

**A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN THE
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE BASED ON TRANSFORMATIVE
LEARNING THEORY**

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

Leadership development is an essential and valuable tool for capacitating police leaders in the South African Police Service to deal with the diverse challenges that they face in the policing environment. There seem to be a need for leadership development processes that can stimulate change, and for perspective transformation to enable police leaders to find alternative ways of dealing with the challenges experienced in their working environment. This thesis explored transformative learning as a tool to enhance the leadership development processes of police leaders. The essential elements of transformative learning are: centrality of experience; critical thinking; rational discourse; and policy praxis. Theory development were chosen as best to carefully construct the foundational argument through non-empirical literary-based sources, in which the literature itself became the database towards theoretical formulation in this non-empirical study. The alignment and integration of the elements of transformative learning were explored as a strategy to capacitate police leaders to: reflect on past experiences; think critically about ways of dealing with policing challenges based on experiences; discuss these challenges with other police leaders; and act on reflections made during leadership development processes. The study is limited to the analysis of the status of leadership development in the South African Police Service, which was the context of this study.

KEYWORDS: leadership, leadership development, transformative learning theory, South African Police Service

OPSOMMING

Leierskapsontwikkeling is 'n essensiële en waardevolle hulpmiddel om leiers in die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie diens te bemagtig om die uiteenlopende uitdagings waarmee hulle te kampe het, beter te hanteer. Dit blyk egter dat daar 'n behoefte is vir leierskapsontwikkelingsprosesse wat intrinsieke verandering en 'n paradigmaskuif vir polisieleiers te weeg kan bring en wat hulle in staat kan stel om die uitdagings binne hul beroepsveld meer doeltreffend te hanteer. Hierdie tesis ondersoek transformatiewe leerteorie as 'n instrument om leierskapsontwikkeling van polisieleiers te bevorder. Die hoofelemente van transformatiewe leerteorie is: sentralisering van ondervinding; kritiese denke; rasonale diskoers en beleidsvorming. Teorie-ontwikkeling as navorsingsmetodologie was selekteer as die mees geskikste metodologie om die argument deur nie-empiriese literêre bronne te konstrueer, waarvolgens die gekose literatuur die databasis van die teoretiese formulering rondom die argument gevorm het in hierdie nie-empiriese studie. Groepering en integrasie van bogenoemde elemente was ondersoek as 'n strategie om polisieleiers te bemagtig om te reflekteer oor vorige ondervindinge; kritiese denkwyses oor hantering van uitdagings in beroepsveld met inagneming van vorige ondervindinge toe te pas; diskoers oor uitdagings met ander polisieleiers te hê en om aktief te reageer op refleksies tydens leierskapsontwikkelingsprosesse. Die studie is beperk tot die analise van die status van leierskap in die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie diens as konteks waarbinne hierdie studie onderneem is.

SLEUTELWOORDE: leierskap, leierskapsontwikkeling, transformatiewe leerteorie, Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie diens

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Chapter 1

Orientation to the Research

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The essence of leadership development, according Avolio and Gardner (2005), is how the individual in a learning organisation enhances awareness of the self and personal development, embedded in experience. Building leadership capacity within a learning organisation should include key activities, such as selecting individuals who have special competencies in leading the organisation; aligning the vision with activities to achieve the goals; ensuring that the leader inspires others to work towards the goals and objectives (inspirational, empowering); and striving to solve problems and overcome challenges that may be faced (problem-solver), Risher and Stopper (2002) explain.

Leadership challenges differ among leaders in diverse organisations (Clark, 2005). The differences in these leadership challenges depend on the political and sociological paradigm in which the organisation operates. These paradigms lay down the ground rules for organisational leadership development practices. A leader in a complex organisation, Clarke (2005) says, has to meet the challenges of a society that is diverse, pragmatic and questioning of authoritative stances. Such a leader also has to deal with global events that can create resulting organisational demands due to the influence of globalisation on such a society. The South African Police Service (SAPS), within a post-modern policing context, presents such an organisational setting.

The past decade has been characterised by critical shifts and developments in leadership literature, in terms of the traditional leadership perspectives (Morrison, 2000; Yukl, 2002; Posner and Kouzes, 2002; Amey, 2005; Berg, 2003; Fullen, 2005; Conger, 2004; Yoo and Alavi, 2004; Hever, 2005; Rooke and Torbert, 2005; Randall and Coakley, 2006; Scharmer, 2007; Hanson and Marion, 2008; Martinez, 2008; Taylor, 2008). A growing number of literature explores leadership in context (Carley, 2000; Osborn, Hunt and Jauch, 2002; Martin and Ernst, 2005; Mumford, Friedrich, Caughron and Byrne, 2007; Drath, McCauley, Palus, Van Velsor, O'Connor, McGuire, 2008; Lane and Down, 2010), and within a complex adaptive system (CAS) (Jay, 2004; Goldstein, Richardson, Allen and Snowden, 2006; Schneider and Somers, 2006; Hazy, Goldstein, and Lichtenstein, 2007; Panzar, Hazy, McKelvey and Schwandt, 2007; Richardson, 2008; Uhl-Bein and Marion, 2009; Lichtenstein and Plowman, 2009), due to the realisation that leadership is much more than individual behaviour or influence (Berg, 2003).

The shift appears to have been in response to the need to bridge the gap between research, on developing the ability to lead change in the midst of growing complex challenges in the organisational

environment, and practice, according to Zaccaro and Banks (2004). Traditional leadership approaches seem to be inadequate in addressing leadership challenges in complex organisations, according to Yukl (2002). Lichtenstein, Uhl-Bien, Marion, Seers, Orton and Schreiber (2006) concur and motivate that traditional views of leadership are increasingly less useful, given the complexities of the modern world. This view has led scholars to explore new approaches to leadership, motivated by the desire to develop leadership, and leadership development models and problems, that more accurately reflects the complex nature of leadership as it occurs in practice (Snowden and Boone, 2007).

The policing challenges for the SAPS, relating to the transformational adjustments to a democratic society, increased enormously in a post-apartheid South Africa (Newham, 2000). These transformational adjustments led to six areas of change within the SAPS. These changes were: the de-politicisation of the police force; increased community accountability; more visible policing; reform of the police training system; establishment of improved and effective leadership and management practices; and the restructuring of the police force.

Ketel (2005), however, accentuates that the pressures of the transformational adjustments; gaps in the internal transition processes; and difficulty in dealing with complex challenges in the internal and external policing environment, brought police management and leadership competency as well as leadership capacity under the spotlight. These complex challenges defy existing solutions, resources and approaches; and they demand new learning, creativity and quick and decisive action (Dalton, Ernst, Deal and Leslie, 2002).

This chapter provides an outline of the motivation for a theoretical study that accentuates the need for the strengthening of leadership capacity in the challenging policing environment. The study aimed to engage in epistemic reflexivity in order to consider leadership in a complex and diverse organisation such as the SAPS. Leadership development for police leaders was explored against the assumption that generic leadership development initiatives appear to be inadequate in preparing police leaders for the internal and external pressures of the global society of policing. Theoretical exploration is therefore essential to contributing to the existing body of knowledge regarding leadership in a complex organisation, as well as leadership development processes that could capacitate police leaders for their often daunting task. The theoretical findings of this study could assist, in the context of discovery and justification of ideas, in improving the leadership development of police leaders in the SAPS.

The methodological foundation and further information, such as the way in which the data was gathered, analysed and presented, are explained. Limitations and ethical considerations are also provided. A graphic representation of the chapter outline is presented in Figure 1.1 on page 3.

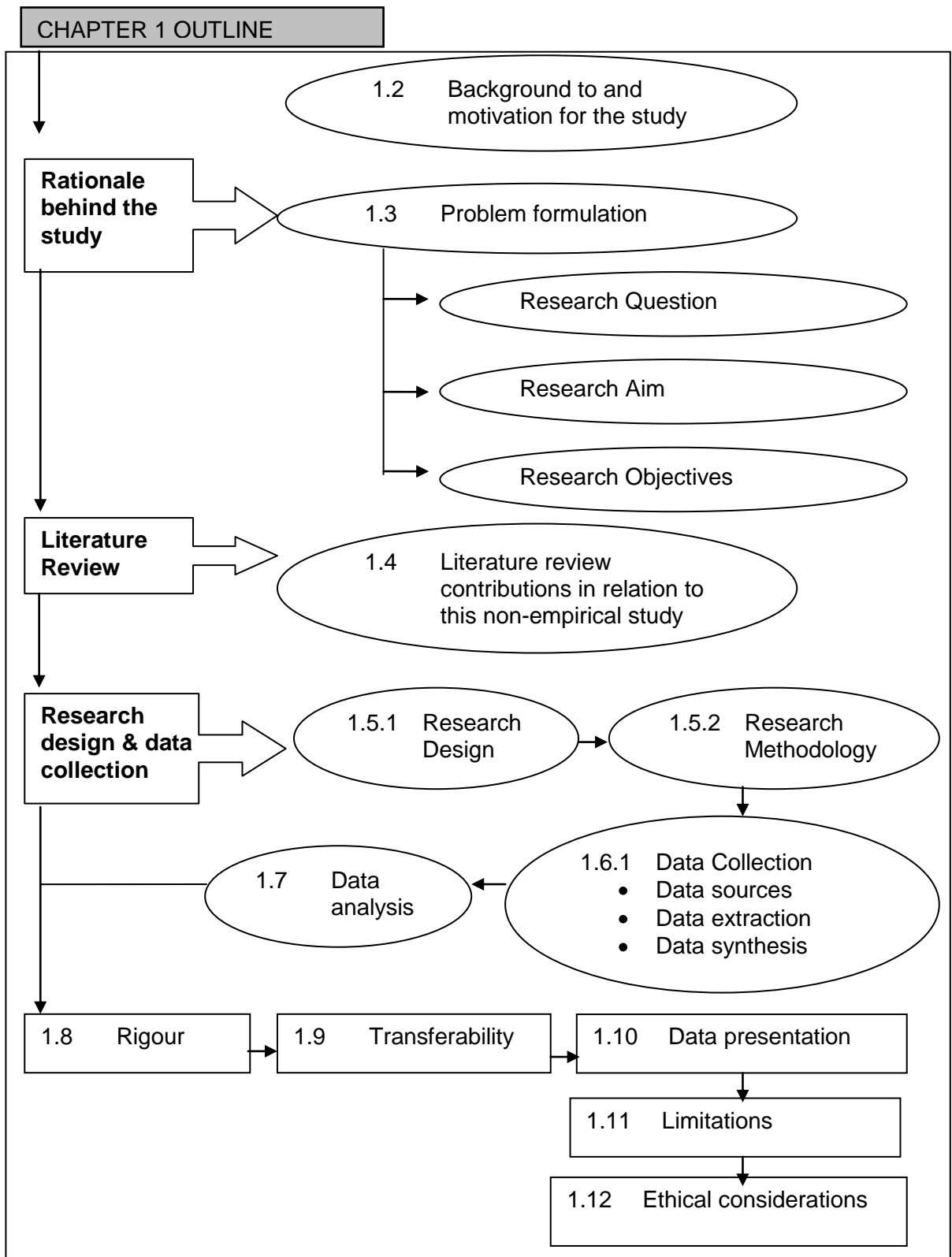


Figure 1.1: Graphical representation of the chapter outline

1.2 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The SAPS, an integrative, dynamic systemic hierarchical framework with a personnel establishment of 192,240, integrated into decentralised networks that are united in creating a safe and secure environment for all people in South Africa (*SAPS, Annual Report 2008/2009*). The common purpose of the SAPS is detailed in the South African Police Service Act, 1995 (Act No. 68 of 1995) as amended by the South African Police Service Amendment Act, 2008 (Act No. 57 of 2008). The Act prescribes the roles of the organisation, which are: to ensure the safety and security of all persons and property in the national territory; uphold and safeguard the fundamental rights of every person; ensure co-operation between the Service and the communities it serves in the combating of crime; reflect respect for victims of crime and an understanding of their needs; and ensure effective civilian supervision over the Service.

The SAPS derives its powers and functions from the following legislation, which enable the activities undertaken in the decentralised networks in pursuance of its mandate in terms of Section 205 of the Constitution, which are:

- The South African Police Service Act, 1995 (Act No. 68 of 1995), as amended by the South African Police Service Amendment Act, (Act No. 57 of 2008);
- The Criminal Procedure Act, 1977 (Act No. 51 of 1977);
- The Regulation of Interception of Communications and Provision of Related Information Act, 2002 (Act No. 70 of 2002);
- The National Strategic Intelligence Act, 1994 (Act No. 39 of 1994);
- The Domestic Violence Act, 1998 (Act No. 116 of 1998);
- The Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act, 2004 (Act No. 12 of 2004);
- The Inter-Governmental Relations Framework Act, 2005 (Act No 13 of 2005);
- The Sexual Offences Act, 2007 (Act no 32 of 2007).

The common purpose of the organisation is encompassed in the mission of the SAPS, which is to prevent and combat anything that may threaten the safety and security of any community; investigate all crimes that threaten the safety and security of any community; ensure offenders are brought to justice; and participate in efforts to address the root causes of crime (*South African Police Service Annual Report: 2009-2010*). The members of the organisation are subjected to uphold the values of the SAPS, which are to protect everyone's rights and to be impartial, respectful, open and accountable to the community; use the powers given in a responsible way; provide a responsible, effective and high-quality service with honesty and integrity; evaluate the service continuously to make every effort

to improve on it; ensure the effective, efficient and economic use of resources; develop the skills of all members through equal opportunity; and cooperate with all communities, all spheres of Government and other relevant role-players (*South African Police Service Strategic Plan, 2010-2014*). A Code of Ethics further underpins the way in which every member of the organisation behaves, and has the specific purpose of providing a standard of police behaviour that does not allow any leniency for poor service delivery or corrupt activities by the members of the organisation, as described in the Strategic Plan 2010 to 2014 of the SAPS.

Contemporary examples of poor leadership practices, however, highlight gaps in the ability to deal with policing challenges and are influencing the image of, and community trust, in the leadership of the SAPS (*Independent Complaints Directorate Reports, 1998-2008*). Schafer (2008) mentions that the need for the thinking police leader, who is prepared to examine a problem based on principles, reach a solution which will stand up to moral scrutiny, and meet the practicalities of the situation has never been greater.

The task of the police leader is enormous, adds Isenberg (2006). These leaders are responsible for establishing a vision and mission amidst a constantly changing policing arena. They have to create strategies to implement that vision and mission, build a team that supports the vision, and be accountable for the successful implementation of the vision. Police leaders are responsible for finding solutions to external and internal challenges that may threaten their vision and mission.

Schafer (2008) explains that, although police organisations may vary in their missions, goals and strategies, effective leaders set an example of how to carry out policing. Such leaders embody the tone, tactics and philosophy within the organisation. Murphy and Drodge (2003) also highlight that broad social and cultural changes also require corresponding adjustments in the skills and intelligences required by contemporary police leaders for any specific policing context. As expressed in the *Strategic Plan of the South African Police Service (2010-2014)*, the Chief of Police, National Commissioner Cele, highlights the immense challenges within the large, diverse and complex organisation. He urges that the SAPS has to respond effectively and efficiently to challenges, including crime prevention, investigation and combating, which response needs to be enhanced through the focused development of adequately skilled and well-managed capacities.

The tasks of the police leader include the implementation of policy to guide crime prevention activities; creating a societal consensus on crime prevention; developing and implementing national programmes to address the causes of crime; mobilising community resources, and engaging communities in all crime prevention activities (Artz and Oliveira, 1998). The overarching role of the

police leader in the context of the SAPS (Bruce, 2005) is to manage a basic philosophic tension between two perspectives: the crime prevention approach and the law enforcement approach. The crime prevention approach is based on the notion that crime is caused by social, economic and environmental conditions, and that only by rectifying these problems can crime be addressed. The law enforcement approach is premised on the idea that the best way to reduce crime is by arresting and convicting criminals.

Dobby, Anschombe and Tiffin (2004) explain that improving police leadership is a central plan in the global police reform agenda, and that it is necessary to fulfil strategic visions and priorities. Meade (2002) concurs with Dobby *et al.* (2004), but emphasises that, even though the improvement of the quality of police leadership is essential, the real challenge for each police leader is to accept responsibility in the process of developing themselves, so as to improve their own unique practice as leaders to fulfil their tasks to the best of their ability.

Hamilton (2007) aligns transformative learning theory (based on the work of Mezirow, 1975) to professional development. He explains that transformative learning theory could facilitate the process of problematising an issue, discussing an issue with colleagues, seeking out evidence that informs the resolution of the problem, as well as reflecting and acting on selective improvement strategies. Low and Nelson (2004) mention transformative learning as a learning strategy to build and practice specific skills and competencies, such as constructive thinking, problem solving, goal setting and achievement, stress management and managing change and transitions. Alban-Metcalf and Alimo-Metcalf (2009) further propose whole systems leadership development for a learning organisation, in which the elements of transformative learning could be integrated to stimulate the process of capacitating police leaders to deal with challenges in complex organisations.

This study therefore proposes transformative learning as an integral part of a whole systems leadership development process for police leaders in South Africa. Transformative learning elements were analysed and aligned to discover how these elements could stimulate innovative responses, promote collective action and enable cumulative learning.

1.3 PROBLEM FORMULATION

Significant developments in the SAPS since 1994 include policy shifts, organisational restructuring, a new policing ethos and the development of crime-busting ethos, all designed to put policing in the forefront of South Africa's criminal justice transformation (De Vries, 2008). These developments were intended to: intensify the ability of the SAPS towards ensuring the safety and security of all persons and property in the national territory; uphold and safeguard the fundamental rights of every person;

and ensure co-operation between the Service and the communities it serves in the combating of crime.

The developments were further intended to reflect respect for victims of crime and an understanding of their needs, and ensure effective civilian supervision over the Service (*South African Police Service Act, 1995*). A staff establishment of 192,240 police officers (as recorded in March 2010 in the Strategic Plan 2010 to 2014 of the SAPS) were employed to pursue the integrated tasks of the organisation. The staff complement is divided into numerous capacities, including Visible Policing, Detective Services, Crime Intelligence and the Criminal Record and Forensic Science Services.

Since its transition to democracy, South Africa has gained a reputation as a dangerous country, having one of the highest rates of crime in the world (Mattes, 2006). The National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS), adopted by the South African Government to serve as a framework for a multi-dimensional approach to crime prevention, identified the following underlining factors:

- Crime levels increase during periods of political transition. This observation is based on comparative research conducted in the former Soviet Union and Ireland.
- The new democracy inherited the entire government service, including a racially biased disproportionate distribution of criminal justice resources.
- Insufficient and ill-equipped personnel, combined with outdated systems have contributed to a system that is unable to provide a satisfactory service to all people in South Africa (Schwartz; Schurink & Stanz, 2007).

De Vries (2008) argues that, during this period of transformation when policing had to change from an authoritarian to a democratic style, the transformational issues impacted negatively on the leadership component of the strategic approach. De Vries (2008) continues to say that the problem of inadequate service delivery by the Department of Safety and Security during 1994–2007 had not only been due to a lack of operationalised policies and policy-making capacity, but that the police had been criticised for ineffective leadership and management.

Though effective leadership is a desired commodity within policing, limited scholarly attention has been given to studying the leadership processes and the barriers to developing more efficacious leadership practices (Mastrofski, 2006). Schafer (2008) observes that the field of leadership development is left with a set of noble ideas, but scant validations that such ideas actually develop better police leaders or bring about personal change. A crucial limitation in leadership development processes, Allen (2006) explains, is that there is a need for the inclusion of leadership theory, adult

learning theory and linkage to organisational context. There is also a need for a redesign of leadership training interventions, particularly with a focus on leadership development strategies and alternative delivery methodologies (Ketel, 2005).

Transformative learning has gained prominence in adult education theory (Cranton, 2002). Robertson (1996) mentions that some theorists view transformative learning as an essential element to stimulating development and personal change. Brookfield (2000) explains that transformative learning activities in leadership development process should assist leaders to be involved in fundamental questioning and reordering of how they think or act. Transformative learning activities, he continues, should also assist leaders in thinking critically about, finding and applying the best possible solution to challenging problems experienced in the working environment.

There is therefore a need to develop a conceptual framework for leadership development, rooted in relevant leadership theory aligned with a theory of adult learning, as a foundation to facilitate leadership development processes that could assist police leaders in dealing with complex challenges in the organisation, as well as to stimulate the transformation of police leaders in South Africa.

1.3.1 Research Question

As a result of the above-mentioned motivation and problem formulation, the following research question was developed: How can transformative learning theory enhance the leadership development processes of police leaders within the complex organisational context of the SAPS?

1.3.2 Aim

The aim of this study is to theoretically engage in epistemic reflexivity in order to consider the possible contribution of transformative learning theory in enhancing leadership development for police leaders in a complex and diverse organisation such as the SAPS

1.3.3 Objectives

The following objectives were set for the study:

- to conceptualise theoretical underpinnings of leadership in complex organisations;
- to analyse existing research and reports regarding leadership challenges in the SAPS;
- to conceptualise theoretical underpinnings of leadership development; and
- to conceptualise the theoretical underpinnings of Mezirow's transformative learning theory as a tool to promote adult learning and development in the context of leadership development in the SAPS.

1.4 LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of a literature review is used in the contextualisation of the study to argue a case and to provide an explanation of the concepts in relation to the research findings. These concepts or theories are statements about how things are connected. Theories are created by developing sets of propositions, or generalisations, which establish relationships between things in a systematic way (Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit, 2004).

The aim of this study is to analyse specific theories and establish relationships between them so as to develop a conceptual framework. In the process of analysing theorists' contributions regarding these concepts or theories, conceptualisations and working definitions relevant to this study will be sought. Providing a literature review of these concepts could therefore be premature at this point and result in repetition, as these concepts will be thoroughly analysed in the following chapters. The outcome is a conceptual framework through which the relationships between the theories and concepts are analysed to develop a logical argument in support of the aim of this non-empirical study. The best way to present a literature review, Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004) explains, is to advance an argument. The literature review is therefore integrated in the relevant chapters, as the conceptualisations are used to strengthen the argument within the chapters 2 and 3 – in line with an interpretivist/constructivist theoretical paradigm.

