periods 2012/13 and 2013/14. This is in line with a +1 correlation coefficient. During the period 2013/14 to 2014/15, when Lutzville PI decreased, this subcategory of crime increased towards a -1 correlation coefficient.

Figure 4.3: Correlation between Lutzville PI and Burglary at residential premises
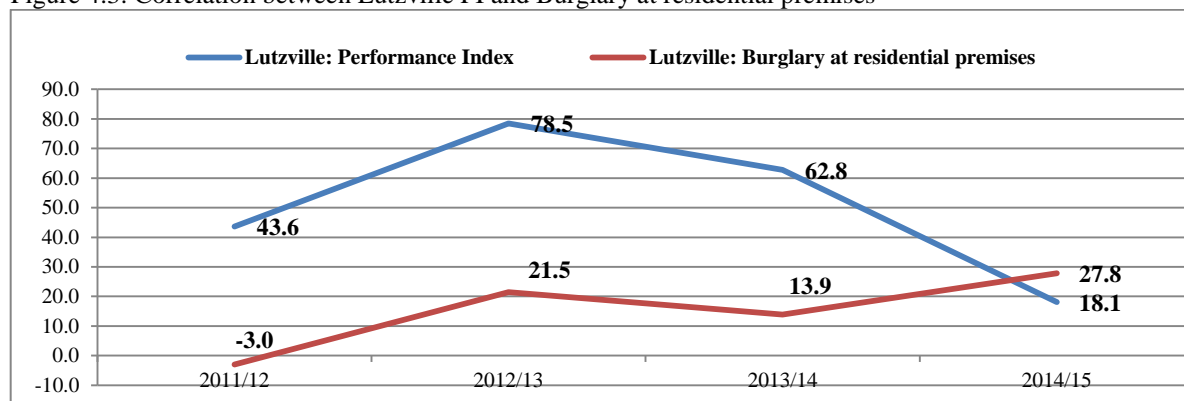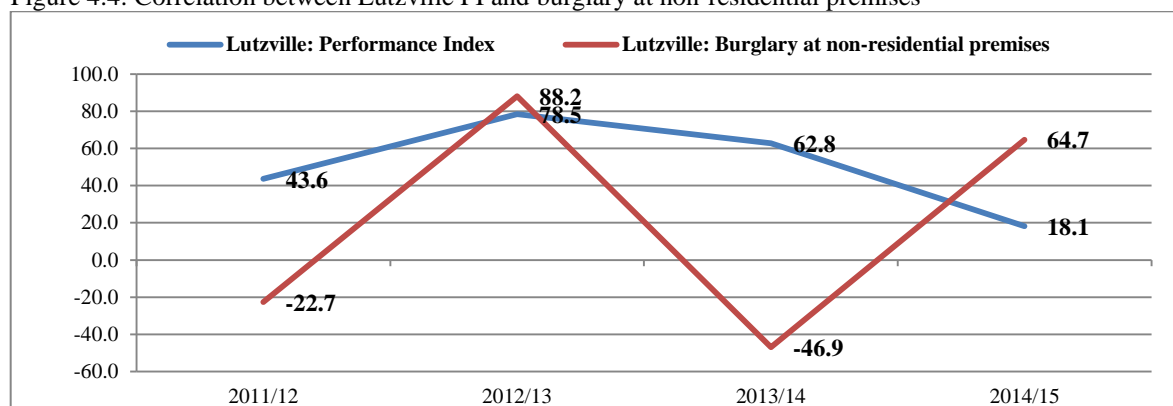

Based on the above, the correlation coefficient for these two variables indicate that a negative correlation exists between these two variables as per Table 4.7 below, but this correlation coefficient of -0.117 indicates that neither a positive nor a negative correlation exist between these two variables.

Table 4:7: Correlation coefficient of Lutzville PI and burglary at residential premises

VARIABLE	Lutzville: Performance Index	Lutzville: Burglary at residential premises
Lutzville: Performance Index	1	
Lutzville: Burglary at residential premises	**-0.117501709**	1

The following correlation to be examined will be the relationship between Lutzville PI and burglary at non-residential premises. Based on Figure 4.4, Lutzville PI increased only during the first reporting period and two consecutive decreases occurred in the period of 2012/13. During the same period, while the Lutzville PI increased from 43.6% to 78.5%, burglary at non-residential premises also increased by 88.2%. During the following period of 2012/13 to 2013/14, the PI decreased slightly, while a major decrease in this crime category occurred and increased in the following period of 2013/14 to 2014/15 to where it was previously.

