

**EXPECTATIONS OF AND SATISFACTION WITH THE SOUTH  
AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE RUSTENBURG AREA**

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**To my wife, Santie, for  
her unconditional love  
and support.**

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*Lord I look up to you, up to the heaven, where you rule. As a servant depends on his master, so will I keep looking to you. Your greatness is beyond understanding and is therefore to be highly praised. To my Creator and God all the thanks, praise and glory.*

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## REMARKS

The reader is reminded of the following:

- The references as well as the editorial style as prescribed by the *Publication Manual (4<sup>th</sup> edition)* of the American Psychological Association (APA) are followed in this dissertation. This practice is in line with the policy of the Programme in Industrial Psychology of the PU for CHE to use APA style in all scientific documents as from January 1999.
- The mini-dissertation is submitted in the form of a research article. The editorial style specified by the *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology* (which agrees largely with the APA style) is used, but the APA guidelines were followed in constructing tables.

## SUMMARY

### EXPECTATIONS OF AND SATISFACTION WITH THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE RUSTENBURG AREA

**Key words:** Community policing, service delivery, job satisfaction, police stress, burnout, engagement.

Little quantitative research has been published on expectations of and satisfaction with the South African Police Service (SAPS) from the perspective of both the public and the police. Furthermore, scientific information is also needed about how police members perceive their own jobs and services to their clients, namely the public. Therefore, the objectives of this study were to determine the expectations and satisfaction of the community and the police as well as the congruence between the community's expectations and the police's perceptions regarding policing in the Rustenburg area of the North West Province. A further objective was to determine if there were any differences between Afrikaans-, English- and Tswana-speaking members of the community. The relationship between job satisfaction, stress, burnout and engagement of police members was also investigated.

A qualitative design (interviews and focus groups) was used to identify items that could be used in the questionnaires. Furthermore, a cross-sectional design was used to describe the information collected at that time. Stratified random samples of both the police ( $N=101$ ) and the community ( $N=418$ ) were taken in the Rustenburg area of the North West Province. The following measuring instruments were included in this study: for both the community and the police the Public Attitude Survey was used and for police only the Minnesota Satisfaction Survey, the Police Stress Survey, the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale.

A comparison between the present and preferred priorities of both the public and the police shows that both are of the opinion that the overall service of the SAPS should improve. Although it seems as if the police and the community agree on overall improvement of the SAPS, there is no congruence on what the community expects and the perceptions of police officials regarding service delivering. Consequently the results show that the preferred

expectations of the community were very skewly distributed, suggesting that their expectations are unrealistic.

No significant differences were found between the three language communities regarding their present view of the police. However, differences were found between Afrikaans- and Tswana-speaking people regarding their expectations of crime prevention and assistance. Job satisfaction, police stress, burnout and engagement were significantly related.

Recommendations for future research were made.

## OPSOMMING

### VERWAGTINGE VAN EN TEVREDENHEID MET DIE SUID AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS IN DIE RUSTENBURG AREA

**Sleuteltermes:** Gemeenskapspolisiëring, dienslewering, werkstevredenheid, stres, uitbranding, begeestering.

Min kwalitatiewe navorsing ten opsigte van verwagtinge van en tevredenheid met die Suid Afrikaanse Polisie (SAPD) vanuit die perspektief van die publiek sowel as die polisie is tot op hede gepubliseer. Verder word daar ook wetenskaplike inligting benodig oor hoe die polisie hulle eie take beskou, sowel as dienste gelewer aan hulle kliënte, naamlik die publiek. Die doel van die huidige studie was dan om te bepaal wat die verwagtinge en tevredenheid van die publiek sowel as die polisie is, asook die kongruensie tussen die gemeenskap se verwagtinge en die polisie se persepsies ten opsigte van polisiëring in die Rustenburg area van die Noordwes Provinsie. 'n Verdere doel was om te bepaal of daar enige verskille bestaan tussen Afrikaans-, Engels- en Tswana-sprekende individue uit die gemeenskap, en om die verband tussen werkstevredenheid, stres, uitbranding en begeestering van polisiebeamptes vas te stel.

'n Kwalitatiewe ontwerp (onderhoude en fokusgroepe) is gebruik om items te identifiseer wat in die vraelyste ingesluit kon word. 'n Dwarsdeursnee-opname-ontwerp is gebruik om die inligting te beskryf soos gevind op daardie tydstip. 'n Gestratifiseerde ewekansige steekproef is geneem van polisiebeamptes ( $N=101$ ) sowel as die gemeenskap ( $N=418$ ) in die Rustenburg area van die Noordwes Provinsie. Die volgende meetinstrumente is gebruik tydens die studie: vir beide die gemeenskap en die polisie is die Openbarehouding-opname gebruik en as bykomend vir die polisiebeamptes is die *Minnesota Satisfaction Survey*, die *Police Stress Survey*, die *Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey* en die *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale* gebruik.

'n Vergelyking tussen die huidige en voorkeurprioriteite van die gemeenskap en die polisie dui daarop dat die algemene dienste van die SAPD in sy totaliteit moet verbeter. Hoewel die resultate dui op algehele verbetering van SAPD, blyk daar geen kongruensie te wees tussen die polisie se persepsies en dit wat die gemeenskap verwag ten opsigte van dienslewering nie.

Die resultate toon egter aan dat dit wat die gemeenskap verwag baie skeef versprei is, wat kan dui op onrealistiese verwagtinge.

Geen beduidende verskille is gevind tussen die drie verskillende taalgemeenskape ten opsigte van hulle huidige siening van die polisie. Daar is wel verskille gevind tussen die Afrikaans- en Tswanasprekende individue uit die gemeenskap ten opsigte van hulle verwagtinge van misdaadvoorkoming en ondersteuning. Beduidende verbande is tussen werkstevredenheid, stres, uitbranding en begeestering van polisiebeamptes gevind.

Aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing is aan die hand gedoen.

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# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

This mini-dissertation deals with the expectations of and satisfaction with the South African Police Service (SAPS) in the Rustenburg Area.

Chapter 1 focuses on the problem statement, objectives, research method and division of chapters.

### **1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

The most significant feature of South Africa's transition from a racially divided apartheid government to democracy has been the peaceful nature of the transformation in the form of negotiation as opposed to revolution. However, one of the dominant features of the transformation over the past years has been, and continues to be, crime and violence (Louw, 1997). The economical, social and psychological effects of violence and crime on a large proportion of the population as well as on the police service, are significant, and continue to have implications for prosperity and quality of life (Barlow & Barlow, 1999; Louw, 1997).

Future prosperity in a country like South Africa depends on economic growth and development. However, Barlow and Barlow (1999, pp. 14-5) argued that even "ordinary crime can disrupt the maintenance of an orderly, productive, and profitable society and the suppression of crime can help to maintain order". According to these authors then, an effective and efficient police service is important so that the rule of law can prevail, otherwise our society will not only lack order but also the environment essential to social and economic progress. Therefore, it can be argued that to stimulate economical growth and development in South Africa, an effective and efficient police service is important, seeing that crime and violence can inhibit growth and development.

In recent years, community policing has been presented as a tool to enable police officers to control crime and to improve police-citizen relations (Yates & Pillai, 1996). However, the comfort of long established and traditional roles of police institutions and public perceptions may present obstacles to the successful implementation of community policing. The public

expects the police to be effective in the service they provide. To offer services that are equitable to the whole community and to make an effort to ensure that equitable and effective services are provided at a minimal cost to society (i.e. efficiency) (Radelet, 1986). If the police are to serve the public effectively and acceptably, a constructive working relationship must exist between law enforcement officials and citizens (Worrall, 1999).

There can be little doubt that the job of controlling crime is considered to be the highest priority of the police under the traditional model (other key functions include providing emergency services, administering justice by means of arrest, and offering a wide range of non-emergency services). The traditional methods used to fight crime include deterrence (through preventive patrol, raids, police drives and arrests), incapacitation, and rehabilitation. Studies have questioned the effectiveness of these general strategies for controlling or preventing crime (Radelet, 1986). Furthermore, research on the police in particular has failed to support the hypothesis that random patrols and raids, rapid response, and follow-up investigation practices at the core of enforcement-oriented policing would produce more arrests and less crime. Nevertheless, police have fully adopted (and, over the years, have promoted) the image of “crime fighter,” while taxpayers continue to demand that crime control (via law enforcement) is the primary function of the police.

One of the biggest mistakes of modern policing was that police were the only ones who were fully responsible and accountable for public safety (Radelet, 1986). At the heart of this new model of policing (community policing) is the empirically supported idea that the police cannot successfully combat crime and related forms of disorders alone, and that they must rely on resources within the community to address neighbourhood problems effectively.

One such a resource is the citizens themselves (Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998). In this framework, safety is viewed as a commodity that is produced by the joint efforts of the police and the community, working together in ways that were not envisioned or encouraged in the past. This perspective is radically different from the one that is implied by the conventional crime-fighting model. In contrast to the widely accepted view that citizens are supplemental to the police (“eyes and ears” at best), the assumption here is that the police are supplemental to the community in fighting neighbourhood problems. This is not to suggest that the police are irrelevant or unimportant. To the contrary, police should be the link between law and public to prevent the public taking law in their own hands (Barlow & Barlow, 1999). Community

policing not only enforces laws, but also emphasises the importance of mobilising residents and to establish police-community partnerships to address crime (Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998). It is thus incumbent upon the police to take a leading role and serve as a catalyst for community change. The challenge for police today and into the 21<sup>st</sup> century is then to find creative ways to help communities help themselves.

Since 1993 the traditional view of the South African Police Service (SAPS) has changed from crime fighters to that of community policing (Pelser, Schnetler & Louw, 2002). According to the South African Department of Safety and Security's Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines (published in 1997), community policing can be defined as "a philosophy that guides police management styles and operational strategies and emphasises the establishment of police-community partnership and a problem solving approach responsive to the needs of the community". The five core elements of community policing in South Africa were defined as service orientation, partnership, problem solving, empowerment and accountability for addressing the needs and concerns of the community (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

A major objective of community policing is to establish an active partnership between the police and the community through which crime, service delivery and police-community relations can jointly be analysed and appropriate solutions designed and implemented (Department of Safety and Security, 1997). The first formal reference to community policing, as a new approach, was made in the Interim Constitution, Act 200 1993, which referred to the establishment of "community-police forums in respect of police stations". The first steps toward community policing was evident after the first democratic elections in 1994, when the South African Police changed its name to the South African Police Service (SAPS). Since then community policing developed from its form in the Interim Constitution in 1993 to being focused on operations in priority areas in 1999 (Pelser et al., 2002).

The movement from the traditional crime-fighting model to a community-based model of policing in South Africa also brings about change in the definition of policing. Whereas it used to be a "police force" previously, it is now a "police service". Therefore, it can be argued that, as for all other complex agencies involved in service delivery, it is important for the police to know how satisfied or dissatisfied their clients are. Moreover, it is important to discover the factors that affect citizen satisfaction and whether they are subject to

manipulation within the parameters established by law and available organisational resources. According to Couper (1983), the use of measures such as response time, crime arrests or clearance rates is inconsistent with the new philosophies of policing, because such measures fail to relate to the role of the public as the consumer of policing services.

To help with the successful implementation and sustainability of community policing, it is necessary to determine the opinions/perceptions of the recipients of police services, namely the public. The study of the public opinion of the police is important for at least four reasons. Firstly, the public is the consumer of police services and it is therefore vital to obtain their evaluation of the police service received (Flanagan, 1985). Secondly, positive images of the police are necessary for the police to function effectively (Murty, Komanduri, Julian & Smith, 1990). Negative attitudes towards the police, in contrast, result in mutual ill feelings, lack of respect, disorder, and inefficient police functioning (Radelet, 1986). Thirdly, the information may yield important insights not only into citizens' confidence in the police, but also into the correlates of their confidence (Hero & Durand, 1985). Lastly, to be able to consult effectively with the community, police members should have a good understanding of what the public think they as police are currently doing and what they (the public) would prefer the police to do (Beck, Boni & Packer, 1999).

Hubbert, Sehorn and Brown (1995) argue that both the customer and the provider of service bring about certain expectations to the service encounter, which then shape the perceptions of such a service encounter. They also believe that expectations about service or product performance represent a specific predetermined standard which customers usually use to compare perceived performance when evaluating such a service or product.

One concept, which is especially applicable to community policing, or otherwise known as police-citizen encounters, is expectancy disconfirmation. Disconfirmation can be seen as the extent to which customers' perceptions match their expectations. Expectations, then, provide the baseline from which to compare perceptions of product or service performance (Reisig & Chandek, 2001).

According to Reisig and Chandek (2001), the expectancy disconfirmation model postulates that "satisfaction is a response to the congruency between an individual's expectations and the actual performance of a service or product". The expectancy disconfirmation model can

be conceptualised as a four-stage process (Reisig & Chandek, 2001). Firstly, the consumer formulates expectations regarding a product or a service. In other words how the customer estimates or believes services or performance should be. Secondly, the individual attributes to a certain extend regarding the performance of the service or product. Thirdly, the customer compares the service's performance against his/her initial expectations. In the final stage the customer determines how well the service measures up to his/here initial expectations.