At this stage, therefore, it might be timely to explain how the research process was done at this point and to clarify the chosen research position.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.5.1 Research Design

Research design is defined by Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (1991:21) "as an overall configuration of a piece of research, including what kind of evidence is gathered from where, and how such evidence is interpreted in order to provide good answers to the basic research questions". Any researcher, according to Darroch and Toleman (2006), needs to be grounded in and follow a specific research philosophy; understand the theoretical and philosophical underpinnings of a particular study; search for an identity or research methodology personality; and be positioned within a specific research paradigm within the research landscape.

Caelli, Ray and Mill (2003) quote Lowenberg (1993) to explain that confusion exists in the research methodology between the levels of epistemology, methodology and methods. The concept methodology and method are often used synonymously or in an inconsistent manner. Crotty (1998) concurs with Caelli, Ray and Mill (2003), and provides a scaffolding process to provide the enquirer

with a sense of direction and stability to move towards further understanding, and expounding the research process to suit their own research purposes. Figure 1.2 on the following page is an example of the scaffolding of the research design.

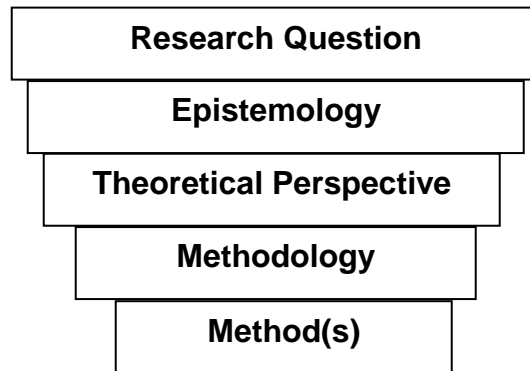


Figure 1.2: Graphical representation of the scaffolding process in research design (adapted from Crotty, 1998)

Berg (2003) gives an interpretation of Crotty’s (1998) scaffolding process, as he explains that there are relationships between the components in the research design: the epistemology, the theoretical perspective, the methodology and the data collection methods. Chapman (2006) mentions that epistemological approaches flow out of the enquirer’s ontological beliefs. Ontology, Schwandt (2000) defines, is the science and study of being or existence, and the basic categories and relationships to determine what and what types of entities exist. Ontologically speaking, the key question would be: What is the essence of reality? In the context of the study, the reality of the current context of leadership and leadership development within the SAPS forms the backdrop against which an enquiry into the theoretical stance of leadership in complex organisations is posed.

Epistemological assumptions primarily exercise a normative function over methodologies, Evers and Lakomski (2000) explain, especially assumptions regarding knowledge justification. Within the scope of the study, the epistemological stance is that knowledge was created through an analysis of theorists’ and other scholars’ reasoning on transformative learning in leadership development processes, and the reality of leadership challenges in the complex adaptive system, in which the example of the context of the SAPS was used.

The interpretivist theoretical perspective will be adopted in this study. This perspective implies that the emphasis is on discovering communicated concepts, and is an approach that, according to Babbie and Mouton (2001), purposefully tries to unravel the reality of the situation within a certain contextual environment.

The reality of the policing challenges that influence the adaption of leadership roles and leadership skills of the police leaders in the SAPS will be analysed. The foundational assumptions of the interpretative paradigm, according to Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004), is that knowledge is gained or filtered through social constructs such as language, consciousness, shared meanings, documents and other artefacts. This non-empirical study draws on the interpretation of documents, which contain researchers' scholarly views and analysis of the reality of the policing situation in South Africa. Theorists' and scholars' contributions regarding leadership; leadership development and transformative learning are also interpreted.

The study is therefore a qualitative enquiry formulated within the post-positivist framework, and draws on the principles of the interpretative perspective as its epistemological position. The chosen research method followed, including data collection methods, will now be explained.

1.5.2 Research Methodology

A qualitative, interpretive and theory-generative approach was selected for the purpose of this study. The nature of the problem investigated suggests that such a qualitative methodological approach would assist in achieving the aim as stated above. Theorising is not merely an imposition of abstract theories upon vacuous conditions, but rather a form of engagement with, and intervention within, the social world (Britzman, 1991:55). Knowledge is a vital component in the human decision-making process and policy formation (Walker and Avant, 1995).

Theory development is the process of creating a language for the specific purpose of explicating and sharing ideas (Chapparo and Ranka, 2005). During the process of generating a theory, the researcher engages in epistemic reflexivity in order to consider an epistemological problem in the social world (Kinsella and Whiteford, 2008). Theory development is therefore a comprehensive term, which subsumes both (a) theory generation (an inductive process) and (b) theory refinement that occurs through testing. Theory construction and theory building are metaphors for theory development. Theory testing implies subjecting a theory to empirical validation (Walker and Avant, 2005). Theory testing was not conducted as part of this study, as this could be useful and more relevant to further studies at a doctorate level.

Theory development frequently begins at the level of concepts and statements, which may be explored in terms of general or more delimited descriptions and explanations (Walker and Avant, 2005). The phases of theory development applied in this study are demonstrated in Figure 1.3 on the following page.

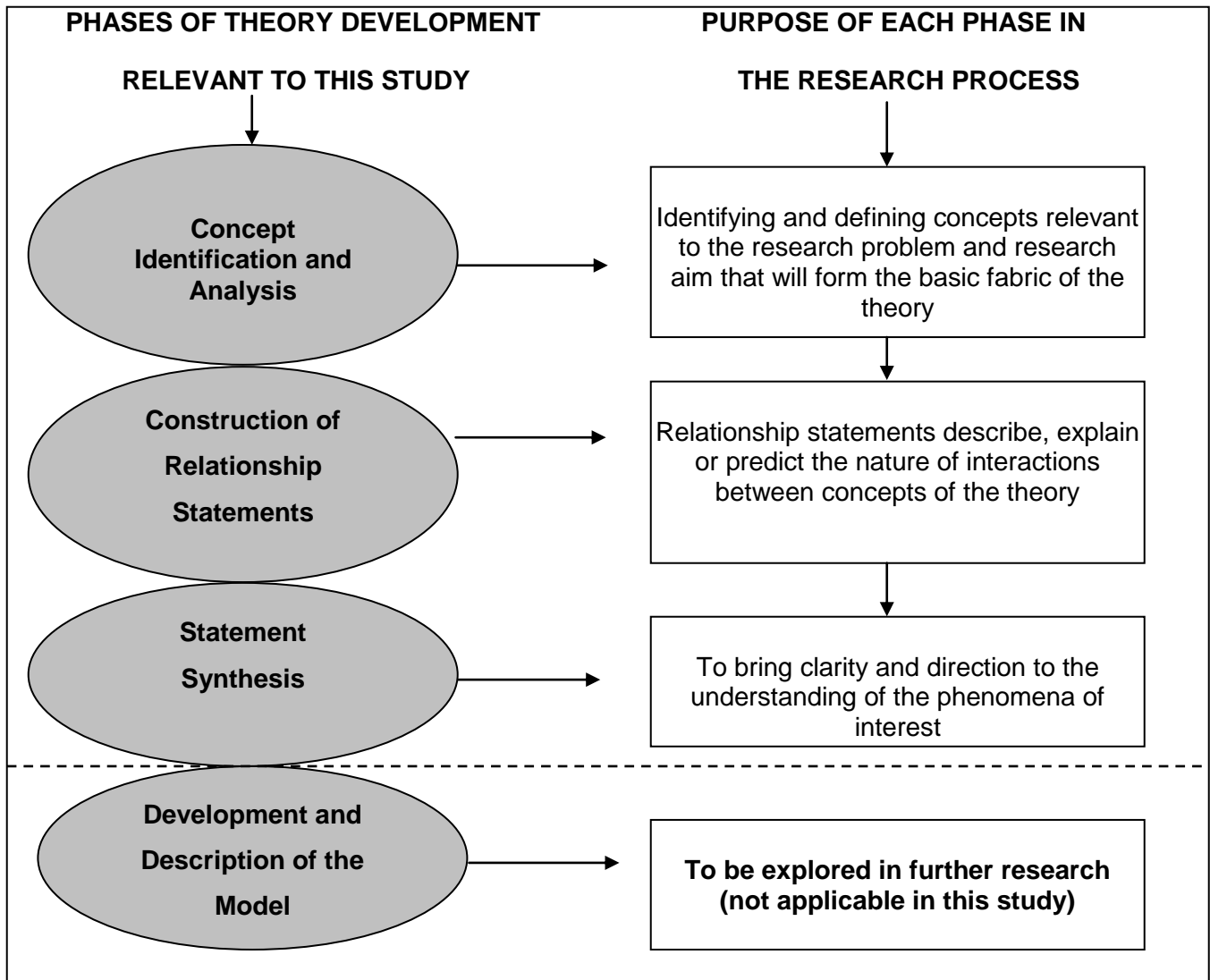


Figure 1.3: Methodological approach applicable to this study (based on the work of Chinn and Kramer, 1999; Walker and Avant, 1995)

In this study, the key concepts were identified, analysed and categorised. Concept analysis is the process of examining the basic elements of a concept. Concept analysis clarifies the symbols (words or terms) used in communication. A list of defining attributes (main features, elements) were then identified and reduced in terms of the essential and related criteria for each term (Williams, Olivier and Pienaar, 2009). The main advantage of concept analysis is that it renders very precise theoretical as well as operational definitions for use in theory and research (Walker and Avant, 2005). These definitions are structured in an orderly manner and positioned in relation to each other, in order to reduce vagueness and make them easier to interpret.

The concepts were thereafter analysed to find a relationship of some kind between two or more concepts. Relationship statements assert either association (correlation) or causality (Walker and Anant, 2005). Such statements are concerned with the type of relationship that exists between the concepts of a theory or model, and predict the nature of the interactions between the concepts (Chinn and Kramer, 1995). They are often viewed as the 'skeleton' or nucleus of the theory, the property whereby everything hangs together (Walker and Avant, 2005). Relationship statements indicate how the concepts are linked and how they should form a whole, as the ideas of the theory interconnect (McKenna, 1997). They are therefore applied in order to structure the concepts into a theoretical system.

The strategies chosen towards theory development most suitable to theorists' purposes involve assessing the 'state of the art' existing knowledge about one's topic of interest. Key articles or references that are up to date and capture the main ideas about the topic of interest, could be used. The integrated strategies in theory development were chosen as best to carefully construct the foundational argument through non-empirical literary-based sources, in which the literature itself becomes the database towards theoretical formulation (Walker and Avant, 2005). This brings us to the question of how data was collected and analysed.

1.6 DATA COLLECTION

Non-empirical data was collected from literary-based sources such as literature reviews, conclusions extracted from interrelated studies, standards of practice and practical guidelines. Documents included books, journals, conference papers, dissertations, parliamentary and government reports, industry and professional publications, the internet, policies and artefacts. Some of the vast amount available of 'grey' literature was also taken into account.

1.6.1 Data Sources and Study Selection

The following databases were consulted over a two year period to obtain data: GoogleScholar; Google Books; WorldCat; Masterfile; Academic OneFile; Business Source Premier; Springerlink; Academic Search Premier; Proquest; Sabinet Online; SAePublications; Proquest; Scirus; ERIC; ArticleFirst; SA Criminal Reports; Government Gazettes. Reference lists of retrieved articles and internet sites were also searched. Key search terms were the following:

- leadership;
- complex organisations;
- leadership theory;
- police leadership;

- South African Police Service;
- challenges in the South African Police Service;
- the South African policing context;
- leadership development;
- adult learning theories;
- transformative learning.

1.6.2 Data Extraction, Inclusion and Synthesis

From each document, relevant to the key concepts, obtained during the data selection phase, information was extracted (**Data Extraction Form - *Annexure 1***) and included, based on the following questions, which served as a guideline for each main construct, as demonstrated in Table 1.1 on the following page:

Table 1.1: Key questions that guided the data extraction and inclusion process aligned with the research problem

DATA EXTRACTION AND INCLUSION PHASE			
The following questions were asked when browsing each article regarding the following topics			
Leadership	Police leadership in the SA context	Leadership development	Transformative learning
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – What is leadership? – How do traditional views of leadership differ from contemporary views? – What is the role of context in leadership? – How does a complex environment change the leadership role? – What skills are needed when leading a complex adaptive system? – What leadership theory is relevant for leadership in complex organisations? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – What is the mandate of the SAPS? – What is the current situation in the South African policing context – What challenges do police leaders face within the South African policing context? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – What does leadership development entail? – What is the aim of leadership development? – What does the leadership development process entail? – What are the different models of leadership development? – What developmental activities are included in a leadership development process? – What learning strategies should be included in a leadership development process? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – What were Mezirow’s (1997) original ideas behind transformative learning? – What is transformative learning? – What are the essential elements in the transformative learning process? – How can transformative learning contribute to learning, change and development of police leaders?
DATA SYNTHESIS PHASE (<i>Data extraction form used as per Annexure 1</i>)			
2050 articles identified	968 articles identified	1412 articles identified	867 articles identified
The articles that were used beyond the identification phase are listed in the bibliography			
<p>The number of articles included were used in the following phases of the research process:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concept identification and analysis to identify a list of defining attributes (main features, elements) of key concepts • to develop a logical argument within the conceptual framework 			

This brings us to how the data was analysed.

1.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis, Strauss and Corbin (1990) state, is the interplay between researcher and data. Berg (2003) provides a step-by-step framework to approaching the data analysis stage of the research process:

- Step 1: Perform a micro analysis of the data.
- Step 2: Interpret the data with questions such as “What is going on here?”
- Step 3: Identify the concepts.
Strauss and Corbin (1998) mention that concepts are an abstract representation of an event, object or action that a researcher identifies as being significant in data.
- Step 4: Group concepts into categories.
- Step 5: Conduct theoretical comparisons to view the phenomenon from different perspective, thus enabling the enquirer to think more deeply about categories, their properties and dimensions.
- Step 6: Theoretical sampling to further define categories along property and dimension lines.
- Step 7: Build a logically detailed case and document findings.

These steps were followed thoroughly during the research process to establish validity and rigour. They were equated to strategies to ensure rigour in the research process, and included investigator responsiveness, methodological coherence, theoretical sampling and sampling adequacy, an active analytical stance and saturation, as proposed by Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson and Spiers (2002).

A conceptual network began to emerge that organised the words and phrases gathered into a meaningful description/explanation. While browsing through the literature, possible groupings of concepts and possible patterns in the data were identified. A list of defining attributes (main features, elements) of key concepts was identified (concept analysis phase). The greater the quantity of paragraphs that were browsed, the clearer some of these groupings/categories became.

The text was analysed on three fundamental levels: the topical level (much along the lines of the topics stated explicitly by the author); the rhetorical level (discursive features of the texts); and the thematic level, as a foundation of presuppositions that underpin the previous two levels (Oancea, 2005). At each level the researcher was able to find a constellation of concepts that appeared to outline the need for transformative learning elements, namely critical thinking, rational discourse and centrality of experience in leadership development interventions of police leaders in the SAPS (construction of relationship statement phase, as described by Walker and Avant, 1995).

While working towards the integration of the findings, it became clear that the analysis would benefit from the complementary use of some other analytical tools, such as the use of 'external' or 'descriptive' categories to guide the study of the discursive features of the texts. During the statement synthesis phase, real patterns that exist in the social world were explored. Statement synthesis was relevant to detect the dimensions of the reality of the challenges in the South African Police Service. A combination of the stages of theory development therefore underlies the definitions, findings and implications that follow in chapters 2, 3 and 4. This brings us to the question of how rigour will be obtained throughout the research process.

1.8 RIGOUR

Rigour, according to Aroni, Goeman, Steward, Sawyer, Abramson and Tein (1999), is the means by which integrity and competence are demonstrated within the epistemology of the research, and a way of demonstrating the legitimacy of the research process, regardless of the paradigm. According to Whittemore, Chase and Mandle (2001), one contemporary dialogue has centred on the difficulty of establishing validity criteria in qualitative research. Validity refers to the appropriateness of the interpretations and actions taken based on the outcome of the research findings in the research process (Johnson and Christensen, 2000). To increase the validity of a study, it should be conducted in a systematic manner with descriptive validity (Schwalbach, 2002). Validity standards are challenging because of the necessity to incorporate rigour and subjectivity, as well as creativity, into the scientific process, Whittemore, Chase and Mandle (2001) argue. Rigour was established in this study through the systematic analysis and comparison of various data sources. This is referred to as triangulation.

Triangulation is a validity procedure whereby researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study (Cresswell and Miller, 2000). Validity is not inherent in a particular method, but pertains to the data, accounts or conclusions reached by using that method in particular contexts for a particular purpose (Whittemore, Chase and Mandle, 2001). Cresswell and Miller (2000) explain that triangulation can be achieved through providing corroborating evidence or data that has been collected through multiple methods, such as observations, interviews and documents to locate major or minor themes. Triangulation, in this study, was obtained through the analysis of non-empirical literature from various sources to differentiate between empirical and non-empirical applications, and to obtain the diverse information available regarding the research problem and topic under study.

Kitto, Chesters and Grbich (2008) differentiate between procedural, interpretative and reflexive rigour. They explain that procedural or methodological rigour concerns the transparency or explicitness of the

description of the way the research was conducted. Interpretative rigour, they say, relates to the demonstration of the data or evidence in an attempt to increase reliability and validity of the study. Reflexivity, Kitto, Chesters and Grbich (2008) continue, refers to the researchers' awareness of the social setting of the research and of the wider social contexts in which it is placed. In the study, procedural and interpretative rigour were established by the thoroughness with which the steps in conducting the research process through the theory development stages were done. The authors' immersion in, and practical understanding of, the SAPS and its current leadership challenges provided reflexive rigour.

1.9 TRANSFERABILITY

Chiovitti and Piran (2002) explain that transferability, also referred to as 'fittingness', pertains to the probability with which the findings of the research could have meaning to others in similar situations or contexts. Transferability of research findings depends on the degree of the similarity between the original situation and the situation to which it is transferred. Leadership development is applicable to a range of contexts due to its importance within the organisational context. The research findings of this particular study might therefore add value not just to the SAPS, but also to leadership in other military or para-military complex adaptive systems or organisations.

1.10 DATA PRESENTATION

This study is divided into four parts. An overview of the chapter breakdown is hereby provided:

- Orientation to the research, including a background to the SAPS leadership context (Chapter 1).
- Leadership and leadership development in complex organisations (Chapter 2).
- Transformative learning as a tool to enhance leadership development of police leaders to deal with leadership challenges in the SAPS (Chapter 3).
- Synthesis and implications for theory, policy and practice (Chapter 4).

1.11 LIMITATIONS

Criticism of the research method has implied that theory development could be positivistic, reductionist and rigid, and also requires a correspondence of truth (Gift, 1995). Theory development, however, offers defensible interpretations of multiple realities of interest, or provides practitioners with an adequate and holistic knowledge base from which to practice (Avant, 1991) and could be useful and relevant in the context of this study.

The study is limited to the analysis of non-empirical evidence by means of the three steps proposed in Figure 1.3. It may therefore not be assumed that the findings that result from this study can be generalised for leadership development at other public organisations. The study is furthermore of a non-empirical nature. The findings are presented in the form of a conceptual framework that will need to be tested in practice in future research. The study therefore will not make empirically tested claims or generalisations within the context of the SAPS.

1.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical disciplinary knowledge is developed when moral-ethical comportment as expressed in practice is questioned. The questions, “Is this right?” And “Is this responsible?” engage the processes of valuing and clarifying. From these processes ethical knowledge forms, including principles and codes, can be examined by members of the discipline by using the disciplinary processes of dialogue and justification. Ultimately, ethical knowledge is expressed as integrated moral and ethical comportment (Chinn and Kramer, 1999). The arguments posed in this thesis were subjected to these questions to produce an ethical perspective. Furthermore formal ethical clearance was not necessary as the study was of a non-empirical nature.

1.13 CONCLUSION

Strategic plans highlight leadership development as one of the key priorities of the SAPS. Examples of poor leadership practices, however, accentuate the need for leadership development processes that could stimulate transformation in police leaders. Police leaders are dealing with tremendous challenges in the police working environment. The leadership role seems to be more complex than that of a leader in a small business enterprise. Generic leadership development initiatives therefore seem inadequate to building capacity in complex adaptive systems such as large organisations that are influenced by both the internal and external pressures of a global society.

Leadership needs to be analysed in context. The study therefore aims to develop a conceptual framework to propose specific leadership development processes that could assist police leaders in complex organisations in dealing with the problems and challenges they face in their daily police leadership tasks. The next chapter will analyse leadership in complex organisations to develop the necessary conceptual framework. This may be used to assess leadership needs with an aim to proposing appropriate leadership development processes for leaders, such as those in the SAPS.

Chapter 2

Leadership and Leadership Development in Complex Organisations

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership represents a crucial determinant of police organisational efficacy. Moving towards domains of leadership, however, requires that police organisations develop definitions of what effective leadership means within their own communities and policing contexts (Schafer, 2008). Whether leadership in policing is truly different to leadership in other contexts or not, there is a strong belief that the pressures and constraints in policing make this process unique, argues Blair (2003).

This chapter aims to analyse scholarly definitions of leadership in order to formulate a working definition for leadership in complex organisations relevant to this study. Leadership processes usually take place within a system or performance setting. Theorists and scholars views regarding a performance setting such as a complex adaptive system will therefore be investigated in this chapter. Building blocks that emerge from the literature review relevant to leadership in complex organisations will thereafter be explored. The aim of the above-mentioned elements of the discussion will be to develop a conceptual framework for leadership in complex organisations (in this case the SAPS) to highlight key aspects relevant to dealing with leadership challenges in complex organisations. The outline of the chapter is illustrated in Figure 2.1 below.