Figure 4.4: Correlation between Lutzville PI and burglary at non-residential premises

Based on the above, the correlation coefficient for these two variables indicates that a negative correlation exists between these two variables as per Table 4.8, but this correlation coefficient of -0.0132 indicates that neither a positive nor negative correlation exist between these two variables. This correlation indicates that burglary at non-residential premises is less frequent than burglary at residential premises.
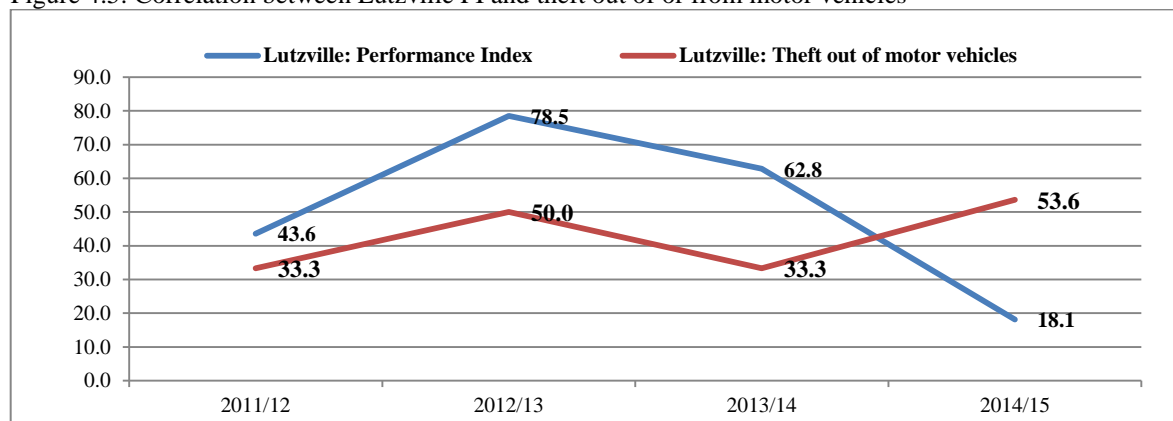
Table 4:8: Correlation coefficient of Lutzville PI and burglary at non-residential premises

Variable	Lutzville: Performance Index	Lutzville: Burglary at non-residential premises
Lutzville: Performance Index	1	
Lutzville: Burglary at non-residential premises	-0.013207239	1

Figure 4.5 indicates that theft out of or from motor vehicles, the trend can be compared to burglary at residential premises (Figure 4.3), as it follows a similar trend. The trend indicates two positive relationships between the CPF performance index

and an increase/decrease of the policeable crime category followed by a negative relationship.

Figure 4.5: Correlation between Lutzville PI and theft out of or from motor vehicles


Although theft out of or from motor vehicles follows a similar trend as burglary at residential premises, the correlation coefficient is slightly better than the aforementioned subcategory of crime. Table 4.9 indicates that the correlation coefficient is -0.236, which indicates that the correlation is neither positive nor negative, indicating a weak correlation or indicating that no relationship exists between these two variables.

Table 4:9: Correlation coefficient of Lutzville PI and theft out of or from motor vehicles

Variable	Lutzville: Performance Index	Lutzville: Theft out of motor vehicles
Lutzville: Performance Index	1	
Lutzville: Theft out of or from motor vehicles	**-0.236815155**	1

When comparing all the policeable crime categories of Lutzville with its PI, Figure 4.6 indicates that a high PI does not translate in a reduction in policeable crime. A deduction can be made that when the PI was at its highest (78.5%), the policeable crimes increased by 37.5%, while when it was at 18.15% in 2014/15, the same crime categories increased by 37.8%.

Figure 4.6: Correlation between Lutzville PI and all policeable crimes
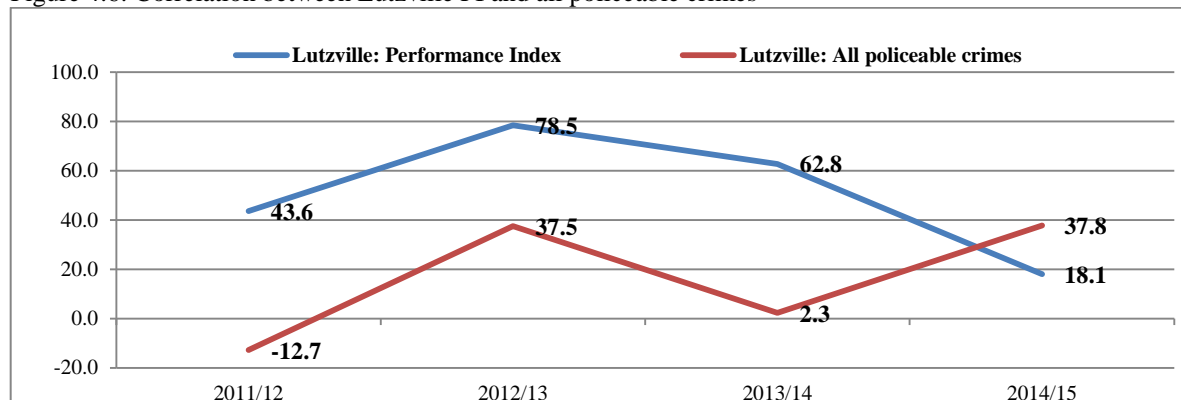
In terms of the relationship between these two variables, Table 4.10 indicates that a correlation coefficient of -0.0376 implies that there is no relationship between the PI and all policeable crimes of Lutzville.