Therefore, it can be argued that the customer's type of disconfirmation ("better than - positive," "worse than - negative," or "equal to - zero" what was expected) will directly impact on satisfaction (Reisig & Chandek, 2001). However, although it seems as if disconfirmation has the largest effect on customers' satisfaction, research also shows that expectation directly impacted on satisfaction. For example, individuals with lower expectations often report higher levels of satisfaction.

If the above is applied to community policing, satisfaction can be viewed as a function of the interrelationship between what citizens expect from the police and their perceptions of the police performance. The findings of Reisig and Chandek (2001) show a significant correlation between the levels of service an individual receives and his/her satisfaction with the way the police handled the encounter. It is therefore not surprising that Choong (2001) argued that ensuring the satisfaction of customers has become the most accepted strategy for an organisation's success and survival.

The measurement of employee satisfaction as well as customer satisfaction can be viewed as central to most quality-oriented companies' strategies. This is particularly relevant where employees have direct contact with customers, as in the case of the police (Hubbert et al., 1995). It is also reasonable to assume that satisfied customers will lead to satisfied employees. According to Fosam and Grimsley (1998), employee satisfaction reflects the fundamental construct of employee commitment. Such an employee focus involves the assessment of possible determinants such as the organisation's structure, its attention to employee needs, its involvement in quality improvement processes and even the level of employee empowerment, in addition to perceived customer satisfaction.

However, judgements regarding public satisfaction are usually based on the finding of surveys of general populations or of more specialised samples such as crime victims or those who have had some other type of recent contact with the police. Respondents are typically asked in direct fashion how satisfied they are with their local police, how good a job they think the police are doing or how effective they perceive the police to be. Respondents who have had a recent encounter with the police might be asked if they were satisfied with the outcome; whether the officers with whom they had contact were “polite” or “courteous”; or if they behaved in a “professional” manner.

While surveys are not the only source of information about citizen satisfaction, they are generally thought to be preferable to many of the alternatives. Negative newspaper coverage, formal or informal complaints, the public forum, and the rhetoric of special interest groups provide a skewed and potentially misleading impression of the type and intensity of public feelings. In contrast, it can be argued that despite their well-known limitations, surveys have an inherently democratic character in that opinions are solicited widely and weighted equally. In this way, surveys compensate for the fact that many members of the public do not attend community consultations in order to express their views and that others do so selectively (Patterson & Grant, 1988).

Like all such evaluative concepts, the term *satisfaction* proves to be ambiguous upon close examination. This ambiguity has several dimensions (Lee, 1991; Maxfield, 1988; Poister & McDavid, 1978; Southgate & Ekblom, 1984).

- Firstly, when respondents are asked about their degree of satisfaction with the policing services, it is not necessarily clear that the questions are as meaningful to them as they are to those who sponsored the survey. More specifically, it is not always evident precisely what type of evaluation respondents is being asked to make. Do the questions relate to their views of the police as an organisation or are respondents being asked for an opinion based on their cumulative experiences with individual police officers? Is the judgement to be made in terms of some absolute standard or in some relative way that makes implicit comparisons to other times or other places?

- Secondly, the range of responses provided by the respondents does not necessarily reflect the range or the content of opinions among the public at large. In other words, it is not obvious that those who score the highest on a relevant scale are expressing satisfaction in an absolute sense or simply expressing more satisfaction than is implied by the alternative response categories. Similarly, do low scores mean that people are dissatisfied or simply less satisfied than those who rate the police most highly? Any such distinctions could have significant implications not only for public policy but also for the morale of the members of the policing agency.
- Thirdly, the gap between survey reports and incidents about which reports are provided may be substantial. In a fundamental way, expressions of public satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the police do not tell us how well things are working, but how well they are perceived to be working. Survey responses may reflect pre-existing tendencies to be satisfied or dissatisfied rather than the quality of the service that is delivered. In the context of specific encounters, dissatisfaction with what the attending officer did or failed to do does not necessarily imply inappropriate action. While crime victims may, for example, resent police attempts to establish the legitimacy of a claim of victimisation, this does not necessarily mean that a different course of action should have been taken. Citizens may forget what the officer did, or misunderstand or misjudge questions asked or actions taken by the police. Alternatively, high levels of public satisfaction with policing can indicate approval of actions that may be inconsistent with other organisational standards.
- Fourthly, satisfaction and other attitudes towards the police are complex and multifaceted rather than unidimensional phenomena. The various components of satisfaction - police demeanour, respect, effectiveness, professionalism, and the use of police power - may be understood differently by different audiences. Moreover, these attitudes do not exist in isolation but are bound up with perceptions of other aspects of the urban or political environment. With respect to specific incidents, dissatisfaction with one aspect of the encounter may lead to dissatisfaction with other aspects. People do not necessarily divide their perceptions into the narrow categories about which interviewers ask them questions. Even more generally, those who encounter the police in highly stressful or adversarial circumstances may not always be able to discriminate with respect to the source of their

frustration. As a consequence, dissatisfaction with the situation may be displaced onto the police officer.

- Finally, the relationship between satisfaction and expectations is rarely made explicit. Evaluative concepts like satisfaction with overall quality of service, and judgements about courtesy, effort, or professionalism implies the existence of some standards against which the judgement is made. These standards may be conceptualised as expectations that clients have about police performance generally or in specific situations. In the case of response time, for instance, Brandl and Horvath (1991) have noted the important role played by expectations in the determination of satisfaction. Yet while surveys tell us how people feel about the things that police do, they less often tell us what people expect the police to do or how they expect them to do it.

The relationship between expectations and satisfaction is not necessarily a simple one. Members of the public who have very high expectations of the police are likely to become frustrated when the police fail to meet these expectations (Carter, 1985). Such expectations may be rooted in what people believe they have the right to expect from the police (Erez, 1984). It is reasonable to argue that expectations regarding policing are contextualised by group experiences and therefore reflect ethnic or class variations in the ways in which policing roles are understood. With respect to ethnic differences specifically, Erez (1984) suggests that treatment by the police can be viewed as symbolic of the respect to which groups believe they are entitled in a multicultural society. Thus, minorities that are attempting to become part of the cultural mainstream may be very aware of and very sensitive to police responses that seem to signal a lack of respect. Undoubtedly, public expectations about how the police are expected to perform are shaped by mass media images.

The literature also shows a discrepancy concerning satisfaction towards the police when variables such as education, income, geographic location, race, age, gender, social class, respect for the law, encounters with police members and criminal versus non-criminal background, are brought into consideration (Reising & Giacomazzi, 1998; Worrall, 1999).

Research on community policing has assumed widespread support for community-policing partnership strategies (Hayeslip & Cordner, 1987). The results of Reisig and Chandek (2001) indicate that police behaviour is the most salient determinant of satisfaction among citizens encountering the police (both voluntarily and involuntarily). If citizen satisfaction is used as a performance measure of police-citizen encounters, then these findings support efforts to encourage police officers to display civility when interacting with citizens. The core of community policing then requires, among other things, an organisational commitment to problem solving and customer satisfaction (Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998).

Community policing programme successes are also likely to be determined by the level of interest and willingness on the part of police officers to identify with the basic principles of community policing (Yates & Pillai, 1996). Several studies on police working environments suggest that how police feel about their job and their department can greatly affect their relations with the public and the quality of law enforcement service they provide (Greene, 1989, Yates & Pillai, 1992, 1993). Burnout and its opposite, namely engagement (Schaufeli, Salanova & Bakker, in press), can also have severe implications for the quality of services provided by police members. According to Rothmann, Malan and Rothmann (2001), burnout can result in absenteeism, low organisational commitment, turnover, and job dissatisfaction, which directly impact on the quality of service.

In summary, little quantitative research has been published on public expectations of and satisfaction with the South African Police Service (SAPS). Furthermore, little attention has been paid in the academic literature to the issue of the relationship between the police and the public from the viewpoints of the police clientele and the police themselves. Previous research about community policing has several drawbacks. Firstly, only a limited number of studies have focused on police officers. Secondly, researchers largely studied citizens' perceptions of community policing rather than assessed attitudes of police officers on this subject. Thirdly, research on community policing tends to ignore the service component of community policing. Fourthly, community-policing studies have been criticised for their lack of statistical rigor. Lastly, research on community policing lacks an adequate theoretical framework.

There is therefore, a need to determine the community's expectations of and satisfaction with the SAPS. Information about the expectations and satisfaction of the community will enable

management to implement plans to ensure the effective implementation and sustainability of community policing. Furthermore, scientific information is also needed about how police members perceive their own jobs and services to the community. This information could be used to improve the effectiveness of the SAPS.

## **1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The specific objectives of the research are:

- to determine what the community in the Rustenburg area expect from the SAPS, to assess their satisfaction with the SAPS and to determine differences between the expectations and satisfaction of Afrikaans-, English- and Tswana-speaking members;
- to determine what perceptions the police personnel in the Rustenburg area have of their functions;
- to determine the congruence between the community's expectations of the SAPS and police officials' perceptions of their functions;
- to determine the relationship between job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement of police personnel in the Rustenburg area and to determine the implications thereof for service rendering;
- to make recommendations on how community policing in the Rustenburg area, as well as the effectiveness of the SAPS could be improved.

## **1.3 RESEARCH METHOD**

### **1.3.1 Research design**

A qualitative design (interviews and focus groups) is used to identify items that could be used in questionnaires. A cross-sectional survey design is also used to describe the information collected of the population at the time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). This design can also be used to evaluate the relations among variables within a population. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997), this design is also ideal to describe and predict functions associated with correlative research.

### 1.3.2 Sample

Police members of the Rustenburg Area police stations in the North West Province as well as community members served by these police stations are included in the sample. A stratified, random sample is taken of uniformed police members in the Rustenburg area. The classification of the station, gender, age, language and rank are regarded as strata. Furthermore, random samples are taken of community members based on language.

The following formula proposed by Kerlinger and Lee (2000) was used to determine the sample size for this study:

$$n' = \frac{n}{1 + \frac{n}{N}}$$

and

$$n = z^2 \times \frac{SD^2}{d^2}$$

where  $n'$  = estimated sample size;  $n$  = the estimated sample size using the formula;  $N$  = the size of the population;  $z$  = standard score corresponding to the specified probability of risk;  $SD$  = the standard deviation of the population, and  $d$  = the specified deviation.

### 1.3.3 Measuring instruments

Two different measuring batteries are compiled, one for community members and one for police members. The measuring battery for the community is constructed as follows: Section A – Biographical Details, Section B – Contact with the South African Police Service (SAPS), Section C – Neighbourhood Concerns, Section D – Confidence in the South African Police Service (SAPS), Section E – Public Attitude Survey (PAS). The community measuring battery is translated into three languages, namely Afrikaans, Tswana and English.

The measuring battery for police members differ from that of the community and is constructed as follows: Section A – Biographical Details, Section B – Contact with the

Community, Section C – Public Attitude Survey (PAS), Section D – Minnesota Satisfaction Survey (MSQ), Section E – Police Stress Survey (PSS) (Part A – Amount of stress & Part B – Frequency of stress), Section F – Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS) and Section G – Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). Although various language groups are included, the police measuring battery are compiled only in English.

#### **1.3.4 Statistical analysis**

The data analysis is carried out with the help of the SAS-program (SAS Institute, 2000). Cronbach-alpha coefficient and inter-item correlation coefficients are used to assess the internal consistency of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Coefficient alpha conveys important information regarding the proportion of error variance contained in a scale. According to Clark and Watson (1995), the mean inter-item correlation coefficient (which is a straightforward measure of internal consistency) is a useful index to supplement information supplied by coefficient alpha. However, unidimensionality of a scale cannot be ensured simply by focusing on the mean inter-item correlation – it is also necessary to examine the range and distribution of these correlations. Confirmatory factor analyses are used to study the construct validity of the measuring instruments.

Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) were used to analyse the data. T-test and analysis of the variance are used to determine differences between the sub-groups in the sample. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients are used to specify the relationships between the variables. In cases where the distribution of scores is skew, Spearman correlation coefficients are computed. Effect sizes (Cohen, 1988) are computed to assess the practical significance of findings. A cut-off point of 0.30 (medium effect, Cohen, 1988) is set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients.

### **1.4 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS**

The chapters are presented as follows in this mini-dissertation:

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2: Research article

Chapter 3: Conclusions, shortcomings and recommendations.

## **1.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter the problem statement and motivation were discussed. The specific objectives of the research were formulated the method of research was described as well as the way in which the statistical analysis was performed.

A research article of the expectations of, and satisfaction with the South African Police Services in the Rustenburg Area will be presented in Chapter 2.

## **CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH ARTICLE**

(Submitted to the South African Journal of Industrial Psychology)

# EXPECTATIONS OF AND SATISFACTION WITH THE SAPS IN THE RUSTENBURG AREA\*

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## ABSTRACT

Little quantitative research has been published on expectations of and satisfaction with the South African Police Service (SAPS) from the perspective of the community and the police members themselves. The objectives of this study are to determine the expectations and satisfactions of both the community and the police regarding policing in the Rustenburg area and to determine the job satisfaction, stress, burnout and engagement of police members. A cross-sectional survey design was used. Stratified random samples of both the police ( $N=101$ ) and the community ( $N = 418$ ) were taken in the Rustenburg area. The results showed that members of the community and the police differ regarding policing priorities. Job satisfaction, police stress, burnout and engagement were significantly related.