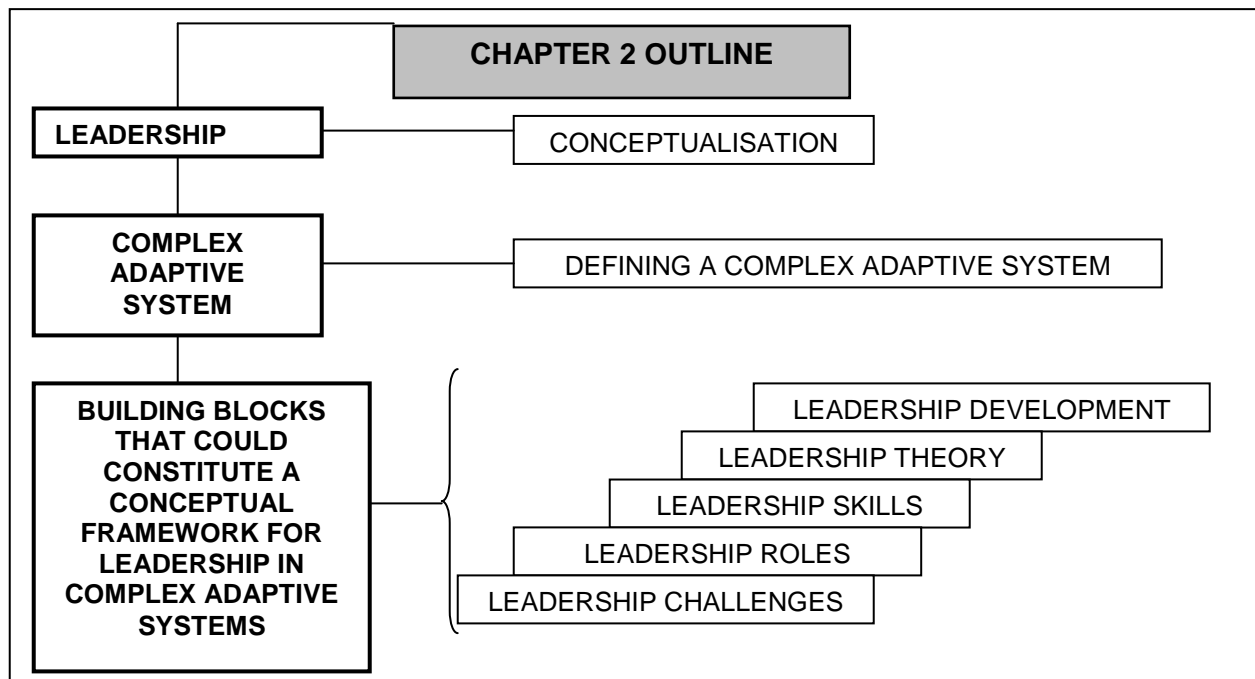


Figure 2.1: A schematic outline of Chapter 2

An exploration of theorists and scholarly perceptions regarding the conceptualisation of leadership could be useful at this stage, as indicated in the schematic outline above.

2.2 CONCEPTUALISATION: LEADERSHIP

Is leadership only about an individual with vision influencing or leading a group to achieve goals, or is there more to leadership than described in the traditional definitions of leadership? An analysis of contemporary leadership definitions emphasises a more holistic perspective on leadership, and tends to align effective leadership with improved organisational performance. Cummings and Worley (2001) explain that leadership is a critical element and influence in an organisational environment or performance system, due to the four significant domains that leadership could affect, namely the strategic/organisational goals and objectives; the work processes; interdependent social subsystems and the individual in such an organisation. Lynham and Thomas (2006) concur that, because of the influence leadership has on such performance systems, there is a need for a more integrative theoretical framework and definition of leadership.

Leadership is an essential driving force to achieving the vision and mission of any organisation. Northouse (1997) defines leadership as a process whereby individuals are able to influence other individuals to achieve or reach commonly desired outcomes. Lynham and Thomas (2006) expand this definition to an interactive, interdependent and focused performance system, wherein continuous interaction; influence; dialogue and discussions regarding organisational procedures, performance outcomes, inputs, processes, outputs and feedback takes place within a learning environment.

Other theorists and researchers' perspectives on leadership also need to be taken into account so as to understand the crux of what leadership entails. Prentice (2005) includes the importance of purpose as rationale for leadership in a learning organisation, and describes leadership as the accomplishment of a goal with the assistance of the human element. Kotter (2001) concurs with Prentice (2005), and says that leadership is the ability to create visions and strategies and energise people to achieve set visions so as to produce change within the organisation. The importance of the human element is also accentuated by Heifetz and Linsky (2004), as they highlight leadership as being the ability to influence and mobilise individuals identified with specific skills to discuss and complete specific tasks in order to achieve results. Dorbrzanska (2005) further mentions the human element as being key in such relations, since leadership is seen as the ability to express and channel human autonomy.

Leadership also consists of a process initiated by a group of key stakeholders. Such a process is initiated for the purpose of achieving goals and objectives. Goals and objectives are integrated into the

leadership roles that contribute to leadership being a catalyst that changes or transforms individuals' potential into action (Vandeever, 2006).

Hever (2005) contributes to the dialogue about the concept of leadership, highlighting theorists evolving perceptions of the concept of leadership over the years, as illustrated in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: The Evolution of Leadership from 1995–2005 (adapted from Hever, 2005:28)

Leading Authors in the Evolution of Leadership					
	Yukl (1998)	Daft (2002)	Barker (1996)	Collier and Esteban (2000)	Hever (2005)
Contribution to Leadership Theory	Leadership as influence exercised by an individual in a specialised role seeking to direct group purpose and the implementation of change accordingly.	Leadership as a mutual influence process between leaders and followers who seek change in accordance with shared purposes.	Leadership as a dynamic, mutual relationship effecting compromises between group members seeking to identify shared values and purpose, intending change and appointing varying group members to leader roles as appropriate.	Leadership as an adaptive and innovative capability whereby the organisation responds creatively to its environment while maintaining its deep purpose and integrity.	Leadership as a dynamic, mutual relationship effecting compromises between group members, intending change, appointing varying group members to leader roles as appropriate, seeking to identify shared purposes and values, finding organisational direction, and developing a systemic capability diffused throughout the organisation, of responsiveness to the environment, and the maintenance of internal integrity of purpose.

All five contributions emphasise the influential role of relationships in leadership, which marks a shift from the leader-follower paradigm to an interactive, dynamic group effort to achieve the broader purposes of the organisation. The shift might have originated in the realisation that organisations do not function as separate entities, but instead within complex societies. The power of collaboration,

common vision and shared responsibilities within a learning organisation to develop proactive strategies to achieve strategic and operational goals seems to outweigh individual attempts to lead the organisation in the current day and age, where organisations are increasingly subject to complex and demanding environments. A working definition for the purpose of the study to conceptualise leadership may therefore be:

Leadership is the interactive, dynamic performance system directed towards achieving the common vision and predefined goals through shared dialogue, reflection, collaborative learning and development within a performance setting.

The reality regarding such performance settings seems to be that they are subject to diverse variables within the internal and external environment that might influence the effectiveness of the way the leadership tasks and roles are performed; leadership theory is adapted and leadership skills required. Context, Drath, McCauley, Palus, Van Velsor, O'Connor and McGuire (2008) explain, is taken as a more or less independent element that affects leaders, followers and their interactions. The world is becoming more interconnected due to the interdependent global society, Lane and Down (2010) argue, thus creating new conflicts within performance systems. It is therefore imperative that leaders are prepared for complex and turbulent times and situations. Lane and Corrie (2006) and Stacey (2007) further express the need to understand how to deal with unpredictable outcomes and the non-linear relationships that characterise complex adaptive systems. This brings us to the question: what is a complex adaptive system?

2.3 DEFINING A COMPLEX ADAPTIVE SYSTEM (CAS)

Martinez (2008) argues that a holistic understanding of complex systems is often difficult, since systems are creative, ever-changing and do not easily yield to prediction or control. This adds to the incompressibility of the knowledge of systems, Richardson (2008) emphasises, as a system cannot be represented accurately in anything less than a representation of the whole system because whatever is omitted might have non-linear and thus unpredictable and disproportionately large effects. Holism, Drath, McCauley, Palus, Van Velsor, O'Connor and McGuire (2008) explain, is the doctrine that the whole of any phenomenon is greater than the sum of its parts. The whole cannot thus be understood through an exclusive focus on the parts, they continue; therefore holistic principles need to be applied to understand the complex system.

Martinez (2008) agrees that complexity argues for a more holistic understanding of systems. A holistic approach to systems, he says, could add sufficient cognitive complexity to respond and adapt to diverse and changing environmental and internal stimuli since, from the perspective of complexity,

individuals, teams, organisations and societies must have enough variety in their cognitive frameworks to be able to adapt to a range of circumstances. A worldview consistent with complexity, Scharmer (2007) argues, could assist in embracing uncertainty and change as opportunity, learning from diverse points of view, and tolerating differences.

Levy (1992: 7-8) describes a complex system as 'one whose component parts interact with sufficient intricacy that they cannot be predicted by standard linear equations; so many variables are at work in the system that its over-all behaviour can only be understood as an emergent consequence of the holistic sum of the myriad behaviours embedded within'. Reductionism, he continues, does not work in complex systems, and a purely reductionist approach cannot be applied due to the complex emerging behaviours, characteristics and challenges within such a system. There is a paradigm shift away from linear, mechanistic views where simple cause-and-effect solutions are sought to explain physical and social phenomena, add Regine and Lewin (2000), towards a perspective of the system as non-linear and organic, characterised by uncertainty and unpredictability. In such systems, Lichtenstein, Marion, Seers, Orton and Schreiber (2006) mention, relationships are not defined hierarchically primarily, but rather by interactions among heterogeneous agents and across agent networks.

A CAS comprises of agents and individuals, as well as groups of individuals, who 'resonate' through sharing common interests, knowledge and/or goals due to their history of interaction and sharing of worldviews, Lichtenstein *et al.* (2006) continue. Martinez (2008) integrates theorists views with his comprehensive definition of a CAS when he defines such a system as being a dynamic, highly dispersed and decentralised network of many agents (which may represent cells, species, individuals, firms, nations) acting in parallel, constantly acting and reacting to what other agents are doing. He continues that the overall behaviour of a system is the result of a huge number of decisions made every moment by individual agents.

According to Goldstein, Richardson, Allen and Snowden (2006), such systems are characterised by interactions and networks, emergence, adaptive innovations and paradigm shifts. His explanations of each are integrated into Figure 2.2, as provided on the following page.

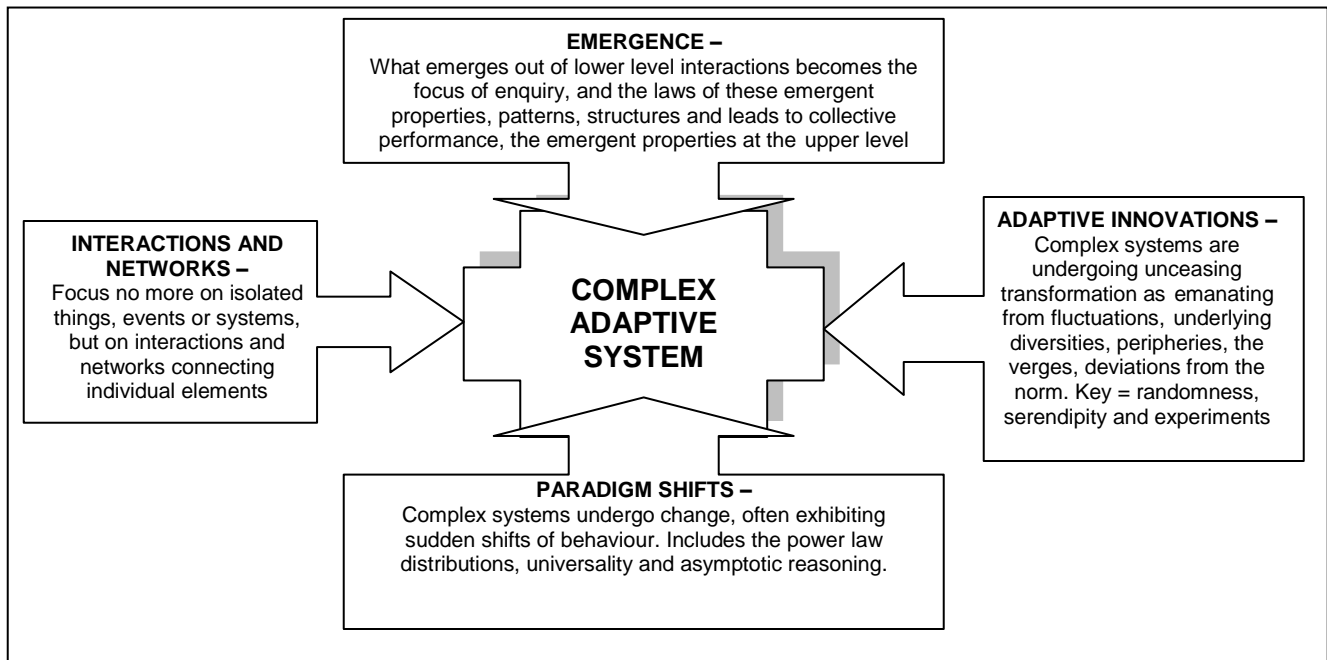


Figure 2.2: Characteristics of a complex adaptive system (based on the work of Goldstein, Richardson, Allen and Snowden, 2006)

In complex systems, Lichtenstein and Plowman (2009) explain, mutual influence, interactions and networks, paradigm shifts and adaptive innovations are essential and necessary for survival. They elaborate that agents are in constant interaction exchanging information, learning and adapting their behaviour in locally coherent ways. The concept of CAS is attractive to leadership and organisational scholars, Boal and Schultz (2007) say, because it shows that surprising and innovative behaviours can emerge from the interaction of groups of agents, seemingly without the necessity of centralised control.

Emergent behaviours and structures are also produced by a combination of micro dynamic (correlation, interaction and randomness) and macro dynamic forces, according to Marion and Uhl-Bein (2001). Micro dynamics, they continue, represent the bottom-up behaviours that occur when individuals interact, leading to both coordinated behaviour and random behaviour, whereas macro dynamics represent the emergence of the larger systems from the interactions at the micro level. These unanticipated emergences of new higher-level systemic patterns or structures functioning according to new laws and consisting of new properties, says Jay (2004), further characterise complex systems.

An analysis of theorists' definitions and characteristics of a CAS could result in a working definition for this study that defines a CAS as

‘an integrative, dynamic and systemic framework consisting of decentralised networks, mechanisms, agents and individuals bonding in a collective dynamic by common need, which often results in adaptive innovations, collective learning, paradigm shifts and complexly adaptive emergent forces to produce innovative responses to complex problems.’

Lichtenstein *et al.* (2006) propose that a complex systems perspective introduces new leadership logic to leadership theory and research by understanding leadership in terms of an emergent event as a result of micro and macro dynamics, rather than a person. Marion (1999) agrees and adds that the CAS perspective recognises that leaders cannot control the future (e.g. determinism) because in complex systems such as organisations, unpredictable (and sometimes unexplainable) internal dynamics will determine future conditions. This brings us to need to develop a conceptual framework for leadership in complex organisations, and it could therefore be relevant to answer the following question: what building blocks could constitute a conceptual framework for leadership in complex organisations?

2.4 LEADERSHIP IN COMPLEX ORGANISATIONS

In order to develop a conceptual framework for leadership in complex organisations derived from non-empirical sources, scholars and theorists’ viewpoints regarding the essential elements of leadership in complex organisation need to be analysed. The result, which emerged during the conceptual analysis stage of the applied research method, is the combination of building blocks that constitute such a conceptual framework. Each of these building blocks will therefore be explored in an attempt to find the relevance and role thereof in a complex organisation, which exploration follows below.

Traditional leadership views portray the individualised leader influence, Osborn, Hunt and Jauch (2002) says, but accentuates that this view should be challenged. Leadership is not only the incremental influence of a boss toward his/her subordinates (such as in a small business enterprise), he continues, but is the collective incremental influence of leaders in and around a system, which connects individual behaviours with organisational contexts, thus revealing far richer dynamics of interdependence and influence. Rather than influence being directional, Osborn and Hunt (2007) highlight, influence behaviours between micro-behaviours and macro-context may be determined in some sense by their context.

A paradigm shift in our understanding and practice of leadership is required to meet twenty-first century challenges, Martinez (2008) argues, as she endorses the exploration of a view of leadership that is emergent, collaborative as well as competitive, complex, and captures the dynamic outcomes

of interdependencies among many agents in the CAS. New approaches to leadership acknowledge the growing sentiment that traditional models of leadership are insufficient for understanding the dynamic, distributed and contextual nature of leadership in organisations, McKelvey (2008) explains. Therefore, it seems as if there is a need to explore the building blocks that could constitute leadership in complex organisations.

Five themes that emerge from leadership literature in the process of following concept analysis that could serve as building blocks for a conceptual framework in this study were the following: leadership challenges; leadership roles; leadership skills; leadership development and leadership theory. Traditional leadership theories, generic leadership tasks and roles, leadership skills required seemed inadequate, however, with the realisation that, as Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) describe, leaders are not 'in control' due to inevitable, uncontrolled processes that emerge from complex interactive forces in complex organisations. The dynamics and reality of leadership in complex adaptive systems need to be explored in order to understand the roles of leaders in complex organisations, which inform the leadership skills needed to deal with leadership challenges (this will be further discussed in chapter 3). These building blocks are illustrated in Figure 2.3 below.

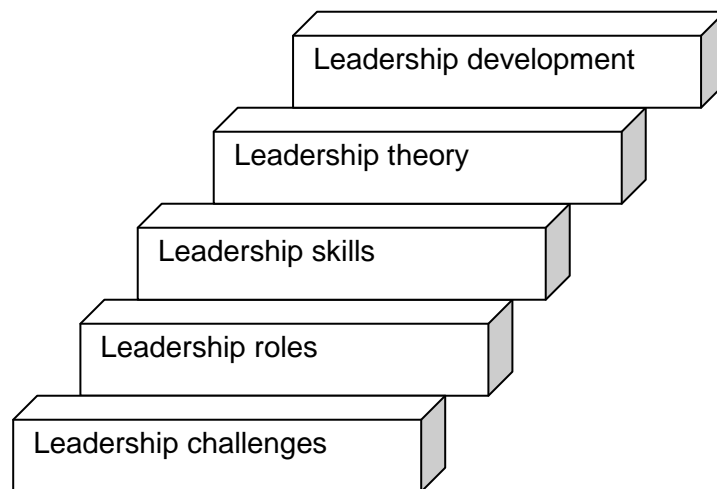


Figure 2.3: Building blocks for a conceptual framework for leadership in complex adaptive systems

It might be relevant to briefly analyse each of the building blocks that emerge from the study to see how each of these could be relevant, in a CAS, to dealing with leadership challenges in the SAPS. The concept of leadership challenges, although identified as a building block, needs intensive exploration, and will therefore be discussed in Chapter 3. In order to deal with leadership challenges, the police leader needs to adapt specific leadership roles, skills and development processes based on leadership theory, which will now be explored.

2.4.1 Leadership Roles in Complex Organisations

There is no shortage in leadership literature of ideas related to what leadership roles are essential for leaders to assume in any organisation. It is, however, imperative to analyse these in relation to the challenges faced in complex organisations such as the SAPS. Examples of such proposed roles, of which some still relate to traditional views of leadership where all the roles are centralised in an individual, are presented in the example provided in Figure 2.4 below.

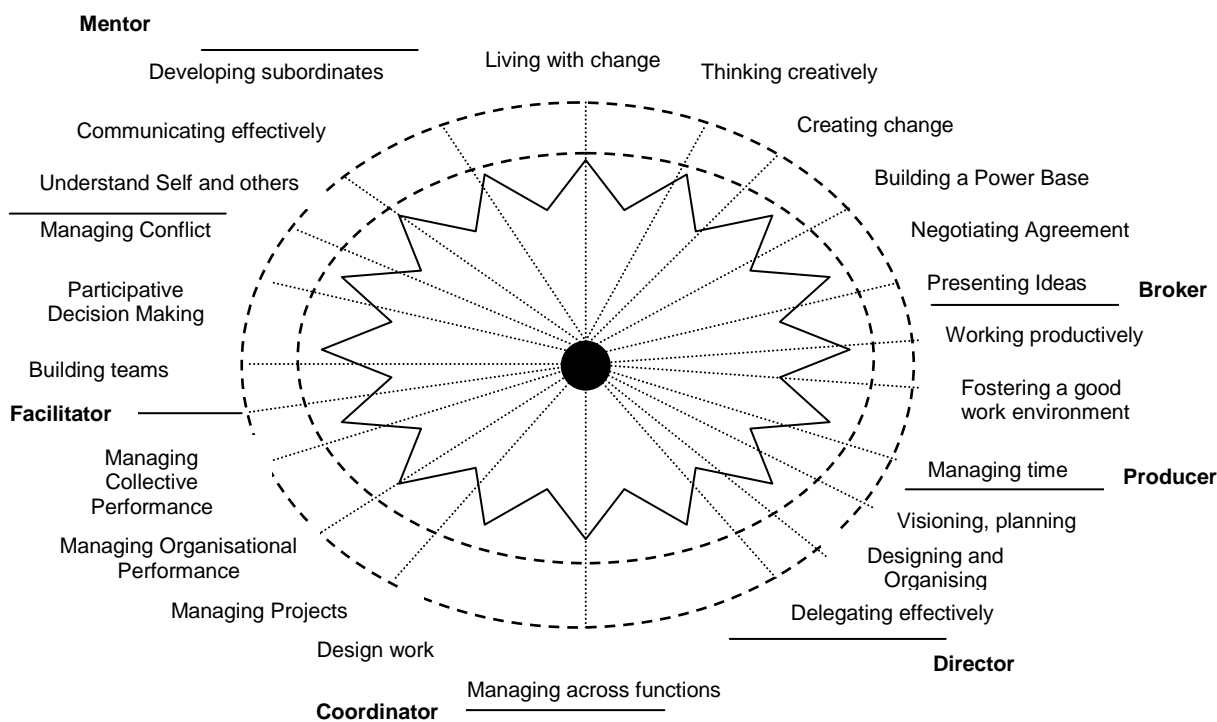


Figure 2.4: Generic leadership roles in organisations (adapted from Ladyshevsky, 2007:435)

Current global trends and challenges necessitate the assumption of leadership roles not necessarily displayed by an individual, but by a team in various situations, explain Appelbaum and Pease (2003). Traditional, generic leadership roles cannot haphazardly be applied in all circumstances, say Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004), since roles should be aligned with leadership competencies and skills essential to accomplishing critical tasks such as dealing with problems, setting direction, creating alignment, and gaining commitment. Roles therefore need to be developed in alignment with 'real world' leadership and business challenges, he argues. Leaders who transition from operational to strategic leadership must assume these roles, which describes the 'what' of leadership, to achieve long term strategic results and effectively deal with the situations and challenges they must face, add Appelbaum and Pease (2003).