Table 4:10: Correlation coefficient of Lutzville PI and all policeable crimes

Variable	Lutzville: Performance Index	Lutzville: All policeable crimes
Lutzville: Performance Index	1	
Lutzville: All policeable crimes	-0.037699142	1

Amongst the four correlation coefficients measured, all four policeable crimes collectively measured the lowest with burglary at non-residential premises measured the weakest and theft out of or from motor vehicles the strongest.

In summary, it can be concluded that there are no relationship between Lutzville performance index and its three policeable crimes during the period 2011/12 to 2014/2015.

Diep River variables comparison

This section will focus on the correlation between the Diep River variables, specifically the correlation between the CPF's performance and:

- Burglary at residential premises;
- Burglary at non-residential premises;
- Theft out of or from motor vehicles;
- Theft of motor vehicles; and

- Total policeable crimes.

Based on Figure 4.7, the relation between the two variables indicate that when the PI increases or decreases, the trend of burglary at residential premises moves in a different (negative) direction, which indicates that a possible negative relationship (-1) exist.

Figure 4.7: Correlation between Diep River PI and burglary at residential premises
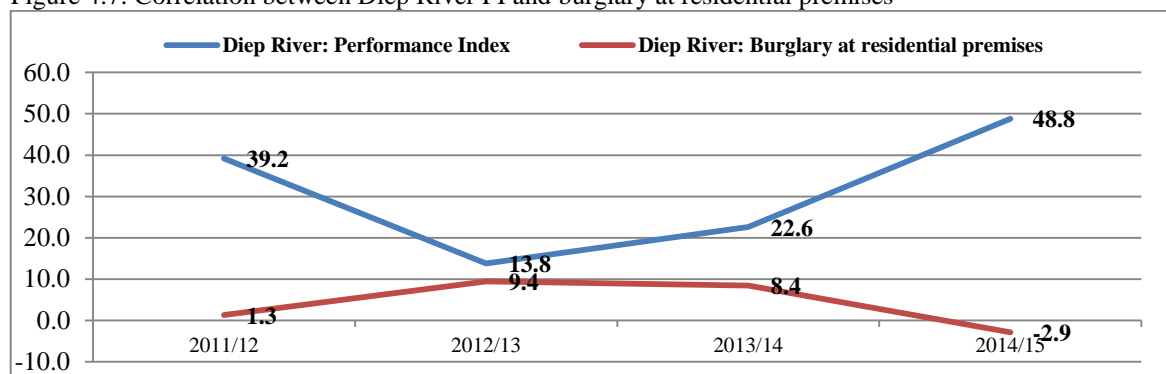
In terms of the strength of the negative relationship, Table 4.11 indicates that a very strong negative relationship exists due to the -0.986 correlation coefficient between these two variables, namely Diep River PI and burglary at residential premises.

Table 4:11: Correlation coefficient of Diep River PI and burglary at residential premises

Variable	Diep River: Performance Index	Diep River: Burglary at residential premises
Diep River: Performance Index	1	
Diep River: Burglary at residential premises	-0.986527234	1

In terms of burglary at non-residential premises, Figure 4.8 indicates that although the PI increases or decreases are significant, the increases and decreases in this crime category were significant. Based on the trend, a conclusion can be drawn that a negative correlation does exist between the PI and burglary at non-residential premises.

Figure 4.8: Correlation between Diep River PI and burglary at non-residential premises
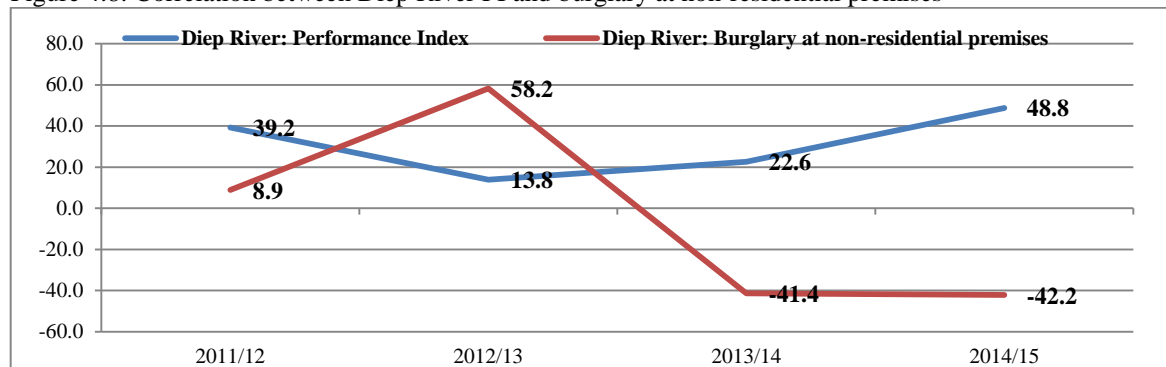

The correlation coefficient for these two variables measured -0.584 indicates that the relationship is not as strong as that of burglary at residential premises, but the result indicates that a negative relationship does exist.