## OPSOMMING

Min kwalitatiewe navorsing ten opsigte van verwagtinge en tevredenheid met die Suid Afrikaanse Polisie diens (SAPD) vanuit die perspektief van die publiek en die polisiebeamptes is tot op hede gepubliseer. Die doel van die huidige studie is om te bepaal wat die verwagtinge en tevredenheid van die publiek sowel as die polisie t.o.v. polisieëring in die Rustenburg area is en om die verband tussen werkstevredenheid, stres, uitbranding en begeestering van polisiebeamptes vas te stel. 'n Dwarsdeursnee-opname-ontwerp is gebruik. 'n Gestratifiseerde ewekansige steekproef is geneem van polisiebeamptes ( $N=101$ ) sowel as die gemeenskap ( $N=418$ ) in die Rustenburg area. Die resultate het aangetoon dat lede van die gemeenskap en polisiebeamptes verskil t.o.v. die prioriteite van polisieëring. Beduidende verbande is tussen werkstevredenheid, stres, uitbranding en begeestering van polisiebeamptes gevind.

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The most significant feature of South Africa's transition from a racially divided apartheid government to democracy has been the peaceful nature of the transformation in the form of negotiation as opposed to revolution. However, one of the dominant features of the transformation over the past years has been, and continues to be, crime and violence (Louw, 1997). The economical, social and psychological effects of violence and crime on a large proportion of the population, as well as the police service are significant, and continue to have implications for prosperity and quality of life (Barlow & Barlow, 1999; Louw, 1997).

Future prosperity in a country like South Africa depends on economic growth and development. However, Barlow and Barlow (1999, p.14-15) argued that even "ordinary crime can disrupt the maintenance of an orderly, productive, and profitable society and the suppression of crime can help to maintain order". According to these authors an effective and efficient police service is important for at least two reasons. Firstly, it is important for securing and maintaining social order, which provides the business confidence necessary for owners of capital to invest and the cycle to begin. Secondly, it is important so that the rule of law can prevail, otherwise our society will not only lack order but also the environment essential to social and economic progress. It can therefore be argued that to stimulate economical growth and development in South Africa, an effective and efficient police service is important, seeing that crime and violence can inhibit growth and development.

Since 1993 the traditional view of the South African Police Services (SAPS) has changed from crime fighters to that of community policing (Pelser, Schnetler & Louw, 2002). According to the South African Department of Safety and Security's Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines (published in 1997), community policing can be defined as "a philosophy that guides police management styles and operational strategies and emphasises the establishment of police-community partnership and a problem solving approach responsive to the needs of the community. The five core elements of community policing in South Africa were defined as service orientation, partnership, problem solving, empowerment and accountability for addressing the needs and concerns of the community (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

A major objective of community policing is to establish an active partnership between the police and the community through which crime, service delivery and police-community relations can jointly be analysed and appropriate solutions designed and implemented

(Department of Safety and Security, 1997). The first formal reference to community policing, as a new approach, was made in the Interim Constitution, Act 200 1993, which referred to the establishment of “community-police forums in respect of police stations”. The first steps toward community policing was evident after the first democratic elections in 1994, when the South African Police changed its name to the South African Police Service (SAPS). Since then community policing has developed from its form in the Interim Constitution in 1993 to being focused on operations in priority areas in 1999 (Pelser et al., 2002).

The movement from the traditional crime-fighting model to a community-based model of policing in South Africa also brings about change in the definition of policing. Whereas it used to be a “police force,” it is now a “police service”. Therefore it can be argued that, as for all other complex agencies involved in service delivery, it is important for the police to know how satisfied or dissatisfied their clients are. Moreover, it is important to discover the factors that affect citizen satisfaction and whether they are subject to manipulation within the parameters established by law and available organisational resources. According to Couper (1983), the use of measures such as response time, crime arrests or clearance rates, is inconsistent with the new philosophies of policing, because such measures fail to address the role of the public as the consumer of policing services.

One of the goals of community policing, as quoted above, is to enhance the citizen’s role in addressing neighbourhood crime-related problems. In other words the citizens must become supplemental to the police (“eyes and ears”, at best) in fighting neighbourhood problems. The relevance of customer satisfaction in community policing may then be argued. If the police are to serve the public effectively and acceptably, a constructive working relationship must exist between law enforcement officials and citizens (Worrall, 1999). The public, however, expects the police to be effective in the service they provide, to offer services that are equitable to the whole community and to make an effort to see that equitable and effective services are provided at a minimal cost to society (i.e. efficiency) (Radelet, 1986).

However, in order for community programmes to be beneficial, certain elements should be present, for example police training and education in community policing (Halsted, Bromley & Cochran, 2000). Additionally, Beck, Boni and Packer (1999), Halsted et al. (2000) and Pelser et al. (2002) concluded that in order for the community-policing programme to succeed, the police and the public must have positive attitudes about each other and the

programme. In other words, the groups must learn to work together because fighting crime effectively is everybody's business and not only that of the community or the police (Barlow & Barlow, 1999; Halsted et al., 2000; Pelsler et al., 2002).

Community policing has been presented as a tool to enable police officers to prevent and control crime and to improve police-citizen relations, but there may be obstacles that obstruct its successful implementation and sustainability. The extent to which the public is willing to co-operate in community policing appears to be the product of a number of problems (Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998). This includes attitudes toward community policing (expectations and perceptions), fear of retaliation, and poor pre-existing relations between the police and neighbourhood residents. According to Beck et al. (1999), police members should become more aware of the critical role of public perceptions of and experiences with the police in any determination of police effectiveness.

It is important to consider people's perceptions about crime in conjunction with official statistics, because these can provide valuable information, which often goes lost due to crime reporting and recording problems (Louw, 1997). It has been shown that in the absence of direct experience with the police, the mass media have a strong influence on the development of public attitudes about policing and police work. Beck et al. (1999) argued that for police to maximise their effectiveness of service delivery they should go into consultation with the community to determine the perceptions of both the police and the public about policing and police work.

Consequently, the literature also shows a discrepancy concerning satisfaction towards the police when variables such as education, income, geographical location, race, age, gender, social class, respect for the law, encounters with the police (voluntarily or involuntarily), and criminal versus non-criminal background are brought into consideration (Reisig & Chandek, 2001; Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998; Worrall, 1999).

It is important to study the public's opinion on police services for at least four reasons. Firstly, because the public is the consumer of police services, it is vital to obtain their evaluation of the police service received (Flanagan, 1985). Secondly, positive images of the police are necessary for the police to function effectively (Murty, Komanduri, Julian & Smith, 1990). Negative attitudes towards the police, in contrast, result in mutual ill feelings,

lack of respect, disorder and inefficient police functioning (Radelet, 1986). Thirdly, the information may yield important insights not only into citizens' confidence in the police, but also into the correlates of their confidence (Hero & Durand, 1985). Lastly, to be able to consult effectively with the community, police members should have a good understanding of what the public think they as police are currently doing and what they (the public) would prefer the police to do (Beck et al., 1999).

It is possible to study public opinion of police services through the use of public attitude surveys. In the first instance these should focus on the discrepancies between current and preferred priorities of police activities. Secondly, it is necessary to determine the level of consensus between the police and the public's expectations about the appropriate role for police, since consensus is essential if the co-operative effort of community policing is to be effective (Beck et al., 1999). Beck et al. (1999) noted that there was no research determining the public's understanding of current police priorities, and almost no research examining how police officers perceive their role and what they believe their role should be. According to them only one study has compared the attitudes of the public with the attitudes of the police about community policing.

Greene (1989) states that much of the interest in community policing is primarily to overcome the tension between police officers and community residents, which seems to be the symbolic component of this new policing strategy. Research on community policing has assumed widespread support for community-policing partnership strategies (Hayeslip & Cordner, 1987). However, the success of community policing programmes is likely to be determined by the level of interest and willingness on the part of police officers to identify with the basic principles of community policing (Yates & Pillai, 1996). According to Yates and Pillai (1996, p. 2), "community policing has been evaluated to the stature of a panacea or catch-all cure for a large variety of police-environment induced frustration and strain". To them, such an approach ignores the effects of stress and other strains brought about by other factors in the police environment.

Several studies on police work environments suggest that the way police feel about their job and their department can greatly affect their relations with the public and the quality of law enforcement service they provide (Greene, 1989; Yates & Pillai, 1992, 1993). Burnout can also have a severe effect on the quality of services provided by police members. According to

Rothmann, Malan and Rothmann (2001), burnout could result in absenteeism, low organisational commitment, turnover and job dissatisfaction, which directly impacted on the quality of community service.

Little quantitative research has been published on public expectations of and satisfaction with the South African Police Service (SAPS). Furthermore, little attention has been paid in the academic literature to the issue of the relationships between the police and the public from the viewpoints of the police clientele and the police themselves. Previous research about community policing has several drawbacks. Firstly, only a limited number of studies have focused on police officers. Secondly, researchers largely studied citizens' perceptions of community policing rather than assessed attitudes of police officers on this subject. Thirdly, research on community policing tends to ignore the service component of community policing. Fourthly, community-policing studies have been criticised for their lack of statistical rigor.

There is therefore a need to determine the community's expectations of and satisfaction with the SAPS. Information about the expectations and satisfaction of the community will enable management to implement plans to ensure the effective implementation and sustainability of community policing. Furthermore, scientific information is also needed about how police members perceive their own jobs and services to the community. This information could be used to improve the effectiveness of the SAPS.

This study is based on the premise that the ideal outcome for community policing is for police officers and citizens to interact in continuous co-operative efforts to reduce crime in their neighbourhoods. The objectives therefore, are to determine the community's expectations and satisfaction with the SAPS and to determine whether there are any differences between Afrikaans-, English- and Tswana-speaking community members. It will also be determined what the perceptions of the police personnel in the Rustenburg area are regarding their functions, and the congruence between the police's perceptions and the public's expectations will be established. The relations between the job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement as well as the implication thereof on service delivery for the police personnel in the Rustenburg area will be investigated. Lastly recommendations will be made on how community policing in the Rustenburg area, as well as how the effectiveness of the SAPS, could be improved.

## **Community satisfaction and service expectations**

Boundary-spanning personnel such as hairdressers, travel agents and police officers interface directly with their customers. These service providers usually market their service to consumers while they simultaneously carry out operational functions. Hubbert, Sehorn and Brown (1995) argued that both the customer and the provider of service bring about certain expectations to the service encounter, which then shape the perceptions of such a service encounter. They also believe that expectations for service or product performance represent a specific predetermined standard and that customers usually use this standard to compare perceived performance when they evaluate such a service or product.

The relationship between expectations and satisfaction is not necessarily a simple one. Members of the public who have very high expectations of the police are likely to become frustrated when the police fail to meet these expectations (Carter, 1985). Such expectations may be rooted in what people believe they are entitled to expect from the police (Erez, 1984). According to Fosam and Grimsley (1998), dissatisfaction of the public in the United Kingdom was a result of the police having the wrong perception about what the public wanted from the service.

One concept, which is especially applicable to community policing, also referred to as police-citizen encounters, is expectancy disconfirmation. Disconfirmation can be seen as the extent to which customers' perceptions match their expectations. Expectations, then, provide the baseline from which to compare perceptions of product or service performance (Reisig & Chandek, 2001).

According to Reisig and Chandek (2001), the expectancy disconfirmation model postulates that "consumer satisfaction is a response to the congruency between an individual's expectations and the actual performance of a service or product". The expectancy disconfirmation model can be conceptualised as a four-stage process (Reisig & Chandek, 2001). Firstly, the consumer formulates expectations regarding a product or a service. In other words how the customer estimates or believes services or performance should be. Secondly, the individual to a certain extent attributes certain beliefs to the performance of the service or product. Thirdly, the customer compares the service performance against his/her

initial expectations. In the final stage the customer determines how well the service measures up to their initial expectations.

Therefore, it can be argued that the customer's type of disconfirmation ("better than - positive," "worse than - negative," or "equal to - zero" what was expected) will directly impact on satisfaction (Reisig & Chandek, 2001). However, although it seems as if disconfirmation has the largest effect on customer satisfaction, research also shows that expectation directly impacts on satisfaction. For example, individuals with lower expectations often report higher levels of satisfaction.

If the above is applied to community policing, satisfaction can be viewed as a function of the interrelationship between what citizens expect from the police and their perceptions of the police performance. The findings of Reisig and Chandek (2001) show a significant correlation between the levels of service an individual receives and his/her satisfaction with the way the police handled the encounter. It is therefore not surprising that Choong (2001) argued that ensuring the satisfaction of customers has become the most accepted strategy for an organisation's success and survival.

The measurement of employee satisfaction as well as customer satisfaction can be viewed as central to most quality-oriented companies' strategies. This is particularly relevant where employees have direct contact with customers, as in the case of the police. The measurement of employee satisfaction as well as customer satisfaction can be viewed as central to most quality-oriented companies' strategies. This is particularly relevant where employees have direct contact with customers, like in the case of the police (Hubbert et al., 1995). It is also reasonable to assume that satisfied customers will lead to satisfied employees. According to Fosam and Grimsley (1998), employee satisfaction reflects the fundamental construct of employee commitment. Such an employee focus involves the assessment of possible determinants such as the organisation's structure, its attention to employee needs, its involvement in quality improvement processes and even the level of employee empowerment, in addition to perceived customer satisfaction.