A new, more updated list of key roles, aligned to real world challenges, are therefore provided in Table 2.2 on the following page. Such roles force leadership to display a higher level of maturity in dealing creatively with increasing complexity, uncertainty, diversity, and number of paradoxes, accentuates Gauthier (2005).

Table 2.2: Leadership roles for leaders in complex organisations (adapted from Gauthier, 2005:7)

LEADERSHIP ROLE	DESCRIPTION	TASK
Navigator	Clearly and quickly works through the complexity of key issues, problems and opportunities to affect actions (e.g. leverage opportunities and resolve issues)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifies root causes quickly • Displays a keen sense of priority, relevance and significance • Integrates information from a variety of sources and detects trends, associations and cause-effect relationships • Creates relevant options for addressing problems and opportunities, and achieves desired outcomes • Translates complex situations into simple, meaningful explanations that others can grasp • Provides others with a relevant context for work • Overcomes personal and organisational biases in looking at data; avoids 'not the way we do it here' thinking
Strategist	Develops a long-range course of action or set of goals to align with the organisation's vision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continuously looks beyond the current year • Perceives what drives the business • Uses financial data for a successful business • Grasps big-picture, enterprise-wide issues across boundaries • Recognises risks and pursues actions that have acceptable levels of risk
Entrepreneur	Identifies and exploits opportunities for new products, services and markets	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Takes calculated risks to capitalise on emerging trends • Looks beyond the boundaries of the organisation for new growth opportunities (partnerships, new technologies, applications) • Turns threats (from competitors, government policies, and new technologies) into organisational opportunities
Mobiliser	Proactively builds and aligns stakeholders, capabilities, and resources for getting things done quickly and achieving complex objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leverages and integrates the capabilities of resources across all levels of the organisation to accomplish complex, multiple-level objectives • Anticipates and diffuses roadblocks to desired goals • Uses necessary and appropriate lobbying techniques to gain support for actions from decision-makers • Utilises creative networking approaches to identify contacts who can help in attaining goals • Develops alternative/contingency plans • Empowers others relative to achieving the strategy
Talent Advocate	Attracts, develops, and retains talent to ensure that people with the right skills and motivations to meet organisational needs are in the right place at the right time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relentlessly identifies and secures high-potential talent • Identifies the best people (internal and external), gets to know them, and stays in touch with them • Links development assignments to current and future needs of the organisation • Increases readiness of high-potential talent by providing developmental opportunities • Minimises barriers to achievement; maximises the individual's likelihood for success • Builds and facilitates a culture that embraces development • Promotes employee retention by analysing and understanding its drivers
Captivator	Builds passion and commitment toward a common goal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conveys a simple, vivid picture of the organisation's vision and goals • Moves people from compliance to commitment • Instils others with a strong sense of belonging • Generates energy and enthusiasm through personal passion conviction • Keeps the message alive and ongoing
Global Thinker	Integrates information from all sources to develop a well-informed, diverse team	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Considers the implications of issues, decisions and opportunities beyond the boundaries of own country and culture • Understands the different perspectives and approaches in order to effectively handle cross-cultural challenges and individual differences • Identifies opportunities for global leverage
Enterprise Guardian	Ensures shareholder value through courageous decision-making that supports enterprise or unit-wide interests	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refuses to trade long-term for short-term • Possesses the courage to make difficult decisions in times of success • Objectively upholds the interests of the organisation • Takes responsibility for unpopular decisions and their aftermath
Change Driver	Creates an environment that embraces change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sees the possibility for change • Recognises the need for change before it becomes critical • Sells ideals for change • Funds and supports the implementation of change

It is essential to note that these roles could be executed at different times, as the need arises, and at diverse stages of dealing with organisational challenges or implementation of the vision, mission and organisational goals, and that the emphasis is not necessarily on a leader being the focus, but on leadership as a whole. This, Graetz (2000) says, shifts the paradigm away from a traditional, hierarchical, top-down leadership viewpoint to an understanding that, to deal with complex challenges requires team effort, not necessarily in a formal capacity. Emergent leadership is the construct through which he describes this type of leadership, and adds three further enacted roles, namely those of initiator, scheduler and integrator.

Roles describe the various contexts in which clusters of competencies are applied at various levels, and competencies describe behaviourally specific skills and abilities that impact effectiveness in those leadership contexts – and both competencies and roles are important to effectively capture aspects of leadership behaviour, explains Appelbaum and Pease (2003). An analysis of leadership competencies or skills required to deal with leadership challenges in complex organisations is herewith presented.

2.4.2 Leadership Skills Needed by Leadership in Complex Organisations

The second theme that emerged from leadership literature, which is imperative to deal with leadership challenges in any organisation, is the leadership skills that are aligned to leadership roles. Fry and Kriger (2005) highlight that there needs to be a correlation between leadership roles and leadership skills and competencies in order to cultivate and reflect a dynamic relationship between the administrative functions of the organisation and the emergent, informal dynamics of complex adaptive systems.

Against the backdrop of increasing globalisation, deregulation, and the rapid change of technological innovation, the primary task of leaders includes leadership of organisational change, adds Graetz (2000). With the emphasis now on cooperation, collaboration and communication, leaders need to hone a completely different range of leadership skills, he accentuates. Gauthier (2005) concurs, stating that, as worldviews evolve from simple to complex, static to dynamic and ego-centric to world-centric, so leaders' set of required skills now includes autonomy, freedom, tolerance for difference and ambiguity, as well as flexibility, dialogue, reflection and an ability to interact with the environment.

Leadership effectiveness cannot be built exclusively around controlling the future, say Marion and Uhl-Bien (2001); rather, it depends on being able to foster interactive conditions that enable a productive future. Regine and Lewin (2000), however, question the ability to foster interactive conditions if the leaders' behaviour does not shape such a foreseeable desired future, or if leadership skills and competencies to shape such a future are lacking. It is imperative, therefore, that consideration needs

to be given as to what skills leaders need to draw on to enable them to perform their new roles within more complex organisations, Snyman (2007) accentuates.

Expertise and complex problem-solving skills alone are, not sufficient for effective organisational leadership, say Mumford, Marks, Connely, Zaccaro and Reiter-Palmon (2000). Leaders must also be able to revise and implement solutions while taking into account the demands of the organisation, they explain. Snyman (2007) proposes that leaders need to know what skills they need and be able to consciously use them. Tapping into the power lines is how Bourne (2004) describes it, which, according to him, is skills focused upon understanding the nature of the power source that drives large, complex organisations, and knowing how to effectively harness this energy within the organisation. Snyman (2007) concurs with Bourne (2004), and differentiates between business/technical skills and intangible or unconscious skills.

Martinez (2008) analyses leaders in complex organisations, and proposes that, apart from the normal list of skills required, as Snyman (2007) listed and divided, to deal with complex problems in complex adaptive systems, leaders need the following further key skills and capabilities, which are compatible with an emergent perspective and the alternative leadership framework:

- *Sufficient cognitive ability* to reconcile multiple and diverse mental frameworks;
- *Sufficient cognitive complexity* to respond and adapt to diverse and changing environmental and internal stimuli. From the perspective of complexity, individuals, teams, organisations and societies must have enough variety in their cognitive frameworks to adapt to a range of circumstances;
- A subset of the previous capability is to have a *high degree of self-awareness*, including emotional awareness, enabling the entity (whether an individual, organisation or society) to be able to identify the assumptions being brought to particular settings and understand the limits of their application;
- A *worldview consistent with complexity*, that is, embracing uncertainty and change as opportunity, learning from diverse points of view and tolerating differences;
- Enhanced capabilities for mutual feedback and power sharing;
- An *ability to recognise emergent patterns* in both social and physical systems;
- An *ability to harness collective intelligence* by working in an inclusive, collaborative way to grow communities of trust, including the ability to encourage conversation, enhance connections to share information and support mutual sense-making;

- An *understanding of sense-making and learning processes* and how they contribute to an organisation's capability for innovation and adaption, and ultimately for timely action at the individual, team, organisational and societal level.

Mumford, Marks, Connely, Zaccaro and Reiter-Palmon's (2000) list is aligned to what Snyman (2007) proposes. Those skills, listed by them, that are not present in Snyman's (2007) list, and which could be useful for this study to strengthen the argument, are provided in Table 2.3 below:

Table 2.3: Skills derived from leadership needs to address leadership challenges in complex organisations (adapted from Mumford, Marks, Connely, Zaccaro and Reiter-Palmon, 2000:94)

Skills	Targeted constructs
Complex Problem Solving	Problem-construction, information coding, category search, best-fitting categories, combination and reorganisation, idea evaluation, solution implementation, monitoring
Social Construction	Time frame of goals, attention to restrictions, self-oriented goals, organisational goals
Social Judgement	Self-reflectivity, self-objectivity, judgement under certainty, solution fit, systems perception, systems commitment
Creative Thinking	Realism of consequences, complexity, time span, positive and negative consequences, principle-based, positive outcome sensitivity, negative outcome sensitivity
Leadership Expertise	Principle-based knowledge structures, organisation, coherence of knowledge categories, consistency with existing leader activity taxonomy

These leadership skills and competencies need to be developed through leadership development initiatives, the third theme that emerged in the research process, which could be relevant to discuss briefly at this point, together with an analysis of leadership theory as the fourth building block in the conceptual framework for leadership in complex organisations.

2.4.3 Leadership Theory Relevant to Leaders in Complex Organisations

Allen (2006) explains that, to develop leadership, the leadership development process should be rooted in leadership theory. From Allen's (2006) statement, it can be derived that leadership theory is an essential element to consider when planning leadership development interventions, and could even serve as a roadmap for leadership development initiatives. Bolden, Gosling, Marturano and Dennison (2003) also concur that the common denominator of leadership research, whether explicit or implicit, is the leadership theories. There is, however, a noticeable lack of integration of theory in much leadership development work, Riggio (2008) highlights.

Theory of leadership provides those studying and practicing leadership with a specific guide or orientation; a set of universal principles that can be adapted to different situations, says Hill (2006). These theories are an easily comprehensible, continuous series of events: a tree of knowledge leading into the present, underpinning all research, model development and application, Bolden, *et al.* (2003) continue.

Leadership theory over the past eighty years has undergone a multitude of changes and differences by evoking explanations employing models of creation, consciousness and evolution, according to Smart (1992). Mortimer (2009) provides an overview of the change in the focus of the leadership theory over time. The emphasis, he accentuates, changed in shifts from developing 'leaders' to developing learning organisations with a collective responsibility for leadership. Lichtenstein and Plowman (2009) highlight that the majority of leadership theory focuses on dyadic influence, primarily in the supervisor-subordinate relationship, and was developed and served as basis for leadership discourse before the realisation that a meso-model of leadership connects individual behaviours with organisational contexts, thus revealing far richer dynamics of interdependence and influence. An illustration of the primary leadership theories and their foci are demonstrated in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4: Evolvement of leadership theories over the decade (adapted from Mortimer, 2009:8)

Leadership Theory	Focus
Great Man Theories	Based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead. The use of the term 'man' was intentional since, until the latter part of the twentieth century, leadership was thought of as a concept that is primarily male, military and Western. This led to the next school of Trait Theories.
Trait Theories	The list of traits or qualities associated with leadership exists in abundance and continues to be produced. They draw on virtually all the adjectives in the dictionary that describe some positive or virtuous human attribute, from ambition to zest for life.
Behaviourist Theories	These concentrate on what leaders actually do rather than on their qualities. Different patterns of behaviour are observed and categorised as 'styles of leadership'. This area has probably attracted the most attention from managers.
Situational Leadership	This approach sees leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. For example, while some situations may require an autocratic style, others may need a more participative approach. It also proposes that there may be differences in required leadership styles at different levels in the same organisation.
Contingency Theory	This is a refinement of the situational viewpoint, and focuses on identifying the situational variables that best predict the most appropriate or effective leadership style to fit the particular circumstances.
Transactional Theory	This approach emphasises the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of 'contract' through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers.
Transformational Theory	The central concept here is change and the role of leadership in envisioning and implementing the transformation or organisational performance.

Uhl-Bien, Marion and McKelvey (2007) concur with Lichtenstein and Plowman (2009) that a criticism of leadership theory in the past is that it largely focused on leaders – the actions of individuals – and did not examine the dynamic, complex systems and processes that comprise leadership. The dominant paradigm in leadership theory focuses on how leaders can influence others toward desired objectives within the framework of formal, hierarchical, organisational structures, Zaccaro and Klimoski (2001) agree. Gronn (2002) adds that, despite the needs of the Knowledge Era, much of leadership theory remains largely grounded in a bureaucratic framework more appropriate for the Industrial age. Because of this, they continue, earlier models have been criticised for being incomplete and impractical.

The challenge is to identify alternatives (to bureaucracy) and develop leadership theories that account for them (Child and McGrath, 2001). There is, however, a need for an integrative theory, a general theory of leadership that is at the same time conceptually inclusive, comprehensive, valid and useful to those who perform in the role of a leader or are engaged in the development of leaders in private practice (Hill, 2006). To meet the needs of requisite complexity, knowledge era leadership requires a change in thinking away from individual, controlling views toward views of organisations as CASs that enable continuous creation and capturing of knowledge, which stimulate knowledge development, adaptability and innovation (Uhl-Bien, Marion and McKelvey, 2007).

The exploration and application of complexity science to leadership theory seems to be an emerging perspective, according to Lichtenstein, Marion, Seers, Orton and Schreiber (2006); Marion and Uhl-Bien (2001); Schneider and Somers (2006) and Uhl-Bien, Marion and McKelvey (2007), and results in a recent theory called Complexity Leadership Theory. Complexity theory is the study of both natural and social complex systems in which order and coherence emerge as an outcome of the interaction of multiple entities, whether they are proteins, cells, individuals, organisations or societies (Martinez, 2008). CASs dynamics represent the self-organising mechanisms through which complex systems develop and change their internal structure spontaneously and adaptively to cope with (or manipulate) their environment (Cilliers, 1998). CASs are neural-like networks of interacting, interdependent agents who are bonded in a collective dynamic by a common need (Marion, 1999). They are capable of solving problems creatively and are able to learn and adapt quickly (Carley and Hill, 2001).

Complexity theory linked to the organisation has direct implications on leadership in the CAS (Schneider and Somers, 2006). The value of adding a CAS to leadership is that it offers a paradigm for thinking about leadership from which issues that confound scholars from a traditional view can be explored, namely issues of shared, distributed, collective, relational, dynamic, emergent and adaptive

leadership processes, explain Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009), as well as Gronn (2002), Brown and Gioia (2002) and Pearce and Conger (2003).

Three functions of complexity leadership are entangled to address the actions of formal and informal dynamics and their integration in the organisation, namely administrative leadership, adaptive leadership and enabling leadership. An illustration of these leadership functions as encompassed in complexity leadership theory is presented in Figure 2.5 below.

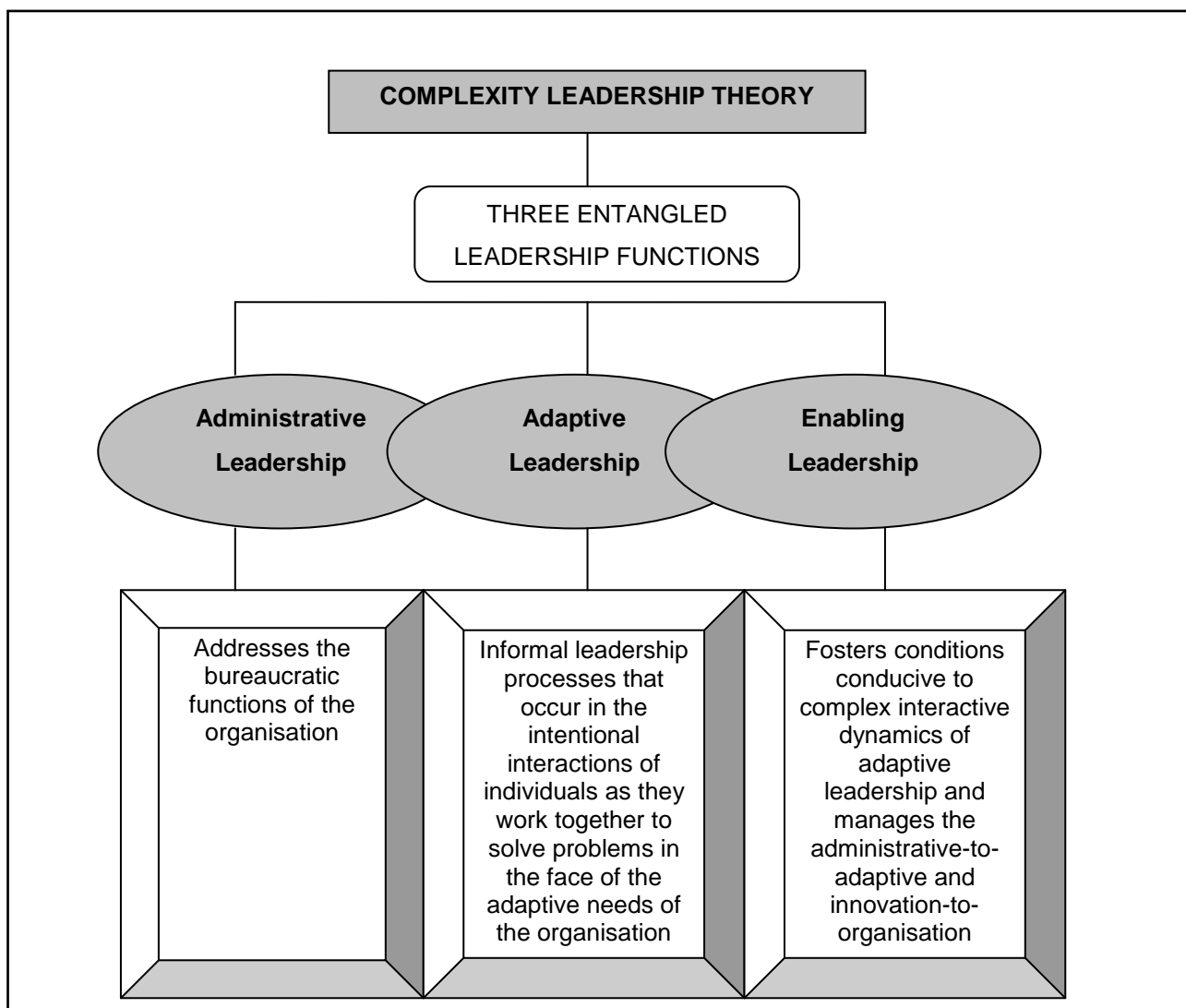


Figure 2.5: Entangled leadership functions of complexity leadership (based on the work of Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2009)

Leadership functions can be carried out in many different ways, depending on the individual leader, the context, and the nature of the goals being pursued (Leithwood and Riehl, 2003). Uhl-Bien and

Marion (2009) proposes the integration of the three leadership functions, which are administrative leadership, adaptive leadership and enabling leadership to enhance collective work in teams and organisations. Integration of these leadership functions encourages entanglement which recognises that administrative and adaptive leadership must work together effectively if organisations are to function properly; therefore, entanglement refers to a dynamic relationship between the formal top-down, administrative forces and the informal, complex adaptive emergent forces in organisations. (McKelvey, 2008).

Administrative leadership is the managerial form of leadership that addresses the bureaucratic functions of the organisation while not stifling the complex dynamics capable of producing adaptive change (Marion and Uhl-Bien, 2007). Adaptive leadership is an informal leadership process that occurs in the intentional interactions of interdependent human agents (individuals or collectives) as they work to generate and advance novel solutions in the face of the adaptive needs of the organisation (Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2009). It is productive of new ideas, innovation, adaptability and change. The concept “enabling” means to empower, delegate and develop the potential as the leader encourages and trusts his/her staff to take decisions, and encourages them to take on responsibility, to think of new approaches to problems, and to think strategically (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2005).

Leadership development processes that could prepare leaders for the complexity leadership framework need to, however, integrate elements of critical thinking, rational discourse and centrality of experience to learn, think and produce new ideas collectively. Complexity leadership theory as a basis for leadership development will help to address a key challenge for modern day organisational leaders: the need to ‘loosen up the organisation – stimulating innovation, creativity and responsiveness and learning to manage continuous adaption to change – without losing strategic focus’ (Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2009). This brings us to the need to explore the final building block in this conceptual framework, which is leadership development.

2.4.4 Leadership Development for Leaders in Complex Organisations

An analysis of leadership literature highlights that leadership development has been progressively regarded as an essential and valuable tool to build and enhance leadership capacity in a learning organisation. Leadership development is becoming an increasingly critical and strategic imperative for organisations in the current, challenging, organisational environment (Leskiw and Singh, 2007). The changing and emergent perspectives of leadership, however, profoundly affected the thinking of leadership development to be inherently collaborative, social and relational processes, Hernez-Broome and Hughes (2004) emphasise.

The emerging epistemology of the concept of leadership development, explain Bush and Glover (2004), is one that ranges from the specific, mechanistic, narrowly instructional and conventional to the contextual, empowering, organisationally coherent and transformational. Day's (2004) definition of leadership development coheres with the latter part of Bush and Glover's (2004) line of thought, since he defines leadership development as the act of expanding the capacities of individuals, groups and organisations to participate effectively in leadership roles and capacities. McCauley and Van Velsor (2005) concur with Day (2004) in terms of the expansion of capacity, and add that the purpose thereof is to enact the basic leadership needed for collective work such as setting direction, creating alignment and maintaining commitment.