Table 4:12: Correlation coefficient of Diep River PI and burglary at non-residential premises

Variable	Diep River: Performance Index	Diep River: Burglary at non-residential premises
Diep River: Performance Index	1	
Diep River: Burglary at non-residential premises	-0.584684474	1

Figure 4.9 indicates that these two variables have a negative relationship because when the PI increases or decreases, theft out of or from motor vehicles statistics respond in an opposite direction, hence the negative relationship.

Figure 4.9: Correlation between Diep River PI and theft out of or from motor vehicles
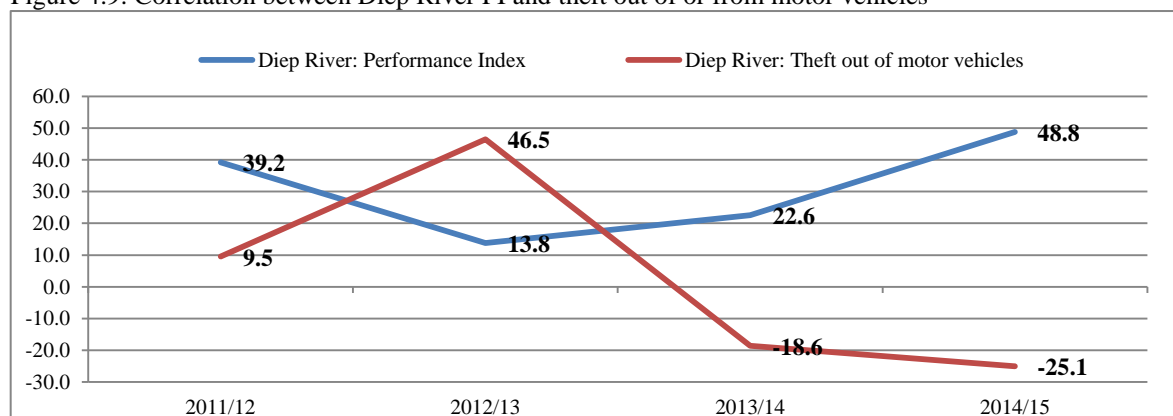
To determine the strength of the negative relationship, Table 4.13 indicates that a correlation coefficient of -0.655 suggests that this relationship leans more towards a stronger negative relationship.

Table 4:13: Correlation coefficient of Diep River PI and theft out of or from motor vehicles

Variable	Diep River: Performance Index	Diep River: Theft out of or from motor vehicles
Diep River: Performance Index	1	
Diep River: Theft out of motor or from vehicles	-0.65508732	1

The relationship based on Figure 4.10 indicates that a negative relationship exists between the CPF performance index and an increase/decrease in theft out of or from motor vehicles, which is following a similar trend as the aforementioned three policeable crime categories. The increase or decrease of theft of motor vehicles has a direct negative relationship on the performance index (PI) of Diep River.

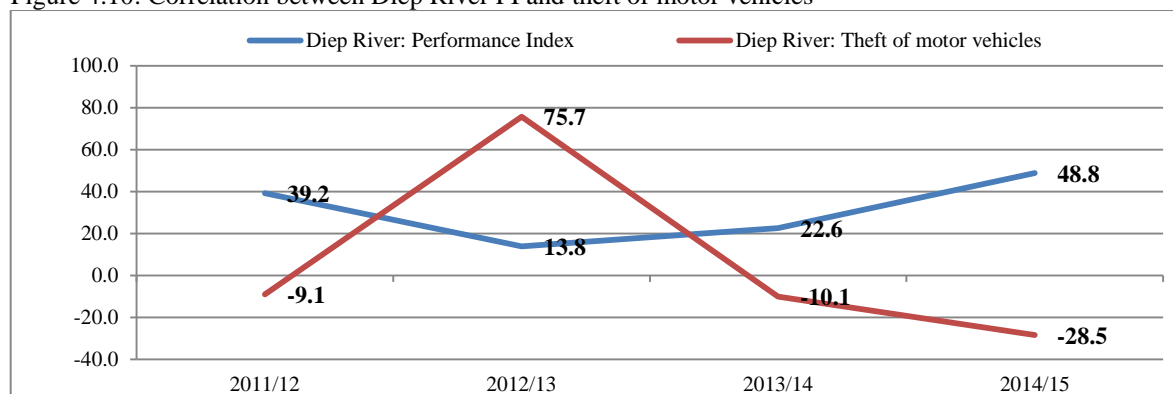Figure 4.10: Correlation between Diep River PI and theft of motor vehicles

Table 4.14 suggests that a correlation coefficient of -0.813 can be defined as a strong negative relationship, as it is closer to -1 than to 0, where 0 indicates that no relationship is present.