The results of Reisig and Chandek (2001) indicate that police behaviour is the most salient determinant of satisfaction among citizens encountering the police (both voluntarily and involuntarily). If citizen satisfaction is used as a performance measure of police-citizen

encounters, these findings support efforts to encourage police officers to display civility when interacting with citizens. The core of community policing then requires, among other things, an organisational commitment to problem solving and customer satisfaction (Reisig & Giacomazzi, 1998).

### **Police stress, job satisfaction, burnout, engagement and community policing**

Quality is an issue of vital importance to marketers in the delivery of service (Bebko, 2001). Companies are urged by many management theorists and consultants to focus on their customers' needs and satisfaction. In spite of many techniques and systems to measure customer satisfaction, however, the employee or internal customer who is responsible for service delivering has been forgotten (Piercy, 1995).

It is sometimes said that satisfied customers lead to satisfied employees. However, Piercy (1995) argues that when an internal perspective is suggested, the external market can directly mirror barriers inside the organisation. The reverse is therefore also true, in that employees can also influence the customer satisfaction. This leads to the identification of a need for an internal marketing strategy for customer satisfaction that goes far beyond customer satisfaction questionnaires and which should rather focus on behavioural and organisational barriers, responsible for inadequate customer satisfaction (Piercy 1995). For this reason it is argued here that variables such as police stress, job satisfaction, burnout and engagement of police officers could impair customer satisfaction.

Varca (1999) defines stress "as a gap between environmental demands and personal resources to meet those demands". Anderson, Litzenberger and Plecas (2002) define stress "as the response of an individual to the self-perceived imbalance between the demands of the situation presented, and the resources one has at one's disposal to respond successfully". In other words, the stressfulness of the situation will depend on people's assessment and perception of the difference between the demands of the situation and their ability to meet those demands.

In general, research on policing and stress suggests that police work is in fact very stressful (Anderson et al., 2002). It is also known that stress, particularly when it becomes chronic, can lead to a multiplicity of problems for the officers as well as for the organisation they work

for. For example, the literature on police officer stress indicates that stress can lead to a greater likelihood of absenteeism, burnout, job dissatisfaction, early retirement or attrition, a weakened immune system with increased short- and long-term illness, long-term disability, and potentially premature death (Anderson et al., 2002). Stress also leads to poor job performance (Anderson et al., 2002; Varca, 1999).

Much research has been done in an attempt to identify what it is about police work that makes it an occupation believed to produce such high levels of stress amongst police personnel. Many studies have focused on the perception of stress among “police officers”, or on the perceptions of “administrators” (Brooks & Piquero, 1998). Variables which were included in the above are age, race, gender, marital status, assignment type, rank, length of service and officer attitudes such as cynicism and job satisfaction (Brooks & Piquero, 1998). According to these authors and others (Anderson et al., 2002), research supports the notion that stress stem from two sources, namely organisational or structural sources, and those internal or inherent to the job.

Green (1989) found sufficient evidence to support the notion of a relationship between police stress and the aspects of the job satisfaction-dissatisfaction complex. Job satisfaction can be seen as the extent to which people like thier jobs and are of importance for several reasons. First, for employees, job satisfaction has ramifications for subjective wellbeing and overall life satisfaction. Secondly, for organisations, job satisfaction is often considered an important influence on employee behaviour and organisational effectiveness (Hirschfeld, 2000).

As a result of many efforts by social scientists there appears to be a high level of agreement on the meaning of the construct *job satisfaction* (Oshagbemi, 1999). Job satisfaction is conceptualised as a general attitude toward an object, namely, the job (Metle, 2002; Oshagbemi, 1997, 1999; Savery, 1996). According to Oshagbemi (1999, p. 1) and Savery (1996, p. 2), the most comprehensive definition of job satisfaction was given by Locke (1983), namely “Job satisfaction results from the appraisal of one's job as attaining or allowing the attainment of one's important job values. Producing these values is congruent with, or helps to fulfil one's basic needs”. Generally speaking, job satisfaction then refers to an individual’s positive emotional reactions to a particular job (Oshagbemi, 1999). It is an affective reaction to a job that results from the person’s comparison of actual outcomes with

those that are desired, anticipated or deserved (Oshagbemi, 1999; Rothmann & Agathagelou, 2000).

Green (1989) does not see job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as unitary concepts, but as a composite of the individual's assessment of many factors associated with work and the workplace. It can be argued that employees compare the extent of the outcome that they receive to that of the outcome they feel they should receive. If the outcome received proves to be less than expected, it will result in a negative attitude and the person will experience job dissatisfaction (Rothmann & Agathagelou, 2000). An outcome that meets or even exceeds the person's expectations will result in a positive attitude and job satisfaction will follow. Because of the relation between expectations and job satisfaction, situational factors of the job environment, such as supervision, compensation, job security, co-workers, task variety, dispositional characteristics of an individual and, in the case of community policing, perceptions on the community, can easily influence satisfaction (Green, 1989; Rothmann & Agathagelou, 2000).

Schaufeli and Enzman (1998, p. 36) define *burnout* as "a persistent, negative, work-related state of mind in 'normal' individuals that is primarily characterised by exhaustion, which is accompanied by distress, a sense of reduced effectiveness, decreased motivation, and the development of dysfunctional attitudes and behaviours at work". Maslach (1982, 1993), Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) and Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) see burnout as a syndrome consisting of three dimensions, namely exhaustion, cynicism and reduced professional efficacy. *Exhaustion*, the stress dimension of burnout, refers to feelings of reduction in emotional resources and prompts the worker to distance him/herself emotionally and cognitively from his/her work, presumably as a way to cope with work overload. *Cynicism* refers to an increase in negative, cynical and insensitive attitudes towards colleagues and clients. *Reduced professional efficacy* refers to feelings of insufficiency, incompetence, lack of achievement and feelings of underproductiveness.

Rothmann et al. (2001) regard burnout as a particular kind of prolonged job stress. In other words, a particular, multidimensional, chronic stress reaction that goes beyond the experience of mere exhaustion. Therefore, Rothmann et al. (2001) warn against the confusing of stress with burnout. As mentioned above, an individual experiences job stress when the demands of the workplace exceed his/her adaptive responses.

Schaufeli, Salanova and Bakker (in press) recommended that the positive pole of employee's wellbeing should also get attention and researchers should not exclusively focus on the negative pole. Job engagement, the opposite of burnout, is one such an example to be included in this study. Schaufeli et al. (in press) defines *engagement* as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption". *Vigour* refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, as well as a willingness to exert effort and to persist even through difficult times. *Dedication* is described as a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge. *Absorption* refers to a tendency to be fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in work, as a result at which time passes quickly and one has difficulty to detach oneself from one's work. It also includes focused attention, clear minds, mind and body unison, effortless concentration, complete control, loss of self-consciousness, distortion of time, and intrinsic enjoyment (Csikszetmihalyi, 1990).

## RESEARCH METHOD

### Research design

A qualitative design (interviews and focus groups) was used to identify items that could be used in questionnaires. A cross-sectional survey design was then used to describe the information on the population collected at that time. This design (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997) can also be used to evaluate interrelationships among variables within a population. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997), this design is also ideal to describe and predict functions associated with correlative research.

### Sample

The study population includes police members ( $N = 101$ ) as well as community members ( $N = 418$ ) served by these police members of police stations in the Rustenburg area of the North West Province. The following formula proposed by Kerlinger and Lee (2000) was used to determine the sample size for this study:

$$n' = \frac{n}{1 + \frac{n}{N}}$$

and

$$n = z^2 \times \frac{SD^2}{d^2}$$

where  $n'$  = estimated sample size;  $n$  = the estimated sample size using the formula;  $N$  = the size of the population;  $z$  = standard score corresponding to the specified probability of risk;  $SD$  = the standard deviation of the population, and  $d$  = the specified deviation.

Both samples were randomly selected. A total of 42% of the participants in the police sample were male and 58% were female, with a mean age of 35.76. Fifty nine percent of the police sample was matriculates, 7% were university graduates, and 33% college/technikon graduates. Thirty three percent of the police members were single, 56% were married and 7% divorced. A total of 73 of the participants in the community sample were Afrikaans-speaking, 103 were English-speaking and 242 were Tswana-speaking. Fifty four percent of the participants in the community sample were male. Their ages ranged between 12 and 79 (Rothmann, 2002).

### Measuring instruments

- The *Public Attitude Survey*. Following Beck et al. (1999), parallel forms of the Public Attitude Survey were developed to measure both the public's and the police's perceptions and expectations of police events. For the purpose of this study, 38 police activities were selected to cover the major police functions of crime prevention, peacekeeping and service provision. The activities were adapted in consultation with senior and operational police officers and include questions like "Advise people on personal safety", "Respond to emergencies", and "Deal with sexual violence and crime against women and children". The 38 activities were divided into seven dimensions, namely: provide advice (6 items), investigate crime (11 items), station duties (6 items), crime prevention (4 items), non-emergency assistance (3 items), family issues (5 items) and security (3 items) (Rothmann, 2002).

The survey was then divided into two sections. In the first section, namely, "At present", respondents were asked to indicate on a five-point scale (1 = very low, to 5 = very high) what priority they think police currently give to each of the 38 activities. In the second

section, namely “Preferred”, respondents were asked to indicate on a five-point scale (1 = very low, to 5 = very high) what priority they think police should give to each of the 38 activities.

The aim of this survey is to determine what respondents (public and police) believe police priorities are at present; what respondents (public and police) think police priorities should be; and what the level of consensus is between perceptions of the police and the public (Beck et al. 1999, p. 2).

- The *Minnesota Satisfaction Survey (MSQ)* indicates how satisfied or dissatisfied respondents are, by asking respondents to rate themselves on 20 questions by using a five-point scale (1 = very dissatisfied, to 5 = very satisfied). The survey included questions like: “Being able to keep busy all the time”; “The chance to be ‘somebody’ in the community”; “The way my supervisor handles his/her workers”; “The praise I get for doing a good job”. A simple factor analysis was conducted to identify the number of factors for a sample of 450 police members in the North West Province. Two interrelated factors were extracted by using the Oblique method with a promax rotation. These factors were labelled *Extrinsic Job Satisfaction* (10 items;  $\alpha = 0,89$ ) and *Intrinsic Job Satisfaction* (9 items;  $\alpha = 0,84$ ).
- The *Police Stress Survey (PSS)* was developed to measure the job stress of participants. The PSS focuses on common work events that often result in psychological strain. Pienaar (2002) subjected the PSS to a factor analysis on a sample of 2500 police members and extracted three factors, namely Job Demands (17 items), Lack of Job Resources (14 items) and Police Stressors (8 items). The alpha coefficients were 0,92 (Job Demands), 0,92 (Lack of Job Resources) and 0,89 (Police Stressors), which indicate highly acceptable internal consistency of the three factors. The questionnaire is divided in two parts. Part A, consisting of 39 stressful job-related events, focuses mainly on the amount of stress. Respondents were asked to rate themselves on a nine-point scale (1 = low, to 9 = high). Part B consists of the same 39 stressful job related events as used in part A, but this time the participants were asked to evaluate the frequency of the stressful event in the last six months on a nine-point scale.

- The *Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey* (MBI-GS) (Maslach et al., 1996) was used to measure burnout. The MBI-GS has three subscales: Exhaustion (Ex) (five items; e.g. “I feel used up at the end of the workday”), Cynicism (Cy) (five items; e.g. “I have become less enthusiastic about my work”) and Professional Efficacy (PE) (six items; e.g. “In my opinion, I am good at my job”). Together the subscales of the MBI-GS provide a three-dimensional perspective on burnout. Internal consistencies (Cronbach coefficient alphas) reported by Schaufeli et al. (1996) varied from 0,87 to 0,89 for Exhaustion, 0,73 to 0,84 for Cynicism and 0,76 to 0,84 for Professional Efficacy.

Test-retest reliabilities after one year were 0,65 (Exhaustion), 0,60 (Cynicism) and 0,67 (Professional Efficacy) (Schaufeli et al., 1996). All items are scored on a 7-point frequency-rating scale ranging from 0 (“never”), to 6 (“daily”). High scores on Exhaustion and Cynicism, and low scores on Professional Efficacy are indicative of burnout. Storm (2002) confirmed the 3-factor structure of the MBI-GS in a sample of 2396 SAPS members, but recommended that Item 13 should be dropped from the questionnaire. She confirmed the structural equivalence of the MBI-GS for different race groups in the SAPS. The following Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for the MBI-GS: Exhaustion: 0,88; Cynicism: 0,79; Professional Efficacy: 0,78 (Storm, 2002).

- The *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale* (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., in press) was used to measure the levels of engagement of the participants. The UWES includes three dimensions, namely vigour, dedication and absorption, which is conceptually seen as the opposite of burnout and is scored on a seven-point frequency-rating scale, varying from 0 (“never”) to 6 (“every day”). The questionnaire consists of 17 questions and includes questions like “I am bursting with energy every day in my work”; “Time flies when I am at work” and “My job inspires me”.

The alpha coefficients for the three subscales varied between 0,68 and 0,91. The alpha coefficient could be improved ( $\alpha$  varies between 0,78 and 0,89 for the three subscales) by eliminating a few items without substantially decreasing the scales internal consistency. Storm (2002) obtained the following alpha coefficients for the UWES in a sample of 2396 members of the SAPS: Vigour: 0,78; Dedication: 0,89; Absorption: 0,78.