Leadership development could be regarded as a competitive capability that is intertwined with organisational strategy, and that a leadership development approach in any organisation should be aimed at building capacity in anticipation of unforeseen challenges, namely development (Day, 2001). This should be done to increase the capacity of the whole system, since the goal of leadership development should be to increase the capacity of the whole system to make sense of direction, commitment and adaptive challenges at all relevant levels of understanding and responsibility in the organisational context (Drath, 2001).

Olivaris, Peterson and Hess (2007) differentiate between leader and leadership development, and argue that, where leader development focuses on the individual and seeks to enhance and build intrapersonal skills and competence (human capital), leadership development focuses on building interpersonal competence to enhance social capital. The focus is still the individual, but it is more about how the individual enhances self-awareness and regulates and focuses energies for self-development to enhance relationships and organisational capacity (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). O'Connor and Quinn (2004) concur, mentioning the concepts 'building relationships' and 'organisational capacity', but add that this is done through enhanced connectivity and sense making. Leadership development can be thought of as an integration strategy that helps people to understand how they relate to others, coordinating their efforts, building commitments and developing social networks by applying self-understanding to social and organisational imperatives (Day, 2001).

Leadership development, however, does not happen overnight, Allen (2006) warns, as he motivates that leadership development is a continuous, systematic process designed to expand the capacity and awareness of individuals, groups and organisations in an effort to meet shared goals and objectives. This is a continuous, progressive, sequential and developmental process through which leaders acquire the skills, knowledge and behaviours required (O'Neill and Fisher, 2004). Development is change that occurs over time due to both maturational processes and learning (Avolio, 2005).

Leadership development, as a type of human development, takes place over time and is incremental in nature, is accretive, and is the result of complex reciprocal interactions between the leader, others and the social environment (Olivaris, Peterson and Hess, 2006). This developmental process is a systematic process that begins with an assessment of organisational needs, leadership capabilities and developmental gaps (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs and Fleischman, 2002).

The aims of leadership development processes are: to increase ownership of organisational goals and objectives throughout the organisation; to create an open, problem-solving climate; to create opportunities and conditions for searching for solutions to problems; to create a conscious awareness of organisational, group and interpersonal progress and its consequences for performance. These leadership development processes could assist in creating a paradigm shift from competition to collaboration between interdependent individuals and groups within the organisation towards working for the collective goal of the organisation. Leadership development processes should focus on the conscious development of leaders' and followers' styles within the context of the learning organisation through structured programmes and learning experiences (Meyer and Botha, 2002).

Leadership development programmes differ depending on the specific model of leadership development that guides the learning activities and learning outcomes reached (Bush and Glover, 2004). Three leadership development models are illustrated in Figure 2.6 below:

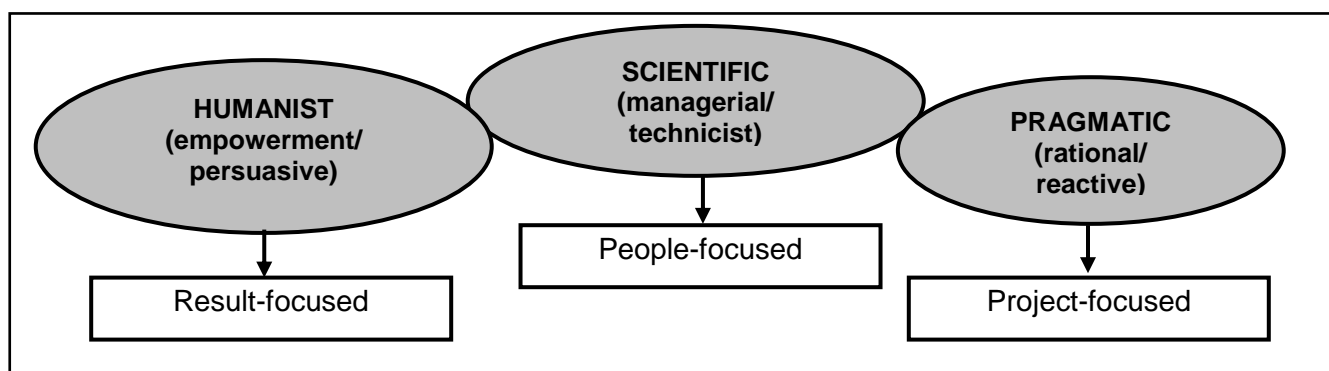


Figure 2.6: Models of leadership development (adapted from Bush and Glover, 2004:7)

The humanist is a result-focused model with an emphasis on training to secure adherence to targets set within formal review frameworks and profession-wide standards. Scientific model is people-focused with an emphasis on strategically planned transformational interaction, non-threatening development activity and continuing reflective (individual and group) review. The pragmatic model is project-focused with an emphasis on the immediate needs for individual or group activity, and with a tendency to draw on both scientific and humanist techniques according to the contemporary needs of the organisation (Bush and Glover, 2004).

Training can be used as a key strategy for leadership development, depending on which model of leadership development that determines the focus thereof (Ladyshevsky, 2007). Training should not be conceived as a discrete program but rather an organisational intervention supported by other interventions over time, and must have a clear, central purpose that will affect how people perform their roles within the organisation (Avolio, 2005). There is a need to incorporate training design factors (the didactic versus experiential focus of the programme) and learning outcomes such as experiential learning, reflective journaling, coaching and goal setting. Leadership development training activities should develop social consciousness and lifelong learning, add Wielkiewitz, Prom and Loos (2005).

Leadership development experiences should not only provide for the intrapersonal elements and reflectivity, argue Olivaris, Peterson and Hess (2007), but should be social in nature and relevant to the goals and mission of the organisation. Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs and Fleischman (2002) further highlight the importance of behavioural skills training, leadership coaching and feedback, as well as the design of performance management systems. Ladyshevsky (2007), however, explains that, no matter how good the leadership development training programmes are, leadership development interventions cannot guarantee that capacity building and development of competence takes place. Leadership development processes should therefore also include the relevant adult learning theories. This observation requires further investigation, which will be conducted in Chapter 3. This brings us to the need to integrate the building blocks that constitute the conceptual framework for this chapter.

2.5 TOWARDS A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR LEADERSHIP IN COMPLEX ORGANISATIONS

An integration of the building blocks for leadership in complex organisations, namely leadership challenges, leadership roles, leadership skills, leadership development and leadership theory (construction of relationship statements phase), results in a representation of the building blocks that demonstrates the relationship between them, as illustrated Figure 2.7 on the following page.

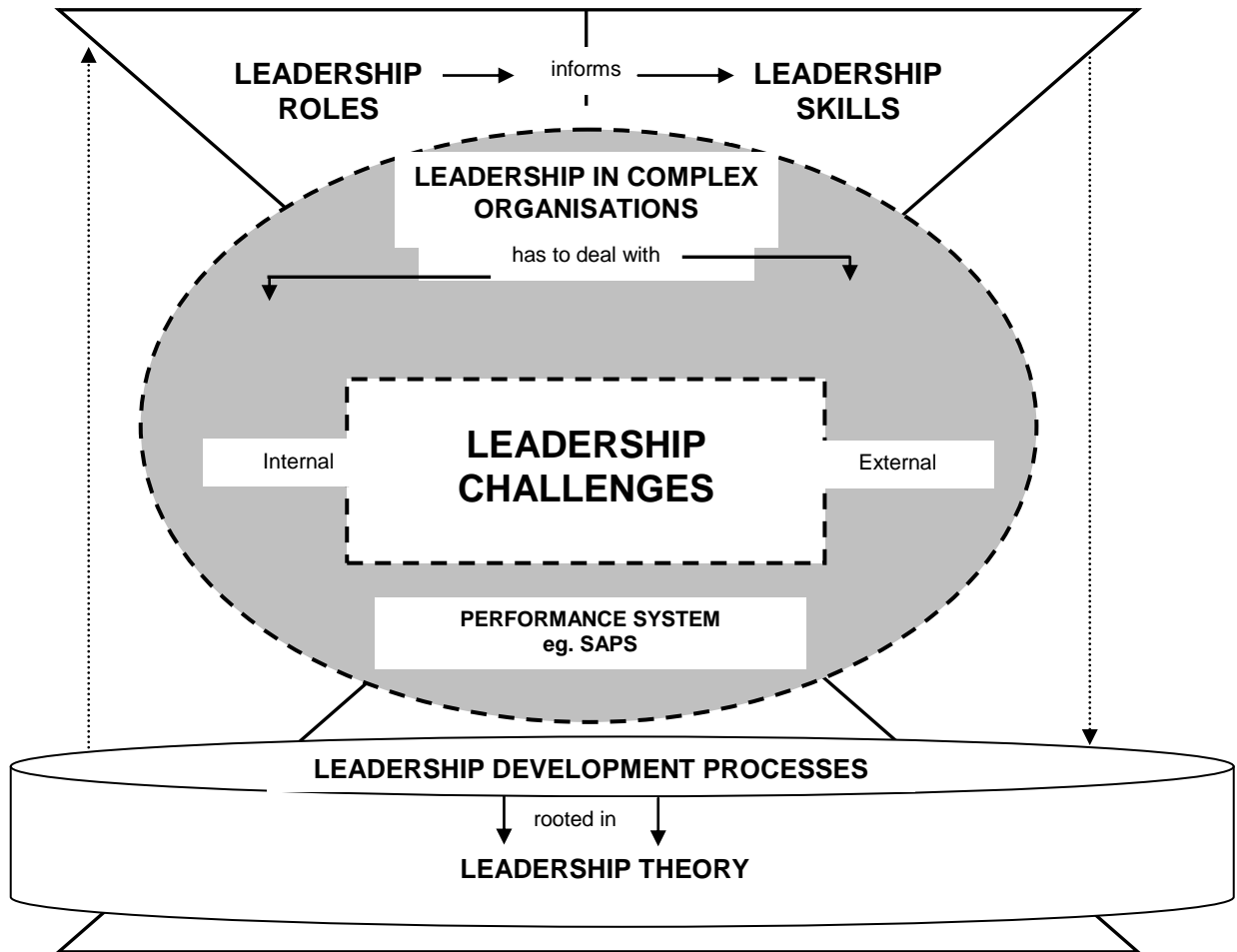


Figure 2.7: Integration of the building blocks that emerged from literature regarding leadership in complex organisations

The framework that results from the non-empirical review of literature presents the example of the SAPS as a performance system at the centre of the model. An eco-systemic viewpoint of performance systems highlights the micro-, meso- and macro-level influences in the environment in which they operate that affect it directly or indirectly.

Various challenges are experienced in these performance systems as a result of the internal and external influences, relationships and tasks, which the leadership of the organisation has to deal with. These challenges have an effect on the roles that the leadership has to perform. Due to the complexity of leadership challenges in the twenty-first century, leadership roles that are aimed at problem-solving, foresight, critical thinking and dealing with complex challenges are required. These leadership roles inform the leadership skills required to deal with the challenges.

It is essential that emphasis be placed on the development of leadership skills. Leadership development processes are needed to develop the leadership skills, so as to effectively execute leadership roles in the CAS. Many organisations such as the SAPS realise the value of leadership development, as their strategic plans and budgets highlight investments in leadership development initiatives. The alignment of leadership development initiatives to the vision, goals and operations of the organisation is, however, often neglected.

Leadership development initiatives are furthermore frequently planned without consideration of the appropriate leadership theory. Leadership development should be rooted in appropriate leadership theory as a basis for planning and designing leadership development experiences that are aimed at assisting the leaders to deal with complex challenges, fulfil leadership roles, and to grow and develop leadership skills congruent to the leadership roles required.

The framework therefore places leadership challenges in the performance system at the centre of the framework from which relevant leadership roles, skills, development processes and theories need to be derived to empower the leadership in complex organisations to deal with the challenges experienced. The framework challenges the adaption of traditional leadership theories, skills and roles in the light of the complexity of the leadership task in the current era. The framework further seeks to highlight that there needs to be a congruent match and flow between the building blocks in this leadership framework for the purpose of empowering the twenty-first century leaders to fulfil the leadership role more effectively.

A working definition for leadership in the complex organisations relevant to this study could therefore be:

‘Leadership in complex organisations is the interactive, dynamic performance system directed towards achieving the common vision and predefined goals, through shared dialogue, reflection, collaborative learning and development, to deal with diverse leadership challenges through application of applicable leadership roles and skills; strengthened through leadership development initiatives and rooted in complexity leadership theory.’

2.6 CONCLUSION

Leadership, even though a hugely explored concept, seem to still be able to elicit dialogue between theorists as the evolvment of, and changes within, the global physical, social, economic and political environment create the need to reconstruct the original definitions and viewpoints thereof continuously. New perceptions regarding leadership involve the paradigm shift from the leader as an

individualist to collaborative leadership models and theories within CASs of adaptability, collaboration, dynamic changes and emergence.

There appears to be a general acceptance within the framework of a learning system that leadership does not necessitate a group of people at the top of the hierarchy, but that powerful contributions can emerge from non-linear, informal relations. Contributions that can result from informal dialogue, discussions, brainstorming, critical analysis, active participation, group learning and team efforts, to deal with contemporary challenges and achieve the vision of an organisation in a collaborative manner. Leadership therefore seems to no more result in 'being', but in 'achieving together', necessitated by the complexity of the challenges faced in the contemporary era.

The new leadership paradigm consist of constructs such as interactivity, collaborative learning, collective achievement and performance systems to deal with problems and achieve organisational outcomes. Organisations in the twenty-first century, however, face more complex challenges than their counterparts did, in some cases merely a decade earlier. These challenges results from the impact of globalisation on the environment, societal changes and technological advancement, to name only a few. These changes have both a direct and an indirect influence on roles and tasks that leadership now has to fulfil, and necessitate a fresh view on leadership in context, or leadership in complex organisations.

This chapter aimed to provide a holistic view on leadership in such complex organisations through an attempt to firstly conceptualise leadership and to define a CAS or organisation. An example of the SAPS, to provide context, was given so as to illustrate, using a real complex organisation, the challenges that leadership in such an organisation need to deal with on a daily basis. The purpose of this was to create an understanding of the intensity of the leadership tasks in such an organisation.

The building blocks that emerged from the literature review that could constitute a conceptual framework were then integrated. They included the roles, skills, development and theory that are essential elements of leadership in complex organisations. Each building block was analysed in the light of relevance to a CAS and how each of these could impact on leadership as a whole to assist the leaders to fulfil their leadership purpose in such an organisation. A partial conceptual framework was then presented in order to assist in the holistic conceptualisation of leadership in complex organisations as relevant to this study. A completed conceptual framework can only be presented in chapter four when all of the research findings will be synthesised and a holistic framework including all the elements or building blocks that emerge from the research process will be integrated.

Chapter 3

Transformative Learning as a Tool to Enhance Leadership Development of Police Leaders in the SAPS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership challenges in the policing context necessitate that police leaders find constructive ways to deal with these challenges in an effective and efficient manner. Police leaders, however, often do not have a platform where they can think about the best ways to deal with these challenges. There seems to be a need for these leaders to be provided with a safe learning environment where they can think about, discuss, reflect on and learn from mistakes, or find alternative ways to deal with complex situations. Leadership development focuses on the interaction between an individual and the social and organisational environment (Day, 2001). In such leadership development processes, leaders must develop awareness of their own leadership strengths, limitations and challenges in order to capitalise on strengths and overcome shortcomings, since learning is a lifelong process (Riggio, 2008). Transformative learning could be a useful tool in leadership development processes to create a climate of openness, safety and trust so as to encourage the exploration of alternative personal perspectives based on previous experience via questioning, critical reflection and dialogue (Brown, 2004).

This chapter aims to propose transformative learning in the leadership development processes of the police leaders in the SAPS. The purpose is to assist police leaders to, through the elements of this adult learning theory, critically reflect on leadership challenges. The theory acknowledges the role of experience during learning processes. Rational discourse, the third element, uses verbal communication as a means to discuss, have dialogue, criticise, explain and reason the problem at hand. Policy praxis is based on action, thus moving the leader to act upon the recommendations made through rational discourse and reflective practice. A graphical presentation of the outline of the chapter is presented in Figure 3.1 on the following page.

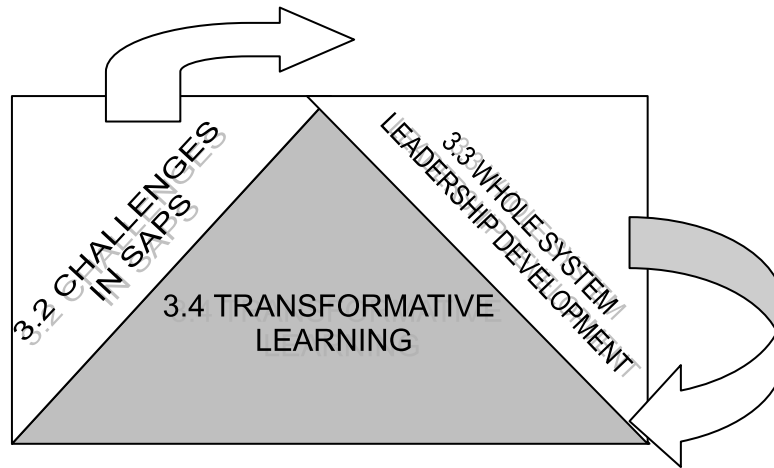


Figure 3.1: Graphical representation of the outline of the chapter

Leadership challenges that, for example, police leaders in the SAPS face will be researched. Thereafter, a whole systems leadership development model will be explored as a strategic development option for capacitating police leaders to deal with the challenges of their everyday working environment. Within such a leadership development model, the role of transformative learning as an adult learning theory will be analysed to reflect how this learning theory could be used within leadership development process to assist police leaders to discuss, reflect and act on solutions to the challenges faced.

3.2 CHALLENGES THAT SAPS LEADERS FACE

The SAPS, as with other organisations today, is experiencing diverse challenges in its internal and external operational environment that could have an impact on the leadership roles in the organisation. There is something different about the way the world is changing and today's circumstances, Johnson and Watkins (2008) observes. The pace of change is somehow faster, the frequency and amplitude of restructuring and reforming are significantly greater, and the pathways of emerging futures seem to be less predictable than in earlier times, they explain.

Organisations are experiencing the effects of societal mandates in the form of complex challenges, Martin and Ernst (2005) concurs, which comprises of bundles of both technical challenges – those possibly within current problem solving expertise, plus adaptive challenges – those requiring new understandings, processes and perspectives found outside current knowledge and resources and critical challenges that result from an unexpected event that require immediate and often drastic organisational response. These complex challenges, says Dalton, Ernest, Deal and Leslie (2002) defy existing solutions, resources, and approaches; they question fundamental assumptions and mental models; and they demand new learning, creativity and quick and decisive action.

An analysis of the challenges experienced by the SAPS as described and mentioned by scholars (Basdeo, 2009; Bellingnan-Timmers, 2004; Bezuidenhout, 2008; Bruce, 2002; Burger, 2009; Burger, 2006; De Vries, 2008; Faull, 2007; Mattes, 2006; Omar, 2007; Pienaar and Rothmann, 2006) regarding the situation in the SAPS in the current age was imperative to highlight the complexity of the leadership tasks in such an organisational environment. The challenges were summarised to bring clarity and direction to the understanding of the phenomena of interest and separated according to internal and external challenges Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Leadership challenges in the South African policing context

LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES IN THE SAPS	
Internal	External
<p>DEVELOPMENTS IN POLICING (POST 1994)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policy implementation problems • Organisational restructuring • Adaption to new policing ethos • Enforcement of relevant legislation <p>ORGANISATIONAL TRANSFORMATION</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Restructuring • Smooth running of affirmative action to address imbalances of past • Redeployment and redistribution of personnel • Demilitarisation; Problems relating to discrimination <p>ORGANISATIONAL PRIORITIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raising levels of safety and security through improved quality of service • Establishing effective crime intelligence • Enhanced operational effectiveness through development, education and training of personnel <p>LINE FUNCTION PRIORITIES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce violent crimes • Restrict organised crime • Reduce hijacking and other vehicle related crimes • Combat commercial crime • Target corruption within police service • Control and police illegal movement of persons and goods • Fire arms control <p>CRIME MANAGEMENT</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crime control • High crime levels and statistics • Improved crime reduction strategies • Victim empowerment • Identification of crime tendencies • Crime intelligence • Crime prevention <p>PERSONNEL</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhanced training and development, Enhance morale of members • Shortage in numbers, Job satisfaction • Lack of capacity; Stress; Bribery; Misconduct; Professional dealing and handling of cases • Inadequate police performance, Exodus of skilled members • Criteria for accelerated promotion of previously disadvantaged members <p>LACK OF RESOURCES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For appropriate training of personnel • Specialised services • Victim assistance programmes • Suitable information and statistical management system • Police stations (accessibility, resources) <p>ARRESTS AND PROSECUTIONS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cases lost or thrown out of court due to improper evidence collection • Stolen and loss dockets 	<p>GLOBAL TRENDS, CHANGES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Difficulty to plan for unforeseen incidents happening globally that has an influence • Keeping updated with constantly changing policing policies and strategies • Global competitiveness <p>CRIME</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hi-jacking and other vehicle related crimes • Mini-bus taxi related violence • Possession and trafficking of illegal weapons • Narcotic related offences • Terrorism • Gender-based crimes • Corruption within the criminal justice system <p>CRIMINALS and PERPERTRATORS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Highly organised criminal groups • Well armed criminals <p>POLITICAL SITUATION</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Political pressures • Political intolerance • Declared political massacres <p>ECONOMIC CLIMATE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recession • Immigrant influx • Serious economic offences • Wide-scale poverty <p>SOCIAL</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unemployment • Poor education • Lack of housing and basic services • Absence of adequate social service

As illustrated in Table 3.1 on the previous page, the challenges that the police leaders in the SAPS need to deal with in the internal environment range from developments resulting from the post-apartheid era after 1994, organisational transformation that resulted from demilitarising the police service from a police force to service-orientation and policing ethos, challenges in meeting organisational priorities, and line function priorities such as increased levels of service delivery and reduced crime levels.