Table 4:14: Correlation coefficient of Diep River PI and theft of motor vehicles

Variable	Diep River: Performance Index	Diep River: Theft of motor vehicles
Diep River: Performance Index	1	
Diep River: Theft of motor vehicles	-0.81389627	1

In concluding the comparison between the policable crimes of Diep River PI, Figure 4.11 indicates that the total sum of the four policeable crimes does have a negative relationship with the performance of Diep River CPF.

Figure 4.11: Correlation between Diep River PI and all policeable crimes
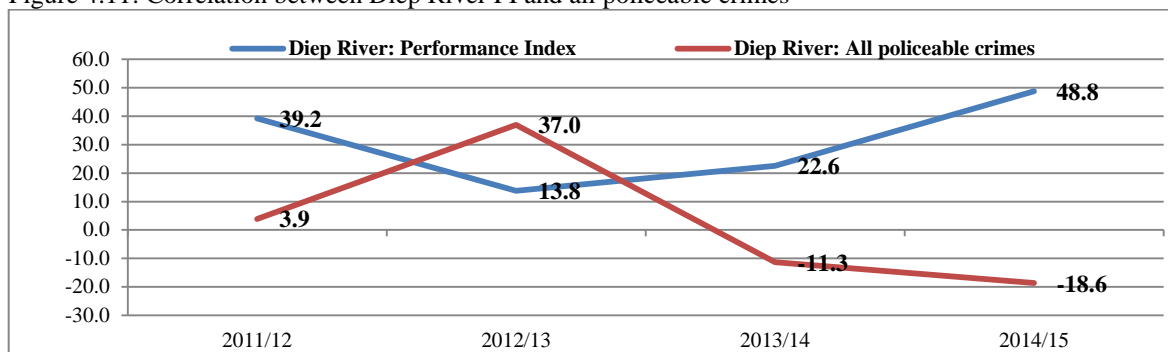
In terms of Table 4.15, the correlation coefficient of -0.718 suggests that a strong relationship exists between these two variables, although not as strong as burglary at residential premises and theft of motor vehicles but stronger than burglary at non-residential premises and theft out of or from motor vehicles.

Table 4:15: Correlation coefficient of Diep River PI and all policeable crimes

Variable	Diep River: Performance Index	Diep River: All policeable crimes
Diep River: Performance Index	1	
Diep River: All policeable crimes	**-0.718699359**	1

In conclusion, what has been learnt from the analysis can be seen in Figure 4.12, which shows that the performance index of Diep River has a direct negative relationship (closer to -1) than Lutzville that is leaning towards a zero relationship. Based on the scattergraph, it can be concluded that more research needs to be conducted to determine what causes the relationship of the two CPFs to be so extremely different.