## **Procedure**

The study, which formed part of a larger project on attitudes towards community policing in the North West Province, was initiated during October 2000 after discussions with the Strategic Management Services of the SAPS in Pretoria. During 2001, the project was planned and funding for the project was obtained from the National Research Foundation. During January 2002 the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education and the University of North West (UNW) implemented the project. The project proposal was presented to the Provincial Commissioner of the SAPS in the North West Province as well as the Area Commissioner in the Rustenburg area to get the support and collaboration of the SAPS. Literature searches were done and interviews as well as focus groups (including police experts) were conducted to develop the measuring instruments.

The English questionnaires were developed and translated into Afrikaans and Tswana by professional translators. A process of back-translation was followed to ensure that the meaning of the words in the different languages was the same. Thereafter, they were presented to members of the police and the community to check for face validity and final changes were made to them. The measuring battery of the police was only compiled in English. A total of 12 field workers (who were able to speak Afrikaans, English and/or Tswana) were used to administer the questionnaires. The researchers, assisted by language practitioners trained the field workers prior to the start of fieldwork.

Randomly selected police stations were informed a month prior to the date of the fieldwork. Fieldwork took place during July 2002. Randomly selected members of the SAPS on duty that day were included in the study, while community members were randomly selected at taxi ranks, in town and via door to door selection in different areas of the town and neighbourhoods. The data was captured on a computer programme and checked for mistakes. Finally, the data set was prepared for statistical analysis.

## **Data analysis**

The data analysis was carried out with the help of the SAS-program (SAS Institute, 2000). Cronbach-alpha coefficient and inter-item correlation coefficients were used to assess the internal consistency of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Coefficient alpha

conveys important information regarding the proportion of error variance contained in a scale. According to Clark and Watson (1995), the average inter-item correlation coefficient (which is a straightforward measure of internal consistency) is a useful index to supplement information supplied by coefficient alpha. However, unidimensionality of a scale cannot be ensured simply by focusing on the mean inter-item correlation – it is also necessary to examine the range and distribution of these correlations. Confirmatory factor analyses were used to assess the validity of the constructs, and if necessary, items with values lower than 0.45 were removed from analyses.

Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) were used to analyse the data. T-tests and one-way analysis of the variance (ANOVA) were used to determine differences between the subgroups in the sample. The following formula was used to determine the practical significance of differences (*d*) when t-tests were used (Steyn, 1999):

$$d = \frac{Mean_A - Mean_B}{SD_{MAX}}$$

where

*Mean<sub>A</sub>* = Mean of the first group

*Mean<sub>B</sub>* = Mean of the second group

SD<sub>MAX</sub> = Highest standard deviation of the two groups

The following formula was used to determine the practical significance of means of more than two groups (Steyn, 1999):

$$d = \frac{Mean_A - Mean_B}{\text{Root } MSE}$$

where

*Mean<sub>A</sub>* = Mean of the first group

*Mean<sub>B</sub>* = Mean of the second group

Root MSE = Root Mean Square Error

A cut-off point of 0,50 (medium effect, Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of differences between means.

Pearson product-momentum correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationships between the variables. In case where the distribution of scores was skew, Spearman correlation coefficients were computed. Effect sizes (Cohen, 1988) were computed to assess the practical significance of findings. A cut-off point of 0.30 (medium effect, Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients.

Canonical correlation was used to determine the relationships between the dimensions of burnout, job satisfaction, sense of coherence and stress. The goal of canonical correlation is to analyse the relationship between two sets of variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Canonical correlation is considered as a descriptive technique rather than a hypothesis-testing procedure.

## **RESULTS**

Descriptive statistics, Cronbach alpha coefficients and the inter-item correlation coefficients of the PAS, MSQ, PSS, MBI-GS, and UWES for police officers ( $N = 101$ ) in the Rustenburg area, are reported in Table 1.

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach Alpha Coefficients and Inter-Item Correlation Coefficients of the Measuring Instruments for SAPS Members in the Rustenburg Area (N = 101)*

Test and items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Inter-item <i>r</i>	$\alpha$
<b>PAS – Present</b>						
Advice	20.66	5.09	0.21	0.24	0.53	0.87
Investigation	37.98	8.68	-0.56	0.07	0.55	0.93
Station duties	20.16	5.30	0.10	0.30	0.52	0.87
Crime prevention	13.00	3.94	-0.19	0.27	0.46	0.77
Assistance	9.19	2.78	-0.48	0.07	0.40	0.67
Family issues	16.86	4.52	-0.61	0.34	0.45	0.80
Security	10.80	2.97	-0.46	0.15	0.57	0.80
<b>PAS – Preferred</b>						
Advice	27.32	4.35	-2.86	10.67	0.52	0.87
Investigation	51.43	6.73	-3.31	13.91	0.51	0.91
Station duties	27.82	3.93	-3.00	11.69	0.47	0.84
Crime prevention	18.14	2.78	-2.83	11.00	0.48	0.77
Assistance	13.27	2.53	-1.85	3.52	0.49	0.73
Family issues	22.77	3.61	-2.83	10.33	0.63	0.89
Security	13.75	2.32	-2.62	7.58	0.62	0.82
<b>MSQ</b>						
Extrinsic Job satisfaction	32.11	8.53	0.27	-0.29	0.51	0.91
Intrinsic Job satisfaction	33.32	7.51	-0.66	0.16	0.43	0.87
<b>PSS</b>						
Job demands	87.27	27.84	0.19	-0.43	0.44	0.93
Lack of resources	74.96	24.82	-0.13	-0.43	0.50	0.93
Police stressors	43.02	15.66	-0.27	-0.61	0.51	0.89
<b>MBI-GS</b>						
Exhaustion	11.83	8.83	0.33	-0.88	0.64	0.90
Cynicism	9.37	7.00	0.48	-0.66	0.49	0.80
Professional efficacy	25.68	7.36	-0.75	0.24	0.30	0.72
<b>UWES</b>						
Vigour	26.32	7.09	-0.96	1.53	0.49	0.85
Dedication	23.65	6.79	-1.08	0.52	0.65	0.90
Absorption	24.41	8.07	-0.60	-0.42	0.40	0.97

Table 1 shows that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained on all the dimensions of the PAS, MSQ, PSS, MBI-GS and UWES, varying from 0.67 to 0.97 (see Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Most of the inter-item correlation coefficients were acceptable, although values higher than the cut-off point of 0.50 (Clark & Watson, 1995) were obtained for some of the scales.

The results of Dedication (-1.08), Vigour (1.53) and all the items of the PAS - Preferred were relatively skew. Scores on the other dimensions seem to be distributed normally. Based on the results of Table 1 it can be inferred that the internal consistency and construct validity of the PAS, MSQ, PSS, MBI-GS and UWES are acceptable.

Descriptive statistics, Cronbach alpha coefficients and the inter-item correlation coefficients of the PAS for 418 community members in the Rustenburg area, are reported in Table 2.

Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach Alpha Coefficients and Inter-item Correlation Coefficients of the PAS for Community Members in the Rustenburg Area (N = 418)*

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Inter-item r	$\alpha$
<b>PAS – Present</b>						
Advice	13.78	5.80	0.51	-0.50	0.53	0.87
Investigation	28.27	10.58	0.22	-0.66	0.55	0.93
Station duties	15.87	5.87	0.37	-0.54	0.52	0.87
Crime prevention	9.48	4.13	0.59	-0.34	0.46	0.77
Assistance	6.99	2.95	0.43	-0.50	0.40	0.67
Family issues	13.73	5.29	0.21	-0.76	0.45	0.80
Security	9.40	3.48	-0.12	-0.83	0.57	0.80
<b>PAS – Preferred</b>						
Advice	28.04	2.89	-1.85	4.05	0.52	0.87
Investigation	52.19	5.14	-2.58	7.56	0.51	0.91
Station duties	27.99	3.49	-2.17	5.00	0.47	0.84
Crime prevention	18.70	2.42	-2.61	8.50	0.48	0.77
Assistance	13.97	1.96	-2.29	5.72	0.49	0.73
Family issues	23.54	2.63	-1.96	3.57	0.63	0.89
Security	13.72	2.09	-2.19	5.92	0.62	0.82

Table 2 shows acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients varying from 0.67 – 0.93 (see Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The mean inter-item correlations are acceptable, although some were higher than the guideline of  $0.15 \leq r \leq 0.50$  (Clarke & Watson, 1995).

It is evident from Table 2 that dimensions for the first part of the Public Attitude Survey (PAS - Present), are distributed relatively normally with low skewness and kurtosis. However, the second half of the survey (PAS – Preferred) shows relatively high skewness

and kurtosis. Based on the results in Table 2 the internal consistencies of the factors of the PAS are acceptable.

Differences between present and preferred priorities on the dimensions of the PAS for duties performed by the police, for community members ( $N = 299$ ) and police members ( $N = 101$ ) in the Rustenburg area, are reported in Table 3.

Table 3

*Differences Between Present and Preferred Priorities for the PAS-dimensions*

	Community Members' Perceptions ( $N = 299$ )					Police Members' Perceptions ( $N = 101$ )				
	Present		Preferred		$d$	Present		Preferred		$d$
	Mean	$SD$	Mean	$SD$		Mean	$SD$	Mean	$SD$	
Advice	13.78	5.80	28.04	2.89	2.46**	20.66	5.09	27.32	4.35	1.31**
Investigation	28.27	10.58	52.19	5.14	2.27**	37.98	8.68	51.43	6.73	1.55**
Station duties	15.87	5.87	27.99	3.49	2.07**	20.16	5.30	27.82	3.93	1.46**
Crime prevention	9.48	4.13	18.70	2.42	2.23**	13.00	3.94	18.14	2.78	1.31**
Assistance	6.99	2.95	13.97	1.96	2.37**	9.19	2.78	13.27	2.53	1.47**
Family issues	13.73	5.29	23.54	2.63	1.85**	16.86	4.52	22.77	3.61	1.31**
Security	9.40	3.48	13.72	2.09	1.24**	10.80	2.97	13.75	2.32	0.99**

\* Practically significant difference:  $d \geq 0.5$  (medium effect)

\*\* Practically significant difference:  $d \geq 0.8$  (large effect)

Table 3 shows practically significant differences (of large effect  $d \geq 0.80$ ) on all the dimensions of the PAS for both the community and the police in the Rustenburg area, regarding their preferred priorities. However, Table 3 also shows differences between the community's view and that of the police on both the present and preferred dimensions of the PAS.

An inspection of Table 3 shows the following differences between the present and preferred priorities for the community and police members respectively: To receive advice regarding crime prevention obtained the largest difference score for the community (2.46). Investigation of crime represents the largest preferred priority for the police (1.55). Assistance is the second largest difference of both the community (2.37) and the police (1.47).

Not shown in Table 3 are the weighted means of each dimension (i.e. the dimension score divided by the number of items on the dimension). The weighted means indicated that to investigate crime and to attend to family issues were the highest preferences of community members, while investigating crime and station duties were the highest priorities for police members.

Differences between present and preferred priorities on all 38 PAS-items for duties performed by the police, for community members ( $N = 299$ ) and police members ( $N = 101$ ) in the Rustenburg area, are reported in Table 4.