Internal challenges also include crime management, such as reducing high levels of crime as indicated in crime statistics (e.g. Crime Statistics 2007/2008); personnel issues, such as addressing and dealing with police misconduct, low morale of members; exodus of skilled members due to unhappiness about affirmative action; lack of resources; and difficulty in effecting arrests due to insufficient evidence or stolen case dockets. Challenges in the external policing environment include keeping up with continuously changing crime trends in the global arena; political pressures and intolerance, which leads to crime, and the economic climate and social circumstances that have an influence on increasing crime rates.

A leadership development model proposed by Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo-Metcalfe (2009) to capacitate police leaders to deal with these challenges in the policing environment is the whole systems leadership development model. This whole systems leadership development model will be explained below.

3.3 WHOLE SYSTEMS LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT MODEL

The whole systems leadership development model is derived from the idea of whole system learning articulated by Yukl (2009). He explains that, in order to achieve whole systems solutions to challenges such as experienced in the policing context in South Africa, the focus on dyadic approaches to leadership needs to give way to understanding how multiple leaders react, influence and learn from one another in groups, teams and organisations. The kind of leadership development that is required for the whole systems approach is radically different from the traditional approach, where the emphasis is on development activities that are focused on an individual or group of individuals, participating and operating as independent agents (Bennington and Hartley, 2008).

The starting point is a theory of leadership, which is most commonly based on a competency framework, and the developmental activities that are undertaken at a retreat (conference centre or management centre). The result can often be that the individual participants benefits by becoming more self-aware, and are able to perform certain actions more efficiently and effectively, thus increasing the 'human capital'. Such capital is not necessarily available to the organisation as a whole,

however, and the focus is capacitating the individual leaders for their role in the organisation through the application of relevant skills. (Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalfe, 2009).

A model of leadership development contrasting to the above-mentioned that is predicated on adopting an engaging style of leadership is whole systems leadership development which will be illustrated in Figure 3.2 below.

	TRADITIONAL, COMPETENCY BASED APPROACH	ENGAGING, 'WHOLE SYSTEMS' APPROACH
Focus of attention	The individual	The workgroup or the team
Starting point	Theory	Particular problems Current and future practice
Contents	Individual-focused developmental activities	Activities in which the focus is on <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifying specific problems • Proposing appropriate action
Location	A retreat	The front-line
Method of working	Individual focused	Team working based on <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trust and mutual respect • Valuing of others contribution • Critical analysis • Rigorous reflection on experience • Engaging leadership
Result	Increase in human capital	Increase in human and social capital

Figure 3.2: The 'Whole Systems' leadership development model (Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalfe, 2009)

The focus of attention is the team or working group, and the starting point is the particular problems or challenges that have to be addressed, and analysis and evaluation relevant to current and future practice, in 'real live' situations or contexts. The principle location is the front-line, though this does not preclude the need for time spent away, as the focus is on groups or teams working together. The content of what is discussed is subject to critical analysis and rigorous reflection on, and evaluation of, past experience, while the most effective style of leadership is one that causes all participants to be fully engaged and learner-centred, thus enhancing the 'social capital' (McCallum and O' Connel, 2008; Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo-Metcalfe, 2009).

Mezirow (1991, 1997, 2000) developed a theory of transformative learning as a primary goal of adult education, and which can be framed as an outcome of, and rationale for, a learner-centred approach. Transformative learning, a theory of adult learning that encompasses elements such as critical

reflection, centrality of experience and rational discourse, is in line with the constructivist framework that forms the basis of whole systems leadership development model (construction of relationship statement phase), as illustrated in Figure 3.3, and will be explored below.

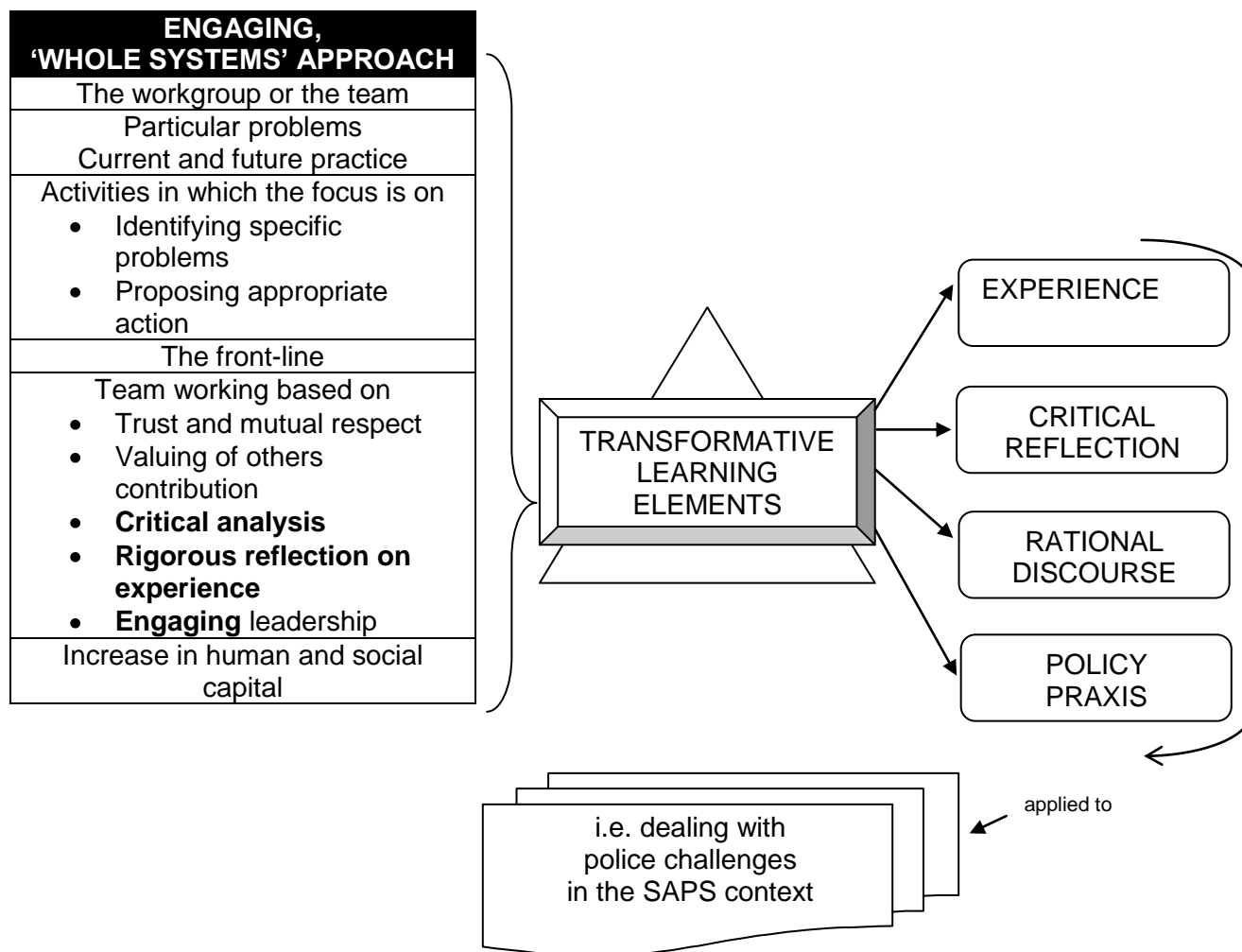


Figure 3.3: Aligning whole systems leadership with transformative learning theory

The theory of transformative learning could be a useful tool to enhance such whole system leadership development processes for police leaders. Elements of transformative learning could be aligned with the ideas that transpire from this model. It might therefore be relevant to explore this adult learning theory at this point.

3.4 TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING

Transformative learning, a theory of adult learning progressively seems to be mentioned in scholars' proposals regarding current leadership development notions, according to the literature reviews done

on leadership development for this study. A conceptualisation of transformative learning, three elements originally integrated in the theory of transformative learning according to Mezirow (1991), as well as an additional element proposed by Brown (2004), which is policy praxis, will be discussed below.

3.4.1 A Proposed Theory of Adult Learning to be Integrated in Whole Systems Development Processes of Police Leaders in the SAPS

Metamorphosis; reformation; conversation. These words suggest transformation and change – change in the way people think about themselves and the world (Baumgartner, Birden and Flowers, 2003). Transformative learning is a shift of consciousness that dramatically and permanently alters the way of being in the world (Morrel and O'Connor, 2002). Jack Mezirow first introduced transformative learning as a theory of adult learning that helped explain how adults changed the way they interpret the world (Taylor, 2008). This theory is considered uniquely adult – that is, grounded in human communication, where 'learning is understood as the process of using prior interpretation to construe a new or revised interpretation of one's experience in order to guide future action' (Mezirow, 1997:162). King and Wright (2003) describes transformative learning processes as more than an epistemological change in worldview; it also involves an ontological shift, reflective of a need to act on new perspective.

The larger framework within which transformative learning fits is based on Habermas's (1981) three kinds of knowledge: instrumental, communicative (practical) and emancipatory. Instrumental knowledge is cause-and-effect, objective knowledge derived from scientific methodologies. The acquisition of instrumental knowledge is a goal of education in the trades, technologies, and sciences. Communicative knowledge is the understanding of ourselves, others, and the social norms or society in which we live. It is derived through language and validated by consensus among people. The acquisition of communicative knowledge is a goal of the study of human relations, political and social systems and education. Emancipatory knowledge, the self-awareness that frees us from constraints, is a product of critical reflection and critical self-reflection. Gaining emancipatory knowledge can be a goal in all facets of adult education. The acquisition of emancipatory knowledge is transformative (Cranton, 2002). A conceptualisation of transformative learning and an analysis of the three pedagogical strategies embodied in the transformative learning theory, namely centrality of experience; critical reflection and rational discourse, will hereby follow.

3.4.2 Conceptualisation: Transformative Learning Theory

Various emerging conceptions of transformative learning theory, in conjunction with the original idea constructed by Mezirow (1991), explained the theory within a psycho critical, psychoanalytical, psycho

developmental and social emancipatory perspective of adult learning and development (Taylor, 2008). The psychoanalytical view sees transformative learning as a process of individualisation and reflection to understand oneself (Dirkx, 2000). In the psycho developmental view, epistemological change (change in how we make meaning), is key (Kegan, 1994). The psycho critical and social emancipatory views highlight the individual as the unit of analysis, as he/she develops critical consciousness of himself within the social context (Taylor, 2008).

Whichever way theorists view and contribute towards the expansion of the theory of transformative learning, many of the key concepts persist (Cranton and King, 2003). Concepts such as experience, critical reflection, affective learning, dialogue and individual development are directly or indirectly integrated in Cranton's (2006:36) definition of transformative learning, as he summarises transformative learning as

...the process by which people examines problematic frames of reference to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open, reflective and emotionally able to change. It can be provoked by a single event – a disorientating dilemma – or it can take place gradually and cumulatively over time. Discourse is central to the process. We need to engage in conversation with others in order to better consider alternative perspectives and determine their validity.

Frames of reference are made up of habits of mind (the broad predispositions we use to interpret experience) and points of view (clusters of meaning schemes or habitual, implicit rules we use to interpret experience) (Cranton, 2006). These frames of references are challenged as individuals conceptualise the world around them (King and Wright, 2003). The learning then occurs by elaborating the existing frames of reference, learning new frames of reference, transforming points of view or transforming habits of mind (Apostol, 2005).

Transformation is seen to be a fundamental change in personality that resolves a personal dilemma and expands consciousness (Cranton, 2006). The unsettling feeling of being stretched to think beyond our normal capacity, which stimulates transformation, is seen in this theory to be one of the most valuable parts of learning (Nagata, 2006). According to Merriam (2004), numerous studies offer support for the outcome of transformative learning being an interlocking of positive development and learning. Hamilton (2007) concurs that transformative learning theory focuses on the inter-relationship between personal change and learning. Change and learning occur in the learners' epistemic, sociolinguistic and psychological perspectives, and transform the learners themselves (Tsoa, Takahashi, Olusesi and Jain, 2006).

The transformation process outlined by Mezirow (2000) involves the following stages: transformation that begins with a distorting dilemma, then self-examination with feelings of fear, anger, guilt or shame, and a critical assessment of an individual's assumptions. Next, the adult learner recognises that their discontent and the process of transformation are shared, which leads to the exploration of options for new roles, relationships and actions. This stage is often followed by planning a course of action and acquiring knowledge and skills for implementing one's plans. The adult learner then begins to try new roles, and build competence and self-confidence in the new roles and relationships. Finally, the learner reintegrates the new perspective into his or her life (Wansick, 2007).

Through this multi-faceted process, transformative learning offers a learning process through which learners identify, deconstruct and give meaning to their experiences (Fisher-Yosheda, Geller and Wasserman, 2005). A rational process of learning within awareness; a meta-cognitive application of critical thinking that transforms an acquired frame of reference – a mind-set or worldview of orienting assumptions and expectations involving values, beliefs and concepts – by assessing its epistemic assumptions, Cranton (2006: 124) reasons. These learning experiences within the transformative learning process, Kerton and Sinclair (2009) argue, could assist the adult learner to realise their potential for becoming liberated, socially responsible and autonomous, and to develop a more discriminating understanding of their experiences as a guide to positive action.

3.4.3 Key Themes in the Transformative Learning Process

The learning process occurs through an intentional effort designed to foster critically reflective thought, imaginative problem posing and discourse that is learner-centred, participatory and interactive (Mezirow, 1997). Three themes are central to this learning process, which is the centrality of experience, critical reflection and rational discourse (Wansick, 2007). The theme of policy praxis is an extension of the three themes originally adapted by Mezirow (1991) in his transformative learning theory (Brown, 2004). It might be relevant in the context of this study to elaborate on these four pedagogical strategies at this point.

3.4.3.1 Centrality of Experience

Centrality of experience is the starting point of transformation of meaning perspectives, since people's assumptions are generally constructed by their interpretation of experience (Tsoa, Takahashi, Olusesi and Jain, 2006). The adult learner's experiences appear to influence their beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning, namely, epistemologies (Lattuca, Voight and Fath, 2004). Thinkers become critical and reflective as they begin to understand their own pasts, reaching back to discover how present realities and future possibilities link with past action, Ronald and Roskelly (2001) explain as they refer to Freire's pedagogy of pragmatism. This recovery of history, present and even future, they

say, is a creative dimension of consciousness that allows people to intervene in reality in order to change it.

Transformative learning is the process of making meaning of one's own experiences (Taylor, 1998). An adult learner's values, beliefs and assumptions comprise the lens through which personal experience is mediated, and from which one make sense of the world (Ruland and Ahern, 2007). This, according to Mezirow (2000), is a meaning perspective. When this lens is then found to be inadequate in accommodating some life experience, it can be replaced through transformative learning with a new perspective that is more inclusive, discriminating, open, emotionally capable of change and reflective, thus more developed (Ruland and Ahern, 2007).

Percy (2005) differentiates between first-order and second-order experiences and explains that first-order experiences are previous experiences, whereas second-order experiences are new experiences that often lead to disorientation, surprise or uncertainty, and prompt reflection on a previous (first-order) experience that leads either to defence of the earlier position or to a new level of understanding. A number of theorists on learning from experience suggest that learning from either first or second order experiences begins with a trigger of surprise or discomfort that prompts intentional reflection on these experiences (Collin, 2004).

Coombes and Danaher (2006) attempt to place the role of experience within the transformative learning theory in perspective with his perception that, as learners develop a greater awareness of themselves and a deeper understanding of their own experience, this could lead to the increasing desire to grow and develop. Learning from experience is what Yorks and Kasl (2002) choose to call this form of development. They quote Boud, Rohen and Walker (1993) to explain that experience is a particular instance or process of observing, undergoing or encountering, and mention further that these experiences are first taken in or grasped before they are transformed into meaning.

The role of learning from experience should be aligned to the workplace as an effective tool to enhance development in practice, and presents four categories when learning in the workplace can take place, which are:

- learning through the experience of social interaction;
- learning through the work and the internal work process itself;
- learning from other people's experiences (referential knowledge); and
- creating a personal view, which entails learning through observation.

Learning from experience could therefore happen throughout the lifelong learning process (Collin, 2004). This brings us to the second theme in the transformative learning process, which is critical reflection.

3.4.3.2 Critical reflection

Critical reflection is essential to transformative learning, and is the conscious and explicit reassessment of the consequence and origin of the individual's meaning structures (Taylor, 2001). Critical reflection provides the means by which current assumptions and beliefs are explored through the assessment of validity in the light of new experiences or knowledge (Cranton, 2002). Tsoa Takahashi, Olusesi and Jain (2006) highlight the value of critical reflection as they state that critical reflection attempts to deconstruct the adult learner's prior assumptions such as beliefs, value system, attitudes and social emotion in a rational way. Critical thinking and reflection have long been identified as key tools in adult education for stimulating social change (Parsons, 2000). This brings us to the question: What are theorists' views regarding the conceptualisation of the term 'critical reflection'?

According to Chirema (2007), numerous theorists have contributed towards the development of the definition for critical reflection, such as Boud, 1985; Schön, 1987; Powell, 1989; Mezirow, 1991; Scanlan, 1992; Cadman, 2003; Tate, 2004. Brown's (2004) definition, however, seems to give a thorough descriptive analysis of what critical reflection is, as he explains that critical reflection involves the examination of personal and professional belief systems, as well as the deliberate consideration of the ethical implications and effect of practices. Ruland and Ahern (2007) adds that reflection is an activity that requires the individual to examine not only personal and belief systems, but also the manner in which they respond to a given situation, to increase awareness of one's assumptions to better or different actions in the future.

Coombes and Danaher (2006) mentions that critical reflection involves not only reasoning, problem solving and logical thought processes, but quotes Dirkx (1997) as he mentions the role of affective, emotional, spiritual and transpersonal elements also evident in the critical reflective processes. Woerkom, Nijhof and Nieuwenhuis (2002) agree with Coombes and Danaher (2006), but expand his explanation of the critical reflective processes and link these to the working environment. Coombes (2006) says that critical reflective working behaviour is a set of connected individual activities aimed at analysing, optimising or innovating work practices at the individual, team or organisational level. This could be valuable in the context of organisational development.

Mezirow (2000) differentiates between three kinds of reflection, namely content, process and premise reflection. Content reflection is an examination of the content or the description of an issue or problem

(Woerkom, Nijhof and Nieuwenhuis, 2002). Ruland (2007) focuses the explanation of content reflection on the cognitive thinking of the actual experience itself. Process reflection involves checking on the problem solving strategies that are being used (Woerkom, 2002). Merriam (2004) accentuates the examination of ‘how’, as she explains that process reflection is thinking how to handle a specific experience. Premise reflection occurs when the problem itself is questioned (Williams, 2001). The presuppositions on which present knowledge is based are questioned as the question ‘why’ is central in this paradigm (Kreber, 2006). Premise reflection is thinking about long-held, socially constructed assumptions and beliefs held regarding the self, cultural systems, workplace, ethical decision-making, or feelings and attitudes (Ruland and Ahern, 2007).

Content, process and premise reflection takes place in all three meaning perspectives (epistemic, socio-linguistic and psychological) and all three learning domains (instrumental, communicative and emancipatory (Percy, 2005). The three learning domains are an important part of Mezirow’s process of transformative learning (Merriam, 2004). Table 3.2 and Table 3.3 below illustrate the types of reflection and meaning perspectives and types of reflection and learning respectively.

Table 3.2 Types of reflection and meaning perspectives

Reflection	Perspective		
	Psychological	Sociolinguistic	Epistemic
Content	What do I believe about myself?	What are the social norms?	What knowledge do I have?
Process	How have I come to have this perspective of myself?	How have these social norms been influential?	How did I obtain this knowledge?
Premise	Why should I question this perception?	Why are these norms important?	Why do I need/not need this knowledge?

Table 3.3: Types of reflection and learning (adapted from Tsoa, Takahashi, Olusesi and Jain, 2006)

Reflection	Perspective		
	Instrumental	Communicative	Emancipatory
Content	What is the causal relationship event?	What do others say about this issue?	What are my assumptions?
Process	How did I empirically validate the causal relationship?	How did I obtain consensual validation on this issue?	How do I know my assumptions are valid?
Premise	Why is this knowledge important to me?	Why should I believe in this conclusion?	Why should I revise/not revise my perspective?

A few theorists highlight the advantages and positive aspects of critical reflection for developmental and empowerment purposes. Moore (2005) accentuates that, through critical reflection of biases and assumptions, we can relocate understandings, change worldviews, and create transformative learning experiences. Sim (2006) refers to a few theorists such as Boud, Keough and Walker (1985), Khanna (2002) and Mezirow (1991), who align the notion of reflection with personal development and professional accountability, and states that reflection enhances professional judgment skills. The role of rational discourse, the third theme in the transformative learning process, will now be considered.

3.4.3.3 Rational Discourse

Participation in rational discourse is part of the process of learner empowerment (Mezirow, 2003). Merriam (2004) quotes Mezirow (2000:10) to explain that rational discourse is

that specialized use of dialogue devoted to searching for a common understanding and assessment of the justification of an interpretation or belief. This involves assessing reasons advanced by weighing the supporting evidence and arguments and by examining alternative perspectives. Reflective discourse involves a critical assessment of assumptions. It leads toward a clearer understanding by tapping collective experience to arrive at a tentative best judgment.

Discourse is that type of dialogue in which we participate with others whom we believe to be informed, objective and rational to assess reasons that justify problematic beliefs, and which leads to a best tentative judgment that is subject to new insights, perspectives, evidence or arguments. Discourse is a dialogue devoted to assessing reasons presented in support of competing interpretations, by critically examining evidence, arguments, and alternative points of view (Mezirow, 2003). Rational discourse validates meaning by assessing reasons, and involves weighing the supporting evidence, examining alternative perspectives and critically assessing assumptions (Brown, 2004).

According to Mezirow (1997:10), “effective discourse depends on how well a facilitator can create a situation in which those participating have full information; are free from coercion; have equal opportunity to assume the various roles of discourse (to advance beliefs, challenge, defend, explain, assess evidence, and judge arguments); become critically reflective of assumptions; are empathic and open to other perspectives; are willing to listen and to search for common ground or a synthesis of different points of view; and can make tentative best judgment to guide action”. Taylor (1998) however mentions that rational discourse is not everyday discussions, but is used when there is reason to question the comprehensibility, truth, appropriateness or authenticity of what is being asserted, or to question the credibility of the person making the statement. Percy (2005) also warns that, although

dialogue is a key component in transformative learning, it requires a 'spirit of goodwill' and temporary suspension of each person's point of view.