Figure 4.12: Combined PI and policeable crimes
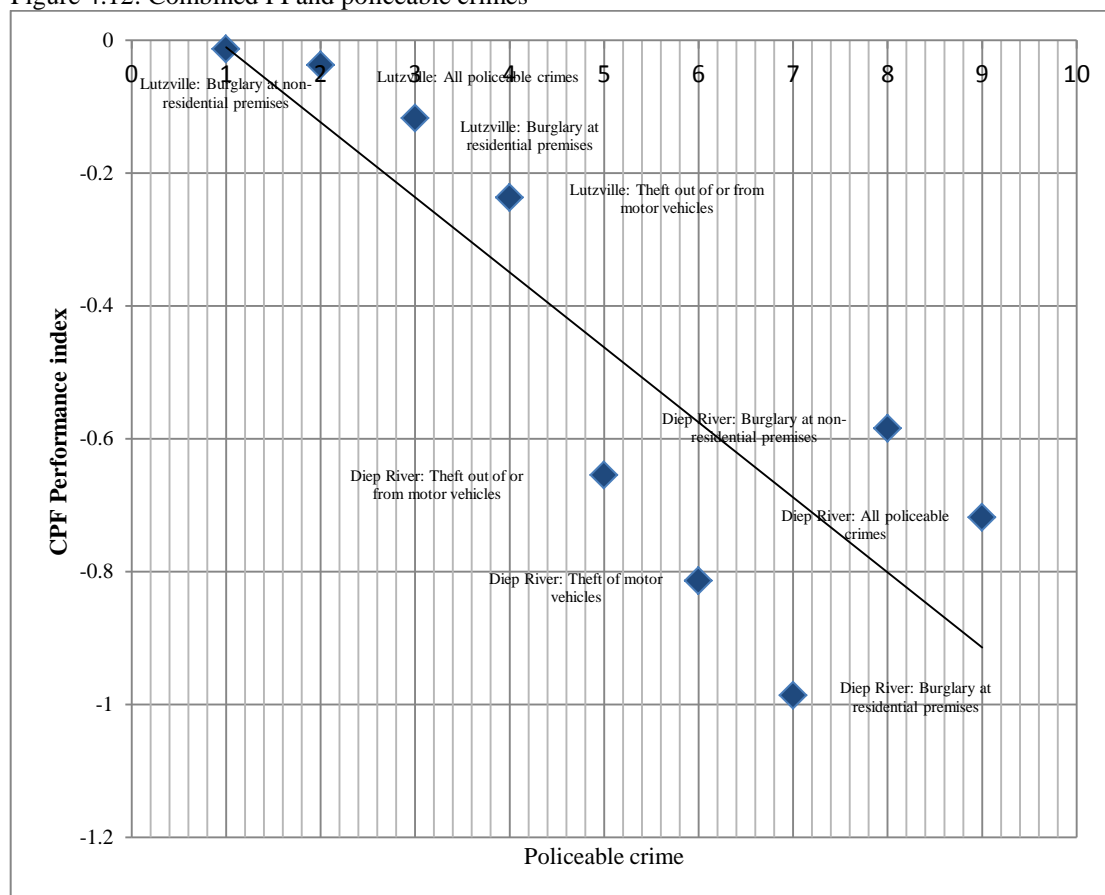
Multiple factors such as the effect of the execution factors, which include NHW patrols, interventions executed, and crime statistics discussed, could be some of the underlying influences.

According to Schwella (2014: 87), a diagnostic analysis is required of what caused these actions (fluctuations in performance) in terms of the results (increase or decrease in crime) that are linked to an increased or decreased performance.

4.4.3   What has been learnt from this?

Lessons learnt are derived from concerted efforts to improve organisational performance and collective learning by challenging the current conditions (Schwella, 2014:87). The current conditions consist of individual capacity, organisational growth, and resources. Resources would consist of inputs, such as time, financial resources, projects, partnerships, initiatives, and strategies.

Based on the previous question, namely "Why did this happen?", a review of the organisational strategy should be able to reveal the critical gaps in how CPFs manage

their performance. Halachmi (2005:503) offers some of the following reasons regarding why performance measurement is a step towards improving performance:

- If you cannot measure it, you do not understand it;
- If you cannot understand it, you cannot control it;
- If you cannot control it, you cannot improve it;
- If they know you intend to measure it, they will get it done; and
- If you do not measure results, you cannot tell success from failure.

Goh (2012:38) in turn suggests that stakeholder involvement, a learning and evaluative culture, and managerial discretion are three critical factors to be considered in a performance measurement system. He (Goh, 2012:38) postulates that when these three critical factors are implemented in developing a performance management system, it would result in the desired positive performance outcomes. The intended outcomes of having these three critical factors incorporated in the performance measurement system are that they increase participants' commitment to achieve, they increase motivation when targets are reached due to the inclusiveness of the system and with performance results feedback, and they increase the emergence of new and innovative strategies.

Based on the intended outcomes of a sound performance management system, CPFs should consider critical success factors, which need to be incorporated in the system. In terms of Grabosky's (2009:95) views, community policing is a process that:

- "Determines the legitimate security needs of the public through processes of consultation; and
- [Determines] [c]o-production of public security, either through partnerships with individuals, interests or institutions outside of the police service; or by allowing co-producers to function independently."

The above confirms that the current set of indicators should be reviewed in order for CPFs to measure, influence, and react to those outcomes within their control. A CPF chairperson during a meeting on 3 December 2012 remarked:

"[I]f the CPF cannot achieve its objectives for whatever reasons, is not listened to and our requests disregarded, is only a 'box to [be] ticked' by the authorities, is just a political pawn and cannot achieve the needs and wishes of its community, then why is it necessary to waste so much time and effort?"

In summary, in order to address what have been learnt, Manville and Broad (2013: 997) cite that organisations should caution against a poorly designed performance management system. An inadequate performance management system has a 70% failure rate that can be attributed to poor design, which includes performance indicators that are not being aligned to the strategy of the organisation, lack of communication, not sufficient support from senior management, and inadequate implementation of the design.