Table 4

*Differences Between Present and Preferred Priorities for PAS-Items in the Rustenburg Area*

	Community Members' Perceptions (N=299)					Police Members' Perceptions (N = 101)				
	Present		Preferred		<i>d</i>	Present		Preferred		<i>d</i>
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	
Advise businesses	2.07	1.20	4.64	0.64	2.14**	3.43	1.04	4.57	0.79	1.10**
Advise people	2.29	1.31	4.65	0.74	1.80**	3.68	1.05	4.57	0.85	0.85**
Organise meetings	2.23	1.30	4.58	0.75	1.81**	3.46	1.07	4.59	0.73	1.06**
Advise local schools	2.65	1.44	4.76	0.55	1.47**	3.52	1.15	4.59	0.79	0.93**
Support victims	2.31	1.31	4.70	0.62	1.82**	3.36	1.08	4.48	0.82	1.04**
Advice on home security	2.22	1.30	4.72	0.60	1.92**	3.20	1.25	4.52	0.90	1.06**
Take statements	2.58	1.32	4.72	0.64	1.62**	3.52	1.19	4.61	0.69	0.92**
Collect information	2.42	1.25	4.73	0.70	1.85**	3.30	1.23	4.64	0.84	1.09**
Collect evidence	2.37	1.28	4.73	0.61	1.84**	3.50	1.09	4.61	0.72	1.02**
Protect crime scenes	2.53	1.37	4.71	0.66	1.59**	3.57	1.11	4.66	0.75	0.98**
Interview suspect	2.64	1.37	4.71	0.63	1.51**	3.64	1.08	4.64	0.72	0.93**
Arrest offenders	2.96	1.38	4.83	0.50	1.36**	3.59	0.97	4.73	0.69	1.18**
Respond to emergencies	2.26	1.30	4.77	0.61	1.93**	3.30	1.05	4.75	0.62	1.38**
Investigate crime	2.45	1.25	4.73	0.62	1.82**	3.27	1.09	4.68	0.74	1.05**
Prepare cases for court	2.66	1.31	4.67	0.72	1.53**	3.50	1.02	4.79	0.55	1.27**
Handle lost/found property	2.36	1.28	4.68	0.75	1.81**	3.50	1.17	4.71	0.63	1.03**
Find stolen property	2.40	1.31	4.74	0.67	1.79**	3.14	1.09	4.66	0.75	1.40**
Transport prisoners	3.19	1.40	4.66	0.72	1.05**	3.91	1.12	4.68	0.77	0.69*
Check offenders out on bail	2.58	1.36	4.65	0.98	1.46**	3.02	1.30	4.46	0.84	1.11**
Give formal warnings	2.59	1.31	4.67	0.71	1.59**	3.09	1.10	4.48	0.88	1.26**
Patrols other than on foot	2.44	1.43	4.78	0.56	1.64**	3.27	1.17	4.66	0.75	1.19**
Deal with disturbances	2.44	1.33	4.66	0.78	1.67**	2.89	1.21	4.25	1.14	1.12**
Patrol on foot	2.10	1.30	4.62	0.81	1.94**	2.61	1.45	4.36	0.94	1.21**
Search people/cars/places	2.59	1.41	4.65	0.77	1.46**	3.52	1.17	4.75	0.62	1.05**
Gun licences	2.35	1.38	4.66	0.75	1.67**	3.59	1.26	4.36	1.10	0.61*
Control vice	1.93	1.17	4.65	0.81	2.32**	2.80	1.23	4.39	1.06	1.29**
Control liquor licences	2.63	1.40	4.66	0.79	1.45**	3.50	1.07	4.59	0.73	1.02**
Issue restraining orders	2.56	1.34	4.67	0.68	1.58**	2.98	1.17	4.27	1.13	1.10**
Death messages	3.06	1.48	4.73	0.63	1.13**	3.59	1.18	4.57	0.76	0.83**
Family violence	2.78	1.43	4.69	0.73	1.34**	3.68	1.12	4.57	0.78	0.80**
Traffic accidents	3.08	1.47	4.78	0.55	1.16**	3.66	1.10	4.73	0.59	0.97**
Missing persons	2.58	1.39	4.72	0.65	1.54**	2.89	1.28	4.64	0.84	1.37**
Police community centres	2.58	1.46	4.75	0.63	1.49**	3.50	1.17	4.73	0.69	1.05**
Protect important people	3.45	1.49	4.45	1.03	0.67*	3.46	1.34	4.55	0.93	0.81**
Control crowds	3.08	1.50	4.68	0.74	1.07**	3.50	1.29	4.57	0.95	0.83**
Take care of prisoners	2.87	1.41	4.59	0.83	1.22**	3.84	0.91	4.64	0.78	0.88**
Deal with sexual violence	2.76	1.40	4.74	0.71	1.41**	3.73	0.95	4.73	0.73	1.05**
Give feedback to victims	2.50	1.40	4.77	0.62	1.62**	3.14	1.29	4.71	0.67	1.22**

\* Practically significant difference:  $d \geq 0.50$  (medium effect)\*\* Practically significant difference:  $d \geq 0.80$  (large effect)

Table 4 shows significantly higher scores (mainly of large effect) for community members in the Rustenburg area regarding their preferred priorities for police duties. Police members in the Rustenburg area obtained higher scores (practically significant, medium and large effects) on their preferred priorities compared to their present priorities. Practically significant differences of medium effect were obtained on only two items, namely Transport prisoners and Gun licences. Duties such as to advise businesses and homeowners on crime prevention, respond to emergencies, patrol on foot and vice control are the highest preferred priorities as indicated by the community. The police on the other hand considered duties such as to arrest offenders, respond to emergencies, find stolen property and give feedback to victims as their highest priorities.

It is interesting that the community's priorities for the different items are significantly higher than those of the police, except for only one item namely, to protect important people.

Differences between the way in which Afrikaans-, English-, and Tswana-speaking community members currently view the police and how they prefer the police to be, are reported in Table 5.

Table 5

*Differences for the PAS between Language Groups in the Rustenburg Area*

Items	Mean – Afrikaans (n = 36)	Mean – English (n = 69)	Mean –Tswana (n = 194)	p	Root MSE
<b>PAS - Present</b>					
Advice	12.50	12.45	14.49	0.02*	5.73
Investigation	27.39	26.16	29.18	0.11	10.53
Station duties	15.31	14.46	16.48	0.04*	5.83
Crime prevention	8.61	8.77	9.89	0.06	4.11
Assistance	6.72	6.49	7.22	0.18	2.94
Family issues	13.47	12.57	14.19	0.09	5.26
Security	8.53	8.59	9.84	0.01*	3.43
<b>PAS – Preferred</b>					
Advice	27.78	27.61	28.25	0.24	2.88
Investigation	51.56	51.86	52.45	0.49	5.15
Station duties	26.64	27.77	28.31	0.03*	3.46
Crime prevention	17.72 <sup>b</sup>	18.59	18.92 <sup>a</sup>	0.02*	2.40
Assistance	13.00 <sup>b</sup>	14.06	14.11 <sup>a</sup>	0.01*	1.93
Family issues	22.67	23.49	23.71	0.09	2.62
Security	12.97	13.68	13.87	0.06	2.08

a Practically significant difference for language (in row) where b (medium effect,  $d \geq 0.50$ ) or c (large effect,  $d \geq 0.80$ ) are indicated.

\* Statistically significant  $p \leq 0.05$

Table 5 shows no practically significant difference between the three different language populations regarding how they currently view the police. Table 5 further only shows practically significant differences (of medium effect) between the Afrikaans- and Tswana-speaking people regarding how they prefer the police to be in terms of Crime prevention and Assistance.

Perceptions of how the police members in the Rustenburg area view the community as well as how they expect the community to co-operate, are reported in Table 6.

Table 6

*Contact with the Community for Police Officers in the Rustenburg Area (N = 101)*

Item	Frequency	Percentage
<b>The amount of trust in the community to co-operate</b>		
Very low	8	8
Low	15	15
Average	54	55
High	14	14
Very high	8	8
<b>To what extent community needs are satisfied</b>		
Almost nothing - Not at all	6	6
Average	59	60
To a large extent	34	34
<b>The overall performance in serving the community</b>		
Very low	5	5
Low	9	9
Average	37	37
High	30	30
Very high	18	18
<b>Reliability of media in reporting crime</b>		
Very low	5	5
Low	21	22
Average	41	42
High	23	24
Very high	7	7

Table 6 shows that 8% of the police members in the Rustenburg area do not trust the community to co-operate, while another 8% believe the community will support them all the way. Furthermore, 55% believe that they can expect only moderate support from the community. Six percent of the police respondents reported that they do not satisfy the needs of the community at all, while 34% believe they satisfy the community's needs to a large extent. Also, 60% feel that they satisfy the community needs at least to a certain extent. The majority of respondents believe they perform well in serving the community and 42% believe that the media is reliable in reporting crime.

Perceptions of community members in the Rustenburg area who had contact with the police during the previous 12 months, are reported in Table 7.

Table 7

*Community Members in the Rustenburg Area who had Contact with the SAPS (N = 152)*

Item	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Level of competence – police officer</b>		
No opinion	8	5
Low - very low	67	44
Average	60	40
High - very high	16	11
<b>Helpfulness</b>		
No opinion	6	4
Low - very low	72	48
Average	44	29
High - very high	28	19
<b>Interest in the situation</b>		
No opinion	7	5
Low - very low	76	51
Average	46	31
High - very high	21	14
<b>Courtesy/Respectfulness</b>		
No opinion	6	4
Low - very low	63	42
Average	45	30
High - very high	36	24
<b>Fair</b>		
No opinion	7	5
Low - very low	61	41
Average	51	34
High - very high	31	21
<b>Level of trust</b>		
No opinion	6	4
Low - very low	70	47
Average	45	30
High - very high	29	19
<b>Satisfaction with the service provided</b>		
Low - very low	89	60
Average	45	30
High - very high	14	9
<b>Satisfaction with responding officer</b>		
Low - very low	76	52
Average	45	31
High - very high	25	17
<b>Reasons for not satisfied</b>		
Slow response time	80	
Officer did not follow up	34	
Officer was rude	23	
Officer seemed not to care	38	
Officer did not listen to the victim	7	
No arrests were made	40	

Table 7 shows that as many as 44% of the community respondents who had contact with the police within the last 12 months believe that the police officer with whom they had contact is incompetent. Only 11% regard police officers as competent, while 40% of the respondents view police officers as competent to a certain extent. Only 19% of the respondents experience the police as helpful. Furthermore, 51% of the respondents indicated that the police had no interest in their situations. Only 24% experience the police as respectful. Thirty-four percent of the community members feel that the police are fair but only to a certain extent. Also, 19% of the respondents feel that they can trust the police, while 47% feel they cannot trust the police.

When asked how satisfied they were with the service and responding officer, only 9% were satisfied with the provided service. Regarding the responding officer, 52% indicated that they were dissatisfied, 31% were happy but not entirely satisfied and only 17% were satisfied. Table 7 also indicated that 80 of the respondents were dissatisfied because of slow response time. Thirty-four of the respondents indicated that the police officer did not follow up the case and 40 indicated that they were unhappy because no arrests were made.

Satisfaction with the overall service of the police, neighbourhood concerns, confidence in SAPS, as well as the sources of information about the police for community members in the Rustenburg area are reported in Table 8.

Table 8

*Overall service, Neighbourhood Concerns, Confidence in the SAPS and Information About the Police for Community Members in the Rustenburg Area (N = 418)*

Item	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Overall service of the SAPS</b>		
Poor – very poor	165	40
Average	182	44
Good – very good	66	12
<b>Police officers seen in the neighbourhood</b>		
Generally not seen	148	36
1 – 3 times per week	102	24
4 – 10 times per week	62	15
More than 10 times per week	103	25
<b>Safety and security of the neighbourhood</b>		
Unsafe – very unsafe	174	42
Fairly safe	152	37
Safe – very safe	87	21
<b>Is the neighbourhood more safe, about as safe or less safe</b>		
More safe	130	32
About as safe	200	48
Less safe	81	20
<b>Where to go in a crime situation</b>		
Police	305	74
Private security company	49	12
Local civic	17	4
Community policing forum	28	7
<b>Where do people get their information</b>		
Radio	185	
Newspapers	129	
TV	194	
Friends/relatives	34	
Police friends/relatives	30	
Community policing forums	29	
Community meetings	46	
Local police stations	44	

Table 8 shows that 40% of the respondents are unhappy and/or dissatisfied with the overall service of the police. A total of 36% indicated that the police are generally not seen in their neighbourhoods, while others (25%) indicated that they saw the police 10 times and more per week in their neighbourhoods. Thirty seven percent indicated that their neighbourhood is fairly safe and 48% reported that their neighbourhood is about as safe as other

neighbourhoods. Also, 74% indicated that they would go to the police in instances of crime. Table 8 also shows that the media, radio (185 respondents), newspapers (129 respondents) and the television (194 respondents) are the most important sources of information regarding information about the SAPS in the Rustenburg area.

The correlation coefficients of police members in the Rustenburg Area between the MSQ, PSS, MBI-GS and UWES ( $N = 101$ ) are reported in Table 9. Pearson correlation coefficients were used for the different variables, except for Vigour and Dedication, because of their skewness as indicated in Table 1. In the case of Vigour and Dedication, Spearman correlation coefficients were used.

Table 9

*Correlation Coefficients of Police Members in the Rustenburg Area Between the MSQ, PSS, MBI-GS and UWES ( $N = 101$ )*

Items	Extrinsic job satisfaction	Intrinsic job satisfaction	Job demands	Lack of resources	Police stressors	Exhaust	Cynicism	Prof. efficacy	Vigour	Dedication.
Intrinsic job satisfaction	0.58**	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Job demands	-0.13	0.22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lack of resources	-0.17	0.16	0.76**	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Police stressors	-0.02	0.18	0.59**	0.65**	-	-	-	-	-	-
Exhaustion	-0.26	-0.09	0.45*	0.38*	0.18	-	-	-	-	-
Cynicism	-0.13	-0.07	0.42*	0.35*	0.21*	0.70**	-	-	-	-
Professional efficacy	0.01	0.36*	0.25*	0.30*	0.23*	0.14	0.17	-	-	-
Vigour	0.22*	0.30*	-0.09	-0.02	0.04	-0.19	-0.23	0.40*	-	-
Dedication	0.22*	0.33*	-0.06	-0.05	0.03	-0.32**	-0.48**	0.28*	0.74**	-
Absorption	0.25*	0.32**	0.00	0.06	0.13	-0.14	-0.12	0.33**	0.76**	0.68**

\* Statistical significant  $p \leq 0.05$

+ Correlation is practically significant  $r \geq 0.30$  (medium effect)

++ Correlation is practically significant  $r \geq 0.50$  (large effect)

Table 9 shows practically significant negative correlation coefficients between Dedication on the one hand and Exhaustion and Cynicism on the other hand. Significant positive correlation coefficients were also found for 1) Exhaustion and Cynicism on the one hand and Job demands and Lack of resources on the other hand; 2) Intrinsic Job satisfaction on the one hand and Professional efficacy, Vigour, Dedication and Absorption on the other hand; 3) Professional efficacy on the one hand and Intrinsic Job satisfaction, Lack of resources,

Vigour and Absorption on the other; and 4) between Absorption on the one hand and Total Job satisfaction on the other hand.

Extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction/dissatisfaction with job related aspects of the MSQ for police members in the Rustenburg area, are reported in Table 10.

Table 10

*Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction with Aspects of the MSQ for Police Members (N = 101)*

Aspects	Mean
<b>Extrinsic Job satisfaction</b>	
Praise	3.17
Working conditions	2.87
Pay and amount of work	2.67
Chances for advancements	3.08
Supervisor	3.59
Own methods	3.48
Own judgements	3.51
Company policies	3.08
Co-workers	3.38
Competence of supervisor	3.41
<b>Intrinsic Job satisfaction</b>	
Use of own abilities	3.69
Do different things	3.63
Chance to supervise	3.69
Do things for others	3.82
Keep busy all the time	3.96
Work alone	3.62
To be somebody	3.93
Don't go against my conscience	3.42
Steady employment	3.65

Table 10 shows that the police members in the Rustenburg area are dissatisfied with aspects such as working condition (2.87) and pay and amount of work (2.67). They are also relatively dissatisfied with chances for advancement (3.08) and company policies (3.08). The police members in the Rustenburg area appear relatively satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their jobs.

Stressful job-related events of the PSS with significant seriousness for police members in the Rustenburg area, are reported in Table 11.

Table 11

*Stressful Job Related Events of the PSS with Significant Seriousness for Police Members (N = 101)*

Stressful job related events	Intensity	Frequency	Seriousness
<b>Job demands</b>			
Working overtime	5.45	4.63	25.23
Crisis situation	5.43	4.14	22.48
Tasks not in job description	5.45	4.72	25.72
Increased responsibility	5.49	4.73	25.97
Noisy work area	5.24	4.21	22.06
Frequent interruptions	5.56	4.71	26.19
Excessive paperwork	5.77	5.14	29.33
Meeting deadlines	5.31	4.71	25.01
Insufficient personal time	5.18	4.36	25.01
Other employee's work	5.08	4.28	22.58
<b>Job resources</b>			
Lack of opportunities	5.52	3.84	21.20
Others not doing their job	5.60	4.69	26.26
Inadequate support – supervisor	5.73	4.20	24.07
Lack of recognition	5.04	4.70	23.69
Poor/inadequate equipment	5.78	5.19	30.00
Negative attitudes	5.06	4.07	20.59
Insufficient personnel to handle assignments	5.39	4.19	22.58
Inadequate salary	5.85	4.91	28.72
Competition for advancement	5.30	4.20	22.26
Poorly motivated co-workers	5.22	4.76	24.85
Staff shortage	6.26	5.43	33.99
<b>Police stressors</b>			
A fellow-officer killed in the line of duty	6.41	3.66	23.46
Racial conflict	5.22	3.63	20.04
Seeing criminals go free	6.20	4.78	29.64

Table 11 shows that staff shortages (33.99), poor/inadequate equipment (30.00) excessive paperwork (29.33), seeing criminals go free (29.64) and inadequate salary (28.72) are the most stressful job related events for police members in the Rustenburg area.

Results of canonical correlations which were performed between job stress and job satisfaction, job stress and burnout, burnout and engagement as well as burnout and job satisfaction for police officers in the Rustenburg area ( $N = 101$ ), are shown in Tables 12, 13, 14 and 15.

Table 12

*Results of the Canonical Analysis: Job Stress and Job Satisfaction of Police Officers (N=101)*

Set	First Canonical Variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient
<b>Set 1 – Job Stress</b>		
Job demands	0.96	0.70
Lack of resources	0.90	0.47
Police stressors	0.55	-0.16
Percent of Variance	0.68	
Redundancy	0.10	
<b>Set 2 – Job Satisfaction</b>		
Extrinsic job satisfaction	-0.42	-1.04
Intrinsic job satisfaction	0.51	1.10
Percent of Variance	0.22	
Redundancy	0.03	
Canonical Correlation	0.38	

The first canonical correlation was 0.38 (15% overlapping variance). The other canonical correlation was 0.14. With both canonical correlations included  $F(6,182) = 2.82, p = 0.0120$ . Subsequent F-tests were not statistically significant. The first pair of canonical variates, therefore, accounted for the significant relationship between the two sets of variables. Total percent of variance and total redundancy indicate that the first pair of canonical variates was moderately related.

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30 the variables in the Job stress set that were correlated with the first canonical variate were Job demands, Lack of resources and Police stressors. Variables of Job satisfaction that were correlated with the first canonical variate were Extrinsic job satisfaction and Intrinsic job satisfaction. The first pair of canonical variates indicates that job demands (0.96), lack of resources (0.90) and police stressors (0.55) are associated with low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction (-0.42) and high levels intrinsic job satisfaction (0.51).

Table 13 indicates the canonical correlations for a job stress set and a burnout set.

Table 13

*Results of the Canonical Analysis: Job Stress and Burnout of Police Officers (N = 101)*

Set	First Canonical Variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient
<b>Set 1 – Job Stress</b>		
Job demands	0.96	0.75
Lack of resources	0.88	0.45
Police stressors	0.50	-0.23
Percent of Variance	0.65	
Redundancy	0.18	
<b>Set 2 – Burnout</b>		
Exhaustion	0.89	0.62
Cynicism	0.81	0.31
Professional efficacy	0.52	0.38
Percent of Variance	0.57	
Redundancy	0.16	
Canonical Correlation	0.53	

The first canonical correlation was 0.53 (28% overlapping variance). The other two canonical correlations were 0.16 and 0.06 (Rothmann, 2002). With all three canonical correlations included  $F(9, 219.19) = 3.79, p = 0.0002$ . Subsequent F-tests were not statistically significant. The first pair of canonical variates, therefore, accounted for the significant relationship between the two sets of variables. Total percent of variance and total redundancy indicate that the first pair of canonical variates was moderately related.

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30 the variables of the first set (job stress) that correlated with the first canonical variate were Job demands, Lack of resources and Police stressors. Variables in the second set (burnout) that correlated with the first canonical variate were Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional efficacy. The first pair of canonical variates indicates that job demands (0.96), lack of resources (0.88) and police stressors (0.50) correlates with high levels of exhaustion (0.89), cynicism (0.81), but also with professional efficacy (0.52).

Table 14 indicates the canonical correlations between a burnout set and an engagement set.

Table 14

*Results of the Canonical Analysis: Burnout and Engagement of Police Officers (N = 101)*

Set	Firs Canonical Variate		Second Canonical Variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient	Correlation	Coefficient
<b>Set 1 – Burnout</b>				
Exhaustion	-0.57	-0.09	0.16	-0.53
Cynicism	-0.79	-0.83	0.59	0.84
Professional efficacy	0.47	0.63	0.81	0.74
Percent of Variance	0.40		0.34	
Redundancy	0.14		0.03	
<b>Set 2 – Engagement</b>				
Vigour	0.77	0.05	0.60	0.97
Dedication	0.98	1.12	0.15	-1.19
Absorption	0.53	-0.26	0.73	0.81
Percent of Variance	0.61		0.31	
Redundancy	0.22		0.25	
Canonical Correlation	0.60		0.30	

The first canonical correlation was 0.60 (36% overlapping variance). The second canonical correlation was 0.30 (9% overlapping variance). The other canonical correlation was 0.05. With all three canonical correlations included  $F(9, 221.62) = 6.21, p < 0.0001$ , and with the first canonical correlation removed,  $F(4, 184) = 2.21, p = 0.0693$ . Subsequent F-tests were not statistically significant. The first two pairs of canonical variates, therefore, accounted for the significant relationship between the two sets of variables. Total percent of variance and total redundancy indicate that the first pair of canonical variates was moderately related, but the second pair was only somewhat related and its interpretation could be questionable.

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30 the variables in the first set (burnout) that correlated with the first canonical variate were Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional efficacy. Among the second set (engagement), Vigour, Dedication and Absorption correlated with the first canonical variate. The first pair of the canonical variates indicates that low levels of exhaustion (-0.57), low levels of cynicism (-0.79) and high levels of professional efficacy can be associated with vigour (0.77), dedication (0.98) and absorption (0.53).

The variables in the burnout set that were correlated with the second canonical variate were Cynicism and Professional efficacy. Variables in the Engagement set that were correlated with the second canonical variate were Vigour and Absorption. The second pair of canonical

variables indicates that cynicism (0.59) and professional efficacy (0.81) can be associated with vigour (0.60) and absorption (0.73).

Table 15 indicates the canonical correlations for a burnout set and a job satisfaction set.

Table 15

*Results of the Canonical Analysis: Burnout and Job Satisfaction of Police Officers (N = 101)*

Set	First Canonical Variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient
<b>Set 1 – Burnout</b>		
Exhaustion	0.17	0.21
Cynicism	0.03	-0.29
Professional efficacy	0.98	1.00
Percent of Variance	0.33	
Redundancy	0.06	
<b>Set 2 – Job Satisfaction</b>		
Extrinsic job satisfaction	-0.01	-0.73
Intrinsic job satisfaction	0.81	1.23
Percent of Variance	0.33	
Redundancy	0.06	
Canonical Correlation	0.44	

The first canonical correlation was 0.44 (19% overlapping variance). The other canonical correlation was 0.27 (Rothmann, 2002). With both canonical correlations included  $F(6, 182) = 4.72, p = 0.0002$ . Subsequent F-tests were not statistically significant. The first pair of canonical variates, therefore, accounted for the significant relationship between the two sets of variables. Total percent of variance and total redundancy indicate that the first pair of canonical variates was moderately related.

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30 the variables in the Burnout set that were correlated with the first canonical variate were Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional efficacy. Variables of Job satisfaction that were correlated with the first canonical variate were Extrinsic job satisfaction and Intrinsic job satisfaction. The first pair of canonical variates indicates that Professional efficacy (0.98) is associated with high levels Intrinsic job satisfaction (0.81).

## DISCUSSION

This study was based on the premise that the ideal outcome for community policing is for officers and citizens to interact in continuous co-operative efforts to reduce crime in South Africa. Therefore, the objectives were to determine the community's expectations and satisfaction with the SAPS, to determine if there were any differences between Afrikaans-, English- and Tswana-speaking community members and to determine what the perceptions of the police personnel in the Rustenburg area were regarding their functions as well as the congruence between the police's perceptions and the public's expectations. The relationship between job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement as well as the implication thereof on service delivery for the police personnel in the Rustenburg area were also investigated.

The results indicated that the community ranked traffic accidents (attend to traffic accidents) and control crowds (keeping crowds under control at public events) as the most important current police activities. However, they rated "arrest offenders" as their highest preferred priority. The police, on the other hand rated transporting and taking care of prisoners as their highest present priorities, and preparing cases for court as their highest preferred priority.

The above ratings of both the public and the police are inconsistent with other studies of this kind (e.g. Beck et al., 1999). According to Beck et al. (1999), responding to emergencies were rated as the highest present and preferred police activity by both the public and the police elsewhere in the world. However, it is important to remember that although community policing can be compared globally, circumstances and priorities may differ from country to country. For instance, South Africa has in recent years transformed from a racially divided country to a democracy. The police also changed from a "police force" to a "police service" and the main focus became visible policing rather than to focus on other activities as well (Louw, 1997).

The police represent the first line of the criminal justice process and therefore it can be argued that the better the police perform in collecting evidence on or around the crime scene, the better the chance that the criminal will be prosecuted. In 1995 only one quarter of all robberies, one fifth of housebreakings, one tenth of vehicle thefts and about 50% of murders were resolved (Louw, 1997). It can be argued that for police to "solve" crimes they should

produce the necessary evidence to clear crimes from their books. That may explain why they regarded “prepare cases for court” as their highest preferred priority. From the perspective of police members and the community too many criminals go free because of insufficient evidence. Accordingly, seeing criminals go free was regarded as a severe stressor for most police members in this study. According to Louw (1997), inherent weaknesses in South Africa’s criminal justice system contribute to a situation of crisis proportions. She ascribed the high crime rates in the country to these weaknesses.

On the other hand, the community rated vice control and advice to businesses as their lowest present police priorities. To protect important people was scored as their lowest preferred priority. However, the police scored patrol on foot as the lowest present priority and dealing with disturbances as their lowest preferred priority. A comparison between the present and preferred priorities of both the police and the community shows that both are of the same opinion. Both groups think the overall service delivery of the SAPS should improve.

Although both the public and the police indicated that the service delivery of the SAPS should improve, it is possible that the police succumbed to the expectations of the public. The results of the PAS for police officials show a significant difference between their present and preferred perceptions of their functions. It should also be kept in mind that the police are constantly measuring their own performance. One such a way is by using non-scientific questionnaires to ask the public how they perform. However, if the police do succumb to the expectations of the public, it could cause frustration and stress to perform better which in the long term could lead to burnout.

The overall analysis of the PAS shows no congruency between what the public expects from the SAPS and the perceptions of police officials regarding their functions. Consequently, the results show that the preferred expectations of the community were very skewedly distributed, suggesting unrealistic expectations on behalf of the community for duties performed by the SAPS.