Rational reflective discourse develops best when participants are well informed, free from coercion, listen actively, have equal opportunities to participate and take a critical stance toward established cultural norms or viewpoints (Belensky and Stanton, 2000). Such discourse can be stimulated through various techniques such as class discussions, critical incidents, structured group activities, controversial readings and 'provocative declaratives' (Vavrus, 2002).

Mezirow (2003) argues that adult learners participate more freely and fully in discourse when they

1. have more accurate and complete information,
2. are freer from coercion and distorting self deceptions,
3. are more open to alternative points of view, empathic and caring about how others think and feel,
4. are better able to weigh evidence and assess arguments objectively,
5. are able to become more aware of the context of ideas and critically reflective of assumptions, including their own,
6. have more equal opportunity to participate in the various roles of discourse,
7. are more willing to seek understanding and agreement, and to accept a resulting best judgment as a test of validity until new perspectives, evidence or arguments are encountered, then subsequently validated through discourse as yielding a better judgment.

These aspects are imperative to take into account when fostering transformative learning in learning situations. This brings us to the final element that could be added to the other elements in the transformative learning process, which is policy praxis.

3.4.3.4 Policy Praxis

Praxis comprises a cycle of action-reflection-action, and includes characteristics such as self-determination (as opposed to coercion), intentionality (as opposed to reaction), creativity (as opposed to homogeneity) and rationality (as opposed to change) (Glass, 2001). Freire (1998:488) defined praxis as 'reflection and action upon the world in order to transform it'. Taylor (1998) builds on Freire's interpretations of praxis and explains that reflection only becomes truly critical when it leads to some form of transformative social action.

Brown (2004) adds the theme 'policy praxis' to the original three pedagogical strategies in the transformative learning process that originated from Mezirow's (1991) transformative learning theory,

which are experience, critical reflection and rational discourse, and motivates this addition by saying that reflection on experience and rational discourse alone does not produce change. Freire (1998) advocated the necessity of action based on reflection. Policy praxis involves dialogue as a social process with the objective of dismantling oppressive structures and mechanisms prevalent in society (Freire and Macedo, 1995). The Figure 3.4 is an illustration to demonstrate the key elements in the transformative learning process below.

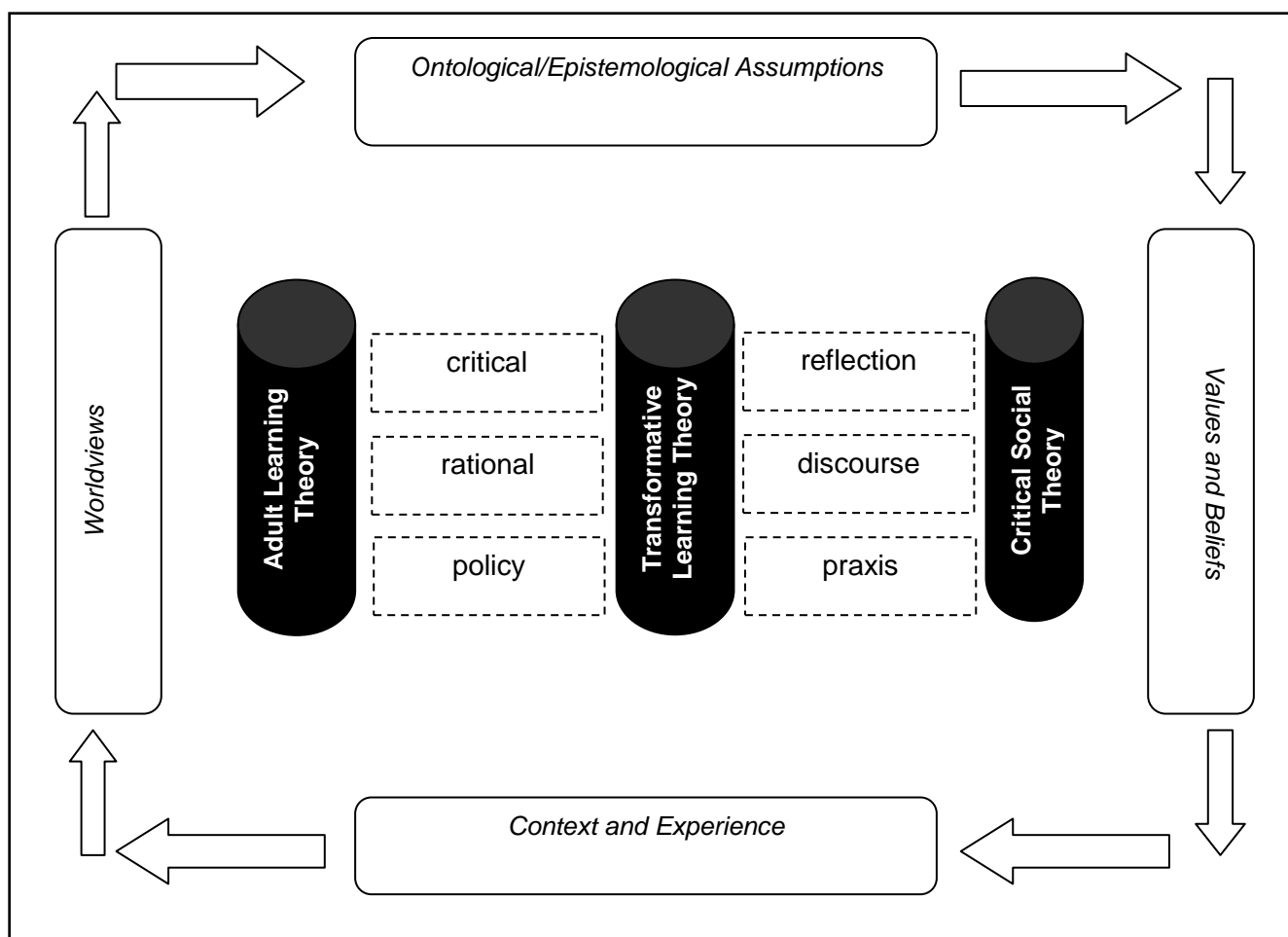


Figure 3.4: Key elements in the transformative learning process (adapted from Brown, 2004:101)

Brown (2004) proposes policy praxis as an additional pedagogical strategy in the transformative learning process, and demonstrates the integral role thereof in the illustration above. Policy implementation often produces unanticipated problems such as bureaucratic incompetence, bureaucratic resistance, inadequate resources, infrastructure or expertise, and the inevitable modification of policy in the implementation phase (Stone, 2001). Decision-makers choose compromise policies that satisfy (rather than maximise) organisational goals, and which are

acceptable in the face of competing demands. Individual and organisational rationality are limited by, for example, organisational constraints on the pursuit of certain courses of action; the need to have a correct perception of organisational goals; and the need to be correctly informed of both organisational constraints and goals (Busch, 2000).

Policy praxis will assist future leaders to set and implement goals in terms of behaviours, boundaries, alternatives and consequences as, through the transformative learning process, they will be challenged to think independently, observe, experience, reflect, learn, dialogue and act. Increasing adult learner awareness of how learners can be an agent of change is a vital part of development, and can be done through community based learning or service learning to deepen understanding, strengthen skills and promote civic responsibility (Brown, 2004).

3.4.4 The need for Transformative Learning in Leadership development processes of police leaders in the SAPS

Experience, critical reflection and rational discourse are the main ingredients in the transformative learning process (Baumgartner, Birden and Flowers, 2003). Life provides the 'stuff' or material for critical reflection (Taylor, 1998). In the police context, the police leaders need to critically think about the policing challenges that they face in the South African policing context. They need to analyse possible causes and influences, such as the impact of global trends on the development/advancement of criminal activity. Critical reflection on previously held assumptions (as a result of having life experiences) can lead to a change in 'frame of reference or worldview' (Mezirow, 2000:16).

People, such as police leaders, must often engage in reflective discourse (Mezirow, 1997). They participate in discussions about these policing challenges, sharing their experiences regarding crime rates, crime prevention strategies, best practices, personnel issues, global trends and new community policing strategies. These discussions and rational discourse create a platform for police leaders to learn from other police leaders who often face similar obstacles in their immediate work context/section.

Ideal characteristics for reflective discourse include having the necessary accurate information, being free from bias, and being able to fully participate and challenge one another in an atmosphere of acceptance, empathy and caring (Mezirow, 2000). Learning may be enhanced by allowing police leaders to hold reflective group discussions and activities so that they can actively debate, discuss and have dialogue about issues in the policing context within a safe environment (Bitzer, 2003). Leaders could be proactive as they seek to conceptualise problems and seek appropriate solutions (Palmiotto, Birzer and Unnithan, 2000).

Interactive discourse can assist in the sharing of work-related problems experienced in the working environment (recognition of discontent and sharing with others). The learner could find support in relating to other police leaders who had to deal with similar problems, and find comfort in the realisation that they are not alone in having to deal with the challenges and problems faced. Sharing of common denominators (work-specific experiences) could provide the learner with comfort and much needed support. The safe learning environment could also enhance the police leaders' willingness to share fears, unpleasant experiences and lack of knowledge in how to deal with certain uncomfortable or challenging situations, and create an openness to learn from the solutions that others propose through their experiences. Such a learning situation could further contribute to the exploration of options for new roles, relationships and actions in the policing environment. Transformative learning could therefore be a learning strategy to promote constructive learning opportunities in a safe and secure learning environment.

3.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter aimed to propose transformative learning in leadership development processes of the police leaders in the SAPS. The purpose thereof was to assist police leaders to, through the elements of this adult learning theory, critically reflect upon leadership challenges in the context of the SAPS. These elements, which are centrality of experience, critical reflection, rational discourse and policy praxis, could be essential to preparing police leaders to reflect upon policing challenges and actions towards alleviating these in a safe and supportive learning environment.

The police leader are not alone in striving towards combating crime and reducing crime levels in South Africa. The challenges are, however, growing increasingly complex with the impact of globalisation and the development and advancement of criminal activity. Reflection on previous best practices that worked in dealing with criminology are needed, as well as a platform for police leaders to critically reflect and have rational discourse about future actions needed to achieve the vision, mission and organisational goals as well as effectively strategise about crime.

Chapter 4

Synthesis and Implications for Theory, Policy and Practice

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The research aimed to explore transformative learning as an adult learning strategy within the leadership development processes of police leaders to create an understanding of how to deal with the diverse challenges faced in the context of the SAPS. In the process, a conceptual framework for leadership development in the SAPS, based on transformative learning theory was developed.

Leadership development is an essential and valuable tool for capacitating police leaders in the SAPS to deal with the diverse challenges that they face in the policing environment. Globalisation and the contemporary policing challenges, however, necessitate that police leadership development processes not only enhance human capital but also social capital within the organisation. Collective problem-solving and rational discourse between the role-players are two essential elements in finding creative solutions for the various challenges experienced in the SAPS.

The police working environment is complex, demanding and challenging. Police leaders need leadership development that will prepare them for the policing environment in the South African context. The researcher examined scholars' views of the policing challenges in the SAPS to provide an understanding of the extent of the police leadership role and tasks which need to be fulfilled against the backdrop of the context. Leadership becomes more complex as the responsibilities and risks associated with it increase.

Chapter 1 described the background and context on which the research problem for this non-empirical research was based. The qualitative research approach – with an integration of the phases/strategies of theory development – that was used in different phases during the research process as described in Chapter 1 (sections 1.5 and 1.6 respectively).

Building blocks towards the development of a conceptual framework that, when completed, could yield answers to the research question were developed in Chapter 2. Transformative learning as an adult learning strategy within leadership development processes, which would add to the attainment of the research objectives, were explored in Chapter 3.

This chapter aims to present the synthesis and summaries of the research findings. The conclusions based on the research findings, along with possible implications, are presented at the end of this chapter.

4.2 SYNTHESIS OF THE RESEARCH

A synthesis of the research findings as obtained through non-empirical data are presented below.

Leadership is a critical element within any performance system due to its influence on four significant domains that it can affect. These domains include the strategic/organisational goals and objectives; the work processes; the interdependent social subsystems and the individual in such an organisation. The leadership concept evolved over the years from leadership as influence exercised by an individual to leadership as a dynamic, mutual relationship aimed at the identification and striving towards shared purposes, values and systemic capability.

Leadership takes place in a performance setting such as a CAS. A CAS is a system that moves away from linear, mechanistic views towards a perspective that embraces unpredictability, uncertainty, non-linear and organic perspectives. CASs are characterised by emergence, interactions and networks, paradigm shifts and adaptive innovations, as illustrated in Figure 2.2 and described in section 2.3. The SAPS is an example of a CAS.

Non-empirical research materials highlight five building blocks that constitute leadership in complex organisations, including

- leadership roles;
- leadership skills;
- leadership challenges;
- leadership development; and
- leadership theory.

An argument that arose from these literature sources is that leadership challenges are different, depending on the context in which the leadership role needs to be fulfilled. This intensifies the leadership skills needed, as complex challenges demand creative problem-solving and proactive ways to deal with them.

A framework was developed that integrated the building blocks (Figure 2.7), each of which discussed in sections 2.4.2 to 2.4.4. The framework placed leadership challenges in a performance system in the centre as the main ingredient to derive leadership roles, skills, development processes and theory needed. Simplified, this framework proposed that the complexity and demands of the leadership challenges experienced in a specific context would influence the leadership roles, skills, development processes and theory of the leader in that specific context.

The complex challenges in the South African policing environment necessitate police leadership with cognitive agility, foresight, responsiveness, vision formation, intuition and micro-strategic leadership actions. These challenges were presented in section 3.2. They further necessitate leadership development processes that will capacitate the police leaders to critically think about; reflect on and discuss the leadership challenges experienced in their police working environment in order to find the best possible solutions to the problems experienced.

Whole systems leadership development, as discussed in section 3.3 is a model that does not only focus on the capacity building of an individual, but also on a collective group with a common goal, thus enhancing social capital. The model proposes that the workgroup or team begin to focus on particular problems in current or future practice, identify specific problems and propose appropriate actions, and use methods such as critical analysis, rigorous reflection and engaging leadership. Whole systems leadership development adds to a more holistic approach to capacitating leadership in organisations.

Transformative learning, as described in section 3.4.2, is a theory of adult learning that contains the essential elements proposed in the whole systems leadership development model. These elements are the centrality of experience, critical reflection, rational discourse and policy praxis. Mezirow (1991) proposes transformative learning as a multi-faceted process through which learners identify, deconstruct and give meaning to their experiences, which further contributes to a rational process of learning within awareness.

Transformative learning is needed in the leadership development processes of police leaders to assist them to critically reflect on the challenges experienced, discuss and have dialogue about these challenges, find solutions to deal with these in a rational manner and to act on and implement the solutions derived.

The research findings synthesised above resulted in the development of a conceptual framework proposing whole systems leadership development processes for police leaders in the SAPS based on transformative learning, as illustrated in Figure 4.1 on the following page.

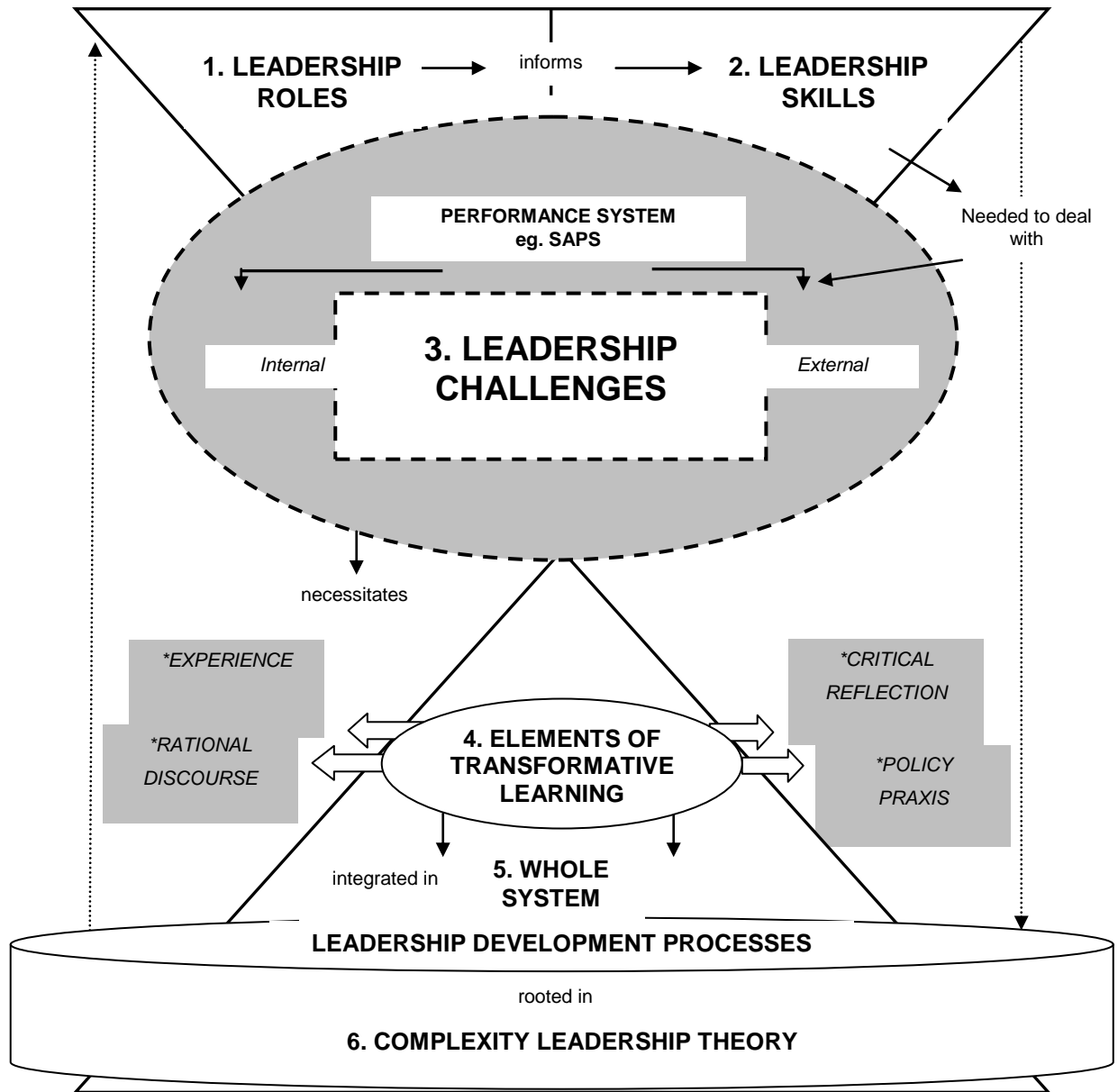


Figure 4.1: Conceptual framework for leadership development in the SAPS based on transformative learning theory

An illustrative summary of the result of the integration of the research methodology chosen for this study, which led to research findings in the conceptual framework, is presented in Table 4.1 on the following page.

Table 4.1: Application of research method throughout this study

PHASES OF THEORY DEVELOPMENT	PURPOSE OF EACH PHASE IN THE RESEARCH PROCESS	OUTCOME OF RESEARCH METHOD APPLIED	
<p>Concept Identification and Analysis</p>	<p><i>Identifying and defining concepts relevant to the research problem and research aim that will form the basic fabric of the theory</i></p>	<p>Section 2.2 Section 2.3 Figure 2.3 Section 2.4.1 Figure 2.4 Section 2.4.2 Section 2.4.3 Section 2.4.4 Section 3.3 Figure 3.2 Section 3.2 Section 3.4.3</p>	<p>Conceptualisation of Leadership Defining a Complex Adaptive System Building blocks for a conceptual framework for leadership in complex organisations Leadership roles in complex systems Generic leadership roles in organisations Leadership skills needed by leaders in complex organisations Leadership theory relevant to leaders in complex organisations Leadership development for leaders in complex organisations Whole system leadership development model Whole systems leadership development model Conceptualisation: Transformative learning theory Key themes in the Transformative learning process</p>
<p>Construction of Relationship Statements</p>	<p><i>Relationship statements describe, explain or predict the nature of interactions and relationship between concepts of the theory</i></p>	<p>Section 2.5 Figure 2.7 Figure 3.3 Section 3.5</p>	<p>Towards a conceptual framework for leadership in complex organisations Integration of building blocks from literature regarding leadership in complex organisations Aligning Whole Systems Leadership with transformative learning The need for Transformative learning in leadership development of the SAPS</p>
<p>Statement Synthesis</p>	<p><i>To bring clarity and direction to the understanding of the phenomena of interest</i></p>	<p>Figure 4.1</p>	<p>Conceptual framework for leadership development in the SAPS based on transformative learning theory</p>
<p>Development and Description of the Model</p>	<p><i>To be exploited in further research, of which Figure 4.1 could serve as basis</i></p>		

Integrating transformative learning in whole systems leadership development processes, based on complexity leadership theory, has certain implications in terms of theory, policy and practice, which will be discussed in the following sections.

4.3 INTEGRATING TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING IN WHOLE SYSTEMS DEVELOPMENT PROCESSES OF SAPS POLICE LEADERS BASED ON COMPLEXITY LEADERSHIP THEORY

4.3.1 Implications for Theory

Traditional leadership theories, where the leadership focus is the individual leader, seem to be inadequate in light of the complex challenges that police leaders have to face in the current era. A paradigm shift from the individual to collective teamwork; shared and distributed leadership; communication; and collective problem solving to achieve the goals and objectives of the organisation is imperative. The principles of organisational learning, and a unified attempt to strive towards accomplishing the vision of the organisation, appear to be the answer for police leaders in the SAPS in the present challenging policing arena.

Complexity leadership theory is proposed as shift away from the contemporary transformational leadership model and theory where the individual leader focused on change and transformation. This leadership theory proposes a collective strive towards the creative solving of complex problems, due to the nature of the challenges faced in the organisation. Complexity leadership theory acknowledges the informal dynamics of interactive agents, therefore encouraging the shift away from the top-down enforcement of ideas to the acknowledgement of spontaneous ideas and input from role-players at various levels of the organisation. Leadership development interventions need to be based on relevant leadership theory; it is therefore proposed that the complexity leadership theory needs to be explored further, specifically within the SAPS, as a basis for developing leadership development initiatives.

4.3.2 Implications for Policy

The skills development policy of the SAPS (Skills Development Act, 97 of 1998) guides the development of personnel members of the SAPS, whether employed under the Police Service Act (functional police members) or the Public Service Act (administrative members of the SAPS). The SAPS dedicates a generous amount of financial sources to skills development of police leaders according to the budget figures displayed in its annual financial reports. Funds are also allocated for the development of learning programmes that aim to develop specific skills of these leaders.

Whole systems leadership development will necessitate the planning and financing of development, not only of skills of individual leaders, but of the whole system, which implies involvement in leadership at various levels of the hierarchy within the SAPS. Strategic plans therefore need to include the investment and preparation of individuals identified with leadership potential for the future. The focus of the whole system leadership development model shifts away from the development of specific skills of individuals to a system of team preparation for the solving of complex current and future problems faced in the organisation. Skills development initiatives should therefore encompass the notion of development of social capital versus the human capital.

4.3.3 Implications for Fostering Transformative Learning in Practice

A few scholars have explored the concept of fostering transformative learning in practice. For the purpose of this study, the approach to this section would therefore be to firstly revisit Mezirow's steps of perspective transformation, derive questions from the stages relevant when planning or designing such transformative learning intervention, and find possible answers to these questions, which has implications for the planning of leadership development interventions for specifically police leaders in the SAPS, as illustrated in Figure 4.2 below.

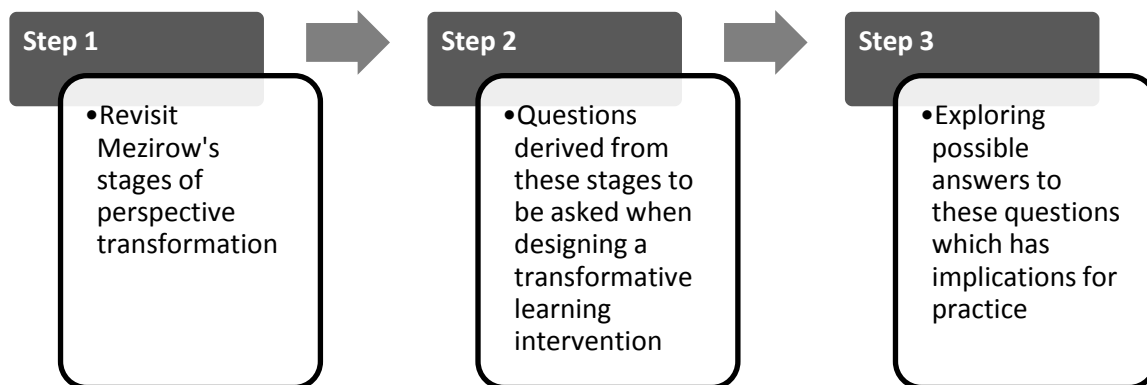


Figure 4.2: Steps in deriving implications for fostering transformative learning in practice

There needs to be careful consideration of the transformative aspects of the programme. This implies that teaching strategies and learning activities that will trigger Mezirow's steps of perspective transformation (in no particular order in the process), which are discussed in Chapter 3, needs to be acknowledged. A further developed version of these stages of perspective transformation is outlined in Table 4.2 on the following page:

Table 4.2: Stages of perspective transformation and questions derived from these stages

MEZIROW'S STAGES OF PERSPECTIVE TRANSFORMATION	QUESTIONS DERIVED FROM MEZIROW'S STAGES TO BE ASKED WHEN DESIGNING A TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING INTERVENTION
<i>A disorienting dilemma</i>	What does the facilitator need to know about creating a disorienting dilemma, and what learning activities and educational strategies can be used to create this dilemma within a safe and secure learning environment?
<i>Self examination with feelings of fear, anger, guilt or shame</i>	What questions posed to the learner, or consciousness-raising experiences, could stimulate self examination, with feelings of fear, anger, guilt or shame, regarding their leadership experiences in the SAPS?
<i>A critical assessment of Assumptions</i>	Which teaching strategies and learning activities can contribute towards a critical assessment of assumptions (individual and group activities)?
<i>Recognition that one's discontent and the process of transformation is shared</i>	Which teaching and learning strategies and group activities could stimulate recognition that one's discontent, and the process of transformation, is shared between police leaders?
<i>Exploration of options for new roles, relationships and actions</i>	How could the facilitator and learning programme contribute to the exploration of options for new roles, relationships and actions in the policing environment?
<i>Planning a course of action</i>	Which learning activities could facilitate the planning of a course of action for the police leader to act on lessons learnt during the course of the programme?
<i>Acquiring knowledge and skills for implementing one's plans</i>	What elementary research methodologies could be integrated into the learning programme to assist the police leader in exploring other views of similar problems experienced in the policing environment in other countries and learning from the solutions proposed?
<i>Provisional trying of new roles</i>	Where in the learning programme could space be provided for the police leader to practice new roles in a safe learning environment? What learning strategies could be useful for such an exercise?
<i>A reintegration into one's life on the basis of conditions dictated by one's new perspective</i>	<p>What support structure will be put in place to assist the police leader throughout the learning process during and after the learning programme?</p> <p>Which formative and summative evaluation methods could be relevant when the police leader has completed the course and needs to practice the lessons learnt in practice?</p>

An integrated exploration of the answers to these questions might assist (in no particular order and not necessary answering all the questions) in providing practical ways in which to foster transformative learning in leadership development interventions for police leaders in the SAPS.

It is essential to understand that a holistic approach to creating a disorienting dilemma implies recognising the role of feelings, other ways of knowing (intuition, somatic), and the role of relationships with others in this stage. The facilitator needs to therefore invite the 'whole' person into the learning environment, the affective, intuitive, thinking, physical and spiritual self. By engaging the affective, it provides an opportunity for establishing a dialogue with those unconscious aspects of the learner seeking expression through various images, feelings, and behaviours within the learning setting. For the facilitator this implies actively dialoguing about the feelings of learners, in conjunction with reason, when fostering transformative learning. Other holistic approaches include recognising the importance of relationships significant for transformation that the facilitator can 'tap' into, including love relationships (enhanced self-image, friendship), memory relationships (former or deceased individuals), imaginative relationships (inner-dialogue, mediation) and the peer dynamic (peer learning partnerships).

Learning activities and educational strategies that can be used to create a disorienting dilemma within a safe and secure learning environment include activities that make the learner feel personally challenged. The facilitator needs to expose learners to viewpoints that may be discrepant with their own. Key questions that a facilitator could use in such learning experience is 'what if we looked at this from another perspective?', or 'what assumptions underlie this viewpoint?' By creating an activating event that typically exposes a discrepancy between what a person has already assumed to be true and what has just been experienced, heard or read, the facilitator might challenge the underlying assumptions of such a learner. Activities can include student autobiographies, films, documentaries, novels, short stories, poems, a song, drawing or sculpture, which often portray unusual perspectives in dramatic and interesting ways. Problem-posing and dialogical methodology could also be effective. The facilitator needs to realise the importance of engaging learners in practices that assist in the development of critical reflection through the use of reflective journaling, classroom dialogue and critical questioning in each of the stages.

Dissonance-producing questions could be a useful tool for the facilitator of the adult learners to trigger and guide reflective processes. Such reflective processes are most successful when context for reflection is structured to provide an appropriate balance of challenge and support. Reflective writing in various forms could be an effective learning activity to stimulate reflective processes. Consciousness-raising experiences can be used by a facilitator to assist the learner to think about

their own work situations, their handling of situations in the working environment, problems experienced in the workplace, managing diversity, and to connect what they talk about in the learning environment to their own context. Consciousness-raising elements in a learning programme could further add to the following learning objectives: (a) cultivating self-awareness, (b) deepening understanding of others, (c) dealing with diverse people and interests, and (d) relating to society and the natural world.

Changing teaching styles that promote interactive discourse could be useful, for example moving from telling to asking. This approach validates learners as important primary sources of information in dealing with their own frames of reference, relating what they must know to what they already know. Communication, dialogue and the art of thinking together points out that the most important dimension of dialogue concerns the atmosphere in which it occurs. The facilitators need to create a situation where the learners actively listen, respect one another and speak their own voice. The facilitator needs to promote understanding and retention by providing opportunities for self-generated elaboration and in-depth processing.

Cultural autobiographies, life histories, diversity panels and presentations, cross-cultural interviews, life histories, activist assignments and reflective analysis journals could also be effective in impacting learners dispositions and further recommended peer learning partnerships, joint and self-reflection, peer feedback, modelling, role reversal and peer-supported experimentation as educational strategies for encouraging transformative learning, as mentioned by scholars who explored such learning activities referred to in Chapter 3. A mentoring system could also match experienced facilitators with those new to the process, so that those new to the process could learn facilitation skills that help guide others on their learning path, such as creating a learning environment, asking probing questions, making connections and synthesising information.

Facilitators of whole systems leadership development processes for police leaders must also be more learner-centred than content-centred, create transforming learning environments, use a variety of facilitation methods, be flexible and be able to critically reflect on their own learning. Case studies, to reflect on work related problems in a safe learning environment and come up with solutions, could further be valuable for learning from mistakes, and sharing one's own vulnerability in the identification of mistakes made in the personal work environment. Challenging group thinking, asking for feedback, supporting tentative steps and experimentation are further transformational learning strategies. Activist action plans that can encourage learners to develop action plans at the micro, meso, and macro levels to help police leaders to act on lessons learnt in the transformative learning process are further proposed.

Transformative learning is a possibility in many educational contexts, particularly when a person or organisation is facing a major challenge; however, facilitators of transformative learning are often navigating complex processes of learning and change. Evaluation of transformative learning processes is therefore not so easy within the learning environment. Instead of the formal evaluation of such processes, this study rather proposes formative and summative assignments to assess learning that took place throughout the learning process. Supportive structures are further needed where the learner may share learning experiences even after the course has completed.

A key challenge for the designers and developers of such a learning programme could be to omit predesigned memorandums to fixed questions in formative and summative assessments. The reality of the situation is that there cannot be fixed memorandums, but rather a way to evaluate the potential development and growth of the learner. There seems to be a need for more research regarding the assessment of the development of transformative learning experiences. Knowledge cannot be assessed in relation to theory gained, but the characteristics of the transformed individual need to be measured in some way. Further research in this area is necessary.

Possible learning activities and educational strategies, proposals for the role of the facilitator and the need for a more integrative assessment strategy that could assess development of process, and knowledge gained in terms of the transformative experiences of the learner were explored. This brings us to the concluding discussion of this study.

4.4 CONCLUSION

This final chapter in this mini-thesis aimed to provide a synthesis of the research results presented in Chapters 2 and 3. Integration of the research findings contributed to the achievement of the overall research aim of the study, which was to develop a conceptual framework for leadership development in the SAPS, based on transformative learning theory, which was presented in this chapter.

The chapter further aimed to derive implications from the results that emerged from the non-empirical study through the integration of the phases in theory development, which included concept identification and analysis; construction of relationship statements and statement synthesis. The implications were divided into three parts, namely those for policy, theory and practice.

The research results expanded on theorists' views and scholarly literature, which indicate that there appears to be a need for transformative learning in leadership development processes. The findings of this study focused on leadership development in the SAPS. Leadership development interventions are currently presented in the SAPS, and researchers (Ketel, Reyneke, Klipin, Carstens & Burger, Van

Beek, Fivaz, Murray and Taylor) have explored the situation with relation to management and leadership development in the SAPS.

This thesis proposed the exploration of transformative learning theory within such leadership development interventions of police leaders in the SAPS to enhance leadership development processes of police leaders. The transformative theory of adult learning appears to be relevant to assist police leaders to critically think about, discuss, reflect on and challenge current assumptions regarding the dealing with contemporary challenges in the South African policing environment. Further research to integrate the elements of transformative learning in a leadership development programme for police leaders of the SAPS is proposed.

The police leader has to cope with considerable pressure in a stressful working environment. Transformative learning is an educational tool that aims to provide the police leader with the necessary cognitive agility to reason about challenges faced and solutions to the problems. Transformative learning in a safe and secure learning environment could also provide a support structure for the police leader to not have to deal with the challenges in isolation. The SAPS has a decentralised organisational structure, with many segments focused on various ways in dealing with crime. The leaders can share their experiences, fears, crises, best practices, successes and new ways of dealing with problems experienced with other leaders, who are in turn experiencing similar challenges. Ultimately the aim of transformative learning is to develop and change, which may be an appropriate educational strategy towards a chance to share, learn, discuss, grow and develop together in their common striving to combat and prevent crime in South Africa.

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ANNEXURE 1: DATA EXTRACTION INSTRUMENT

Data Extraction Form for Interpretative and Critical Research

REVIEWER _____	DATE _____
AUTHOR _____	YEAR _____
JOURNAL _____	RECORD NR _____

STUDY DESCRIPTION

Methodology _____

Method _____

Intervention _____

Setting _____

Geographical _____

Cultural _____

Participants _____

Data analysis _____

Authors Conclusions

Comments

ANNEXURE 2: RELEVANT SEARCH TERMS EXPLORED DURING THE DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

Search for:

In:

Combine using: and or not

Searches this Session:

Select	Terms	Search	Database	Results	Save Search
<input type="checkbox"/>	#1	kw: POLICE and kw: LEADERSHIP	WorldCat	1818	SAVED
<input type="checkbox"/>	#2	kw: POLICE and kw: LEADERSHIP	WorldCat	1818	SAVED
<input type="checkbox"/>	#3	kw: leadership and kw: development	MEDLINE	5412	SAVED
<input type="checkbox"/>	#4	kw: leadership and kw: theory	ERIC	3049	SAVE
<input type="checkbox"/>	#5	kw: leadership	MEDLINE	31114	SAVE
<input type="checkbox"/>	#6	kw: leadership	ERIC	46961	SAVE
<input type="checkbox"/>	#7	kw: Leadership <i>Libraries Worldwide</i>	WorldCat	268071	SAVE
<input type="checkbox"/>	#8	kw: South and kw: African and kw: Police and kw: Service	ISAP - National Library, South Africa	968	SAVE
<input type="checkbox"/>	#9	kw: South and kw: African and kw: Police and kw: Service	ECO	24	SAVE
<input type="checkbox"/>	#10	kw: South and kw: African and kw: Police and kw: Service	ISAP - National Library, South Africa	968	SAVE
<input type="checkbox"/>	#11	kw: South and kw: African and kw: Police and kw: Service	Current and Completed Research	148	SAVE
<input type="checkbox"/>	#12	kw: POLICE and kw: LEADERSHIP	WorldCat	1818	SAVE
<input type="checkbox"/>	#13	kw: POLICE and kw: LEADERSHIP	WorldCat	1818	SAVE

Session timeout: 14:12

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**ANNEXURE 3: CONCEPT IDENTIFICATION OF KEY CONCEPTS
(Leadership in complex organisations; leadership development; complexity leadership theory; transformative learning)**

CONCEPT 1: LEADERSHIP IN COMPLEX ORGANISATIONS		
Situational variables	Environmental scanning	Complexity and ambiguity
Function in context	Opportunistic implementation	Act on appropriate causes
Contextual moderators	Business restructuring task	Increases in complexity
Cognitive capacity	Individual differences	Leadership tasks
Idea evaluation	Probe questions	Decision-making
Cognitive skills	Leader emergence	Wisdom
Complex problems	Schematic knowledge	Conditions
Controllable causes	Processes	Strategies
Applicable problems	Crisis situations	Group and organisational performance
Novel solutions	Sensemaking	Experiential knowledge
Content analysis	Goals	Events
Course of action	Application of reason and logic	Leadership capability
Impact of cognition	Complex management scenarios	Performance demands
Problems	Practical approach to solutions	Active work
Creative thinking skills	Idea generation	Processing operations
Leadership problems	Consideration of subjective information	Forecasting
Intuition	Social system	Affect
Vision formation	Tacit knowledge	Identification
Viable solutions	Multiple strategies	Interpretation
Complex nature	Errors	Flexibility
Conditions of crisis	Change	Crisis implications
Case-based knowledge	Time-pressured problems	Critical attributes
Critical causes	Contingencies	Negative outcomes
Recognition-based decision-making	Application in situations	Critical aspects
Expertise	Information	Plan formation
Observations	Ongoing reflection	Restrictions
Input	Restructuring	Environmental scanning
Systems reflection	Evaluation	Costs
External situation	Resources	Problem-solving efforts
Systems	Monitoring models	Innovation
Context	Time	Diagnostics

CONCEPT 1: LEADERSHIP IN COMPLEX ORGANISATIONS

Functionally orientated	Success	Risks
Learning	Strategies	Response
Emerging opportunities	Experience	Attitudes
Followers	Emergent events	Subordinate attitudes
Strategic influences	Thinking	Reason
Leadership capability	Leadership skills	Strategic planning
Performance demands	Analysis of causes	Uncertainty
Active work	Self-reflection	Information exchange
Processing operations	Information gathering	Participation
Forecasting	Internal situation	Risk exposure
Affect	Actors	Creative potential
Identification	Nature of change, event, crisis	Conversations
Interpretation	Goal attainment	Alignment & control
Flexibility	Constraints	Systematic risks
Consideration	Action	Short term goals
Inconsistent facts	Complex, dynamic settings	Paradox
Markers of progress, opportunity, loss	Plan execution	Drastic organisational response
Social networks	Facts	Organisational constraints
Assessment of gains/losses	Feedback	Resourcefulness
Crisis-responsive charisma	Thinking	Relationship-based
Structures	Causal analysis	Leadership
Influence	Turbulent times+environment	Complexity theory
Unprecedented world	Interconnection	Management tools & techniques
Changes	Challenges	Increased complexity
Macro trends	Adaptive	Decision-making
Complex responsive processes	Discourse	Managing chaos
Leadership uncertainty	Contrary perspectives	Conflictual-competitive
Predictability of outcomes	Listening	Organisational development
Self-organising potential	Learning	Achieve balance
Complex decision-making	Rational decision-making	Certainty
Emergent properties	Innovative leadership approaches	Organisational change
Demands	Societal expectations	Leadership processes
Leadership lacks	Collective activities	Setting direction
Change management	Human resource management	Articulation of mission, vision
Self-awareness	Action learning	Adaptability
Competencies	Navigating complex challenges	Compassion
Building leadership capability	Building commitment	Decisiveness

CONCEPT 2: LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Leadership roles	Self-awareness	Interpersonal
Leadership competence	Collaborative relationship orientation	Personal knowledge
Willingness to learn	Strategic leadership positions	Assessment of strengths
Empathy	Service orientation	Political awareness
Change catalyst	Conflict management	Empowerment
Intentional	Time	Purposeful
Reflective	Progressive in nature	Active process
Organisationally coherent	Continuous	Assessment
Paradigm shift	Old vs new	Progress
Align	Steps	Gain
Manipulate learning environment	Behavioural skills training	Conscious development
Personal development	Individual ability	Lifelong learning
Leadership potential	New meaning structures	Reflective journaling
Values	Personal readiness	Facilitation
Self-esteem	Social (relational)	Outdoor challenges
Team orientation	Building bonds	Whole systems development
Vision	Reward	Conscientisation
Growth	Change	Coaching
In relation with others	Systematic process	Integration
Planned effort	Shift in perspective	360 degree feedback
Discover	Move	Organizational learning
Broaden	Critical thinking	Cognitive domain
Leader styles	Structured programmes	Goal setting
Networking	Critical engagement	Guidance

CONCEPT 3: COMPLEXITY LEADERSHIP THEORY

Complex environments	Study of interactive dynamics of complex systems	Larger organising systems
Complexity	Emergent properties	Systems
Change leadership	Network organisations	Adaptive dynamics
Administrative functions	Change model	Enabling learning
Innovative	Adaptive capacity	Formal, administrative
Informal, complexly dynamic nature	Self-organising mechanisms	Emergence
Integration	Solve problems collectively	Leadership behaviours
Enabling leadership	Administrative leadership	Adaptive function
Enabling conditions	New systems	Interdependent human agents
Integration	Entanglement	Leadership work together
Coordinates	CAS	Uncertainty
Unpredictability	Organisational learning	Double loop learning
Bureaucratic forms of organising	Informal leadership processes	Innovative responses
Complex problems	Outcomes entangled	Interactions
Adaptability	Intertwined	Organisational systems/structures
Unanticipated emergence	Unpredictable outcomes	Unpredictable change processes
Non-linearity	Paradox of control	New patterns
Small changes causing large effects	Spontaneous	Non-reductionist
Wholes, parts	Interdependent entities	Innovative behaviours
Adoption of ideas	Unplanned	Flow of information
New ideas	Positive change	Complex dynamics
Interconnections	Enhancing, stimulating	Bonding
Attractors	Recurrency in feedback loops	Interacting element
Creative linkages	Influence behaviours	Reflexivity (thinking on action)
System goal	Multi-team systems	Collaborative
Alignment	Engagement	Adaptive tension
Conflicting constraints	Adaptive challenges	Complex problem solving
Network of agents	Influences	Contributes
Heterogeneity	Change = emergent, unpredictable	Meso contexts
Structures	People	Centralised control detrimental to innovation
Rules suppress	Bottom-up	Spontaneous processes
Act	Value	Leading change
Collective action	Organisational mission	Administrative-to-adaptive interface
Develop initiatives	Leadership activities	Cumulative learning

CONCEPT 3: COMPLEXITY LEADERSHIP THEORY

Generative adaptive function	Incorporate adaptive outcomes	Leadership contextual
Informal leadership behaviours	Leaders (individuals throughout system)	Characteristic behaviours
Relational interaction	Leadership emerges	Variables
Component parts	Organisational levels	Contextual interactions
Micro-strategic leadership actions	Organisational boundaries	New mindset
Social processes	