4.4.4 How can the learning be used to improve organisational performance?

Schwella (2014:87) provides direction by postulating that organisational learning needs to be built back into the performance management system to enhance its quality and effectiveness. This can be attained through continuous review of the lessons learnt in order to conduct an in-depth diagnosis of the organisational performance and capacity of each individual member within the organisation.

This view is in line with that of Soderberg et al. (2011:689) who confirm that a performance management tool is designed to assist organisations in implementing their strategies. Thus, the precondition for a performance management system to improve organisational performance should stem from the organisation's strategy, which should yield the following benefits:

- Alignment of strategic objectives with strategy;
- Importance of non-financial drivers of performance;
- Development of a consistent system of objectives;
- Shareholder value-based system; and
- Improved organisational results in the long term.

Jarrar and Schiuma (2007: 5) reaffirm that a performance management system should assist organisations in:

- Planning and implementing their strategies;
- Influencing the organisational behaviour; focusing, compelling, monitoring and rewarding staff;
- Communicating with stakeholders both internally and externally; and
- Developing the principles of a learning organisation.

In conclusion, based on the four key questions postulated by Schwella (2014: 87) to improve organisational effectiveness, the locus of the performance management system resides within the leadership of CPFs. With the proper leadership attitudes and behaviours, CPFs should be able to deal with the complex nature and multiple stakeholder relations they need to manage.

The following section will deal with the summary and conclusion of the data analysis chapter, leading up to the final chapter of the study.

4.5   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The data collection method that was used for this chapter included minutes of CPF monthly executive meetings held during the period April 2011 to March 2015 where the frequency of common themes was identified and populated to develop a CPF performance index. The index was analysed against the SAPS official crime statistics, using only policeable crimes to determine whether a high CPF performance index had any influence on a decrease in policeable crimes in the respective policing areas. Based on the correlation coefficient of the nine categories, Diep River PI has a strong negative relationship indicating that a relationship does exist, while the Lutzville results indicate a very weak relationship. Therefore, no conclusive evidence was found and further research would be recommended.

A summary of the four questions was provided for each of the two cases. The questions "What happened?", "Why did this happen?", "What can we learn from this?" and "How can the learning be used and built back into the system to improve the quality and performance of the system?" were used to gain insight into the research phenomenon of implementing a performance management system.

It can be concluded that the responses to Schwella's (2014; 87) four performance-related questions regarding a sound performance management system, a continuous learning culture and innovative leadership are required to ensure CPF develop and maintain a performance index that can yield the desired results.

The following chapter of the thesis will, firstly, provide a summary of the main focus points. Furthermore, certain recommendations will be made regarding these focus points with special emphasis on the findings that were evaluated in the current chapter. Finally, a conclusion will be provided by considering the most important findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5 : SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.1   INTRODUCTION

An effective and efficient response to violent crime requires a holistic approach to community safety that takes the causes of crime into consideration and responds to specific causal factors. This approach is often considered too complex, time-consuming, and long-term. However, sustainable community safety is a long-term issue. It requires coordinated efforts – high levels of analysis of crime patterns and trends, using crime intelligence and leadership to command and direct policing responses. It also requires other departments, local government, and civil society to participate (National Development Plan, 2011: 394).

It is clear from this study that performance management within a multiple stakeholder relationship is complex and that these permutations create unique challenges for CPF. Besides the management of these relations, additional challenges, such as defining performance, measurement of performance and performance accountability, contribute towards the complexity. The current study placed CPFs in context with regard to the notion of community policing and the initial intention of these community structures, which was to build community-police relations within a democratic South Africa.

The aim of the study was to conduct a case-based analysis of performance management of CPFs in the Western Cape. The assessment results showed that the management of CPFs can be empowered through organisational learning that can add value to a well-defined performance management system to enhance its quality and effectiveness. This can be attained through continuous review of the lessons learnt in order to conduct a diagnosis of the organisation's current performance and the capacity of each individual member within the organisation in order to improve the organisation's effectiveness. This chapter will consist of:

- A summary of the main focus points in each chapter;
- Recommendations based on the findings; and
- A conclusion based on the research objectives of this report.

5.2   SUMMARY

The literature review determined that there is a general disposition that organisations that implement a performance management system perform better than those organisations that are less performance-driven. After reviewing various performance management systems, commonalities were found amongst the balanced scorecard (BSC), the Total Quality Management (TQM), the European Foundation for Quality Management Model for Business Excellence (EFQM), and the International Organisation Standardisation (ISO) 9000 systems. These performance management systems are utilised by either the private sector, public sector or not-for-profit organisations.

The study determined that one of the main purposes of performance management is to determine what is working and what is not working, as performance measurement contains valuable information. This information can be used by managers to determine what is contributing towards the improved performance. Four critical action learning questions were found to assist managers in improving the effectiveness of their organisations. These four questions are:

- What happened?
- Why did it happen?
- What can I/we learn from this?
- How can the learning be used to improve performance?