Transformation in the SAPS may be regarded as a contributing factor to the inconsistency of what the public expects from the SAPS and the perception of the police members of what their priorities are. With South Africa’s long history of apartheid and its effect on the former way of policing, the new police service (SAPS) is under extreme pressure to reform (Louw,

1997). She argued that the demands of the transition from a police force to a police service have made it difficult for the police to combat crime. In turn it can be argued that the capacity SAPS to transform may be impaired by the high crime rates.

It can be argued that the mass media contribute to unrealistic expectations with the public. The results show that the majority of the community respondents get their information from the mass media. Louw (1997) argued that in the absence of direct experience with the police, the mass media has a strong influence on the development of public attitudes about policing and police work and it sometimes happens that detail gets lost due to reporting.

Eight percent of the police members expect the community to co-operate completely; a further 8% do not expect the community to co-operate at all. Fifty five percent of the police respondents expect the community to co-operate, but not completely. It appears that these police officers expect the community only to co-operate when it is in their interest and not to help with crime prevention in general. However, 47% of the community members who had contact with the police indicated that their confidence in the police is low to very low. A further 30% indicated that they trust the police only to a certain extent. This may be the reason, why the police do not expect the community not to co-operate completely.

The results showed no significant differences between Afrikaans-, English- and Tswana-speaking community members regarding their present perception of duties performed by the police. The only significant differences (of medium effect) were between Afrikaans- and Tswana-speaking people regarding their expectations of crime prevention and assistance.

According to the literature, variables like burnout, stress and job satisfaction can undermine the overall performance of the police. The results show that police officials in the Rustenburg area suffer considerably of stress. Their biggest stressors are staff shortage, poor/inadequate equipment, excessive paper work, seeing criminals go free and inadequate salary. Louw (1997) is of the opinion that the current transition in the police also accounted for high levels of stress. Between 1991 and June 1994 as much as 29 % of the medical boardings were due to stress-related disabilities (Louw, 1997). The literature shows that stress stems from two sources, namely organisational or structural sources, and those internal or inherent to the job. In the current study it is found that police stress stems from three sources, namely job demands, job resources and police stressors.

According to Green (1989), there is sufficient evidence in support of the notion of a relationship between police stress and the aspects of the job satisfaction-dissatisfaction complex. The results of the job satisfaction questionnaire for police members in the Rustenburg area show that these police officials are relatively extrinsically dissatisfied with their jobs. *Extrinsic* can be defined as “something connected to external factors” (Plug, Louw, Gouws & Meyer, 1997, p. 87). With regard to situational factors of the job environment such as sources of stress (job demands, job resources and police stressors), it can be argued that there is an inverse relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction of the police members in the Rustenburg area and their levels of stress. This is also evident in results of the canonical analysis, where the results suggest that job demands, lack of resources and police stressors are associated with low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction.

The results of the canonical analysis of the relation between job stress and burnout indicate that prolonged job demands, lack of resources and police stressors correlate with high levels of exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy. Low levels of exhaustion and cynicism, and high levels of professional efficacy, on the other hand, can be associated with a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption. Furthermore, the canonical analysis between burnout and job satisfaction indicates that moderated levels of exhaustion and cynicism and high levels of professional efficacy correlates with low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction and high levels of intrinsic job satisfaction.

It is possible that job stress contributes to burnout, as well as a lack of engagement, which in turn impact on police members’ job dissatisfaction. This dissatisfaction may cause police members to project a negative image of the SAPS to the community, which in turn result in negative evaluations of the SAPS.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

Firstly, if police officials in the Rustenburg area want to effectively engage and consult with the community, they should focus on what the community expects from them as police, seeing that there is a discrepancy between the present and preferred priorities regarding the police as indicated by the public. It can be argued that the removal of discrepancies between

the current and preferred priorities is the first step to successful consultation and engagement, as it identifies areas in which the community in the Rustenburg area seem to desire change.

Secondly, because it seems that the community has unrealistic expectations of the SAPS, steps should be taken to help the community to develop realistic expectations. In the process they should be encouraged to accept responsibility for helping the police to combat crime.

Thirdly, police management should systematically address serious job stressors, such as a lack of equipment because these stressors contribute to burnout, lack of engagement and job dissatisfaction, which might result in poor service delivery. It is improbable that the effectiveness of the SAPS (as seen by the community) would improve without addressing stressors, burnout and engagement of police members.

The relationship between what the public expects of the police and the perception police members have of their functions should be investigated in all the provinces of South Africa. Interventions to increase the trust between the police and the community should be researched. Research should be conducted about interventions to manage the burnout, engagement and job satisfaction of police members.

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## **CHAPTER 3**

### **CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

The purpose of this chapter is to make conclusions based on the objectives of the study. Limitations of the research are also discussed, and recommendations are made on how community policing in the Rustenburg area, as well as the effectiveness of the SAPS, could be improved. Lastly recommendations for future research are made.

#### **3.1 CONCLUSIONS**

The study was based on the premise that the ideal outcome for community policing is for officers and citizens to interact in continuous co-operative efforts to reduce crime in South Africa.

The first objective of this study was to determine what the community in the Rustenburg area expects from the SAPS, to assess their satisfaction with the SAPS and to determine differences between the expectations and satisfaction of Afrikaans-, English- and Tswana-speaking community members. A comparison between the present and preferred priorities of the Public Attitude Survey (PAS) shows that there are significant differences between community's current and preferred views of the police, suggesting that they are not satisfied with the SAPS in the Rustenburg area. Forty-four percent of the community respondents claimed that the overall services of the SAPS in the Rustenburg area are of poor to very poor quality. The results also showed that the community expect the SAPS in the Rustenburg area to drastically improve the overall service delivery.

Consequently, the descriptive statistics show that the expectations of the community were fairly skewedly distributed, suggesting unrealistic expectations on behalf of the community for duties performed by the SAPS in the Rustenburg area. However, it could be argued that the mass media contributed to these unrealistic expectations of the public. The results show that the majority of the community respondents get their information from the mass media. Louw (1997) argued that in the absence of direct experience with the police, the mass media have a strong influence on the development of public attitudes about policing and police work and it sometimes happens that the detail gets lost in reporting.

The results showed no significant differences between Afrikaans-, English- and Tswana-speaking community members regarding their present perception of duties performed by the police. The only significant differences (of medium effect) were between Afrikaans- and Tswana-speaking people regarding their expectations of crime prevention and assistance.

The second objective was to determine the perceptions, which police personnel in the Rustenburg area have of their functions. According to a comparison between the present and preferred priorities of police officials in the Rustenburg area for the PAS, the police officials believe that the overall services they render should improve. Furthermore, 60% of the police respondents feel that they only satisfy the needs of the community to a certain extent. When asked how would they regard the overall performance of the SAPS in serving the community, 48% indicate that they perform well.

It could be that the above perceptions of the police members in the Rustenburg area are a product of the unrealistic expectations of the public. It should be kept in mind that the police are constantly measuring their own performance. One such a way is by using non-scientific questionnaires to ask the public how they perform, for example the Best Performer Competition of the former Saambou Bank. If the police do succumb to the expectations of the public, it could cause frustration and stress because of the pressure to perform better, which in the long term could lead to burnout.

The third objective was to determine the congruence between the community's expectations of the SAPS and the police officials' perceptions of their priority functions. The overall analysis of the PAS shows no congruence between what the public expects from the SAPS and the perceptions of police officials regarding their functions.

Furthermore, 8% of the police expect the community to co-operate completely; a further 8% expect the community not to co-operate at all. Fifty five percent of the police respondents expect the community to co-operate, but not completely. These police officers appears to expect the community only to co-operate, when it is in their own interest and not to help with crime prevention in general. Forty-seven of the community members who had contact with the police indicated that their confidence in the police is low to very low. A further 30 % indicated that they trust the police only to a certain extent. This may be maybe the reason why the police expect the community not to co-operate completely.

Transformation in the SAPS may be regarded as a contributing factor to the inconsistency regarding what the public expects from the SAPS and the perception of the police members of what their priorities are. With South Africa's long history of apartheid its effect on the former way of policing, the new police service (SAPS) is under extreme pressure to reform (Louw, 1997). She argued that the demands of the transition from a police force to a police service have made it difficult for the police to combat crime. In turn it can be argued that the SAPS's capacity to transform may be impaired by the high crime rates.

The fourth objective was to determine the relationship between job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement of police personnel in the Rustenburg area and to determine the implications of this for service rendering. According to the literature, variables like burnout, stress and job dissatisfaction can undermine the overall performance of the police. The results show that police officials in the Rustenburg area are under extreme stress. The biggest stressors they experience are staff shortage, poor/inadequate equipment, excessive paperwork, seeing criminals go free and inadequate salary.

Louw (1997) is of the opinion that the current transition in the police also accounted for high levels of stress. Between 1991 and June 1994 as much as 29 % of the medical boardings in the SAPS were due to stress-related disabilities (Louw, 1997). The literature shows that stress stems from two sources, namely organisational or structural sources, and those internal or inherent to the job. In the current study it is found that police stress stems from three sources, namely job demands, job resources and police stressors.

According to Green (1989), there is sufficient evidence in support of the notion of a relationship between police stress and the aspects of the job satisfaction-dissatisfaction complex. The results of the job satisfaction questionnaire for police members in the Rustenburg area show that these police officials are relatively extrinsically dissatisfied with their jobs. Looking at situational factors of the job environment such as sources of stress (job demands, job resources and police stressors), it can be argued that there is a relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction of the police members in the Rustenburg area and their levels of stress. This is also evident in results of the canonical analysis, where the results suggest that job demands, lack of resources and police stressors are associated with low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction.

Anderson et al. (2002), Louw (1997) and Varca (1999) argue that chronic stress could be associated with impaired job performance, because of its role in absenteeism, burnout and job dissatisfaction. According to Hirschfeld (2000), intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction are two distinct components when measured with the MSQ short-form; therefore the conclusion is reached that extrinsic job dissatisfaction can also be associated with impaired job performance.

The results of the canonical analysis between job stress and burnout indicated that prolonged job demands, lack of resources and police stressors correlate with high levels of exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy. Low levels of exhaustion and cynicism, and high levels of professional efficacy, on the other hand, can be associated with a positive, fulfilling work related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption. Furthermore, the canonical analysis between burnout and job satisfaction indicates that moderated levels of exhaustion and cynicism and high levels of professional efficacy correlates with low levels of extrinsic job satisfaction and high levels of intrinsic job satisfaction.

### **3.2 LIMITATIONS**

For this research the study population of the police consists of 101 police members in the Rustenburg area. Consequently, it is difficult to make generalisations of the findings for the entire police service. Furthermore, the study only involves community and police members of the Rustenburg area and the findings cannot be generalised to other populations or areas, but pertain only to this study and area. English were the only language used for police questionnaires and the possibility exist that the level of English language skills of respondents speaking English as their second language could have influenced the results.

Another limitation is that generalised measuring instruments were used to determine job satisfaction, burnout and engagement.

### **3.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Recommendations pertaining to the SAPS as well as recommendations for future research are made in this section.

### **3.3.1 Recommendations to the SAPS**

Firstly, if police officials in the Rustenburg area want to effectively engage and consult with the community, they should focus on what the community expect from them as police, as there is a discrepancy between the present and preferred priorities for the police as indicated by the public. It can be argued that the removal of discrepancies between the current and preferred priorities is the first step to successful consultation and engagement, as it identifies areas in which the community in the Rustenburg area seem to desire change.

Secondly, it is evident from this research that the police in the Rustenburg area suffers from stress. It is therefore recommended that the government and police management should not only take notice of the police members' levels of stress but to try their outmost best to address the necessary shortcomings. It is improbable that the effectiveness of the SAPS (as seen by the community) would improve without addressing stressors, burnout, engagement and dissatisfaction of police members.

Thirdly, police management and police employees should be trained to become aware of the symptoms and causes of prolonged stress, job dissatisfaction and burnout, because these impaired performance and service delivery. If managers and employees are aware of the symptoms and causes of the above variables they can help or refer these people to someone who can help them.

Fourthly, because it seems that the community has unrealistic expectations of the SAPS, steps should be taken to help the community to developed realistic expectations. This could be done by better communication between the police and the community. The police should seek ways to improve community policing forums (CPF's) and in the process encourage the community to accept responsibility for helping the police to combat crime.

Fifthly, the results also showed that mutual trust be wanting for successful sustainability of community policing. Community policing is about police management styles and operational strategies that emphasises the establishment of police-community partnership and a problem solving approach responsive to the needs of the community. It is therefore recommended that the police should intervene in order to trust and be trusted.

Lastly, the current study should be repeated in at least two or three year's time to determine if there were any changes in the attitudes of both the public and the police regarding community policing, in order to ensure sustainability and improvement.

### **3.2.2 Recommendations for future research**

The relationship between what the public expects of the police and the perception police members have of their functions, should be investigated all over the country and more thoroughly, to test the reliability of the discrepancies between the expectations of the police and the public.

Interventions to increase the trust between the police and the community should be researched. Research should also be conducted about interventions to manage burnout, engagement and job satisfaction of police members.

Additional research is necessary to determine the reliability and validity of the generalised measuring instruments. It is also recommended that future studies should focus on larger police samples. Large sample sizes might provide increased confidence that study findings would be consistent across the SAPS. It is also recommended that future research should focus on questionnaires, which are non-biased regarding language, as wrong interpretations because of language difference could influence the results.

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