Although the literature reviewed provided an overview of the systems implemented by the private and public sector, the challenges experienced by the not-for profit sector with which CPFs can identify are also of importance. These challenges included the complex inter-stakeholder relationships and the negative organisational outcomes due to a partial loss of identity and independence of these structures.

In Chapter Three, a background of the SAPS and institutionalisation of CPFs in South Africa was provided. The chapter provided an insight into the SAPS in a post-democratic South Africa, the adoption of community policing as a philosophy during the National Peace Accord and the transformation of the police from a "force" to a "service" after 1994.

The amalgamation of the various homeland police forces into the single SAPS created numerous challenges due to, for example, skills levels, i.e. capacity of its members. Legislation made provision for Station Commanders to establish a local CPF at each police station as a strategy to build community-police relations and to oversee the functioning of the SAPS at a local level. The institutionalisation and the implementation of CPFs were also not without challenges, as was confirmed by this study's focus on the effectiveness and efficiency of institutionalisation and implementation structures.

Chapter Four consisted of two main sections. The first section considered the analysis of the CPFs' data as well as the crime statistics of the two cases. Based on the secondary data of CPF executive management meetings, an annual performance index was developed and compared with the number of reported cases per policeable crime category for each of the two policing precincts. The results of the four performance-related questions found that a sound performance management system, a continuous learning culture, and innovative leadership are required to ensure CPFs develop and maintain a performance index that can yield the desired results.

Based on the data collected and analysis, the next section will include a number of recommendations that are grounded in the findings.

5.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

The analysis that was conducted in Chapter Four was based on the four critical action learning questions. The analysis of the responses indicates that measuring organisational effectiveness and efficiency is currently not high on the agenda of CPFs, their clients, partners or stakeholders. The conclusion can therefore be drawn that the decision taken at the Peace Accord in 1991 is as relevant today as then and that CPFs still have a meaningful role to play in building community-police relations. With this in mind, the following recommendations can be made:

- From the theoretical overview, it was deduced that managing community-based organisations and not-for-profit organisations strategically is more challenging compared to for-profit and public sector organisations due to the knowledge economy. The reasons cited are that the aforementioned organisations require

more knowledge and skills to manage this sector's conflicting and multiple stakeholder relationships. Therefore, the leadership of CPFs requires learning and innovation to link the mission and vision of the organisation to its outputs and outcomes in terms of what it is mandated to do;

- CPFs should ensure that their strategy, process, system, and people, as interdependent components, form the basis for a sound performance management system. This is where their strategy refers to their direction as a CPF as well as to their understanding of their strategic outcomes. The processes refer to the CPFs' business processes, i.e. the way they conduct their business and organisational structure, that ensure that a coherent set of performance targets and indicators are being developed, attained, and maintained;

- Based on the data analysed, CPFs should ensure that their performance management system makes allowance for feedback by which past actions of efficiency and effectiveness are being quantified. CPFs should also account to their clients and ensure that a strong learning and evaluative learning culture exists within the organisation; and

- Since CPFs do not have an influence on the allocation of the SAPS resources, they should not be allocating time to those activities over which they have no control by creating unrealistic expectations. Hence, as elected community representative entities, CPFs should identify their own unique performance indicators and use these indicators to provide feedback to their clients. In addition, CPFs should use the identification of these indicators as an empowerment opportunity for their executive committee and individual members.

5.4   CONCLUSION

This study highlighted the importance of performance management as a tool to manage organisational effectiveness and efficiency. Organisational effectiveness and efficiency can be attained when inputs are translated through well-defined business processes into measurable outputs and outcomes. This process is similar to that found

in the private, public and not-for-profit sectors, but the latter requires specific leadership and organisational learning skills due to its complex and interdependent relationships with internal and external stakeholders.

It is the researcher's view that the material contained in this study can form the basis for further studies on this topic. He is of the opinion that CPFs, which consist of community volunteers, require the necessary support and empowerment from the responsible government departments to allow them (CPF) to develop and maintain a performance management system.

The study has merely touched on a very contentious issue of what the different clients, customers, stakeholders, and partners expect from community police structures in the form of CPFs. The researcher is thus of the opinion that further research should be conducted with regard to what an effective performance management system for CPFs should entail. Furthermore, the requirements for a leadership and learning programme for these community members should be investigated to ensure that these resources are utilised optimally. Firstly, the intellectual capital of leaders of CPFs should be developed to enable them to recognise human resources elements, such as attitude, competencies, experiences, and skills within their environment. Secondly, the intellectual capital of leaders of CPFs should be developed for them to draw on the knowledge embedded in the minds of people within the organisation in order to achieve its strategic outcomes.

To give effect to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 that everyone should be and feel safe, community policing can be the vehicle to attain that goal, with CPFs as the foundation to create a safe environment.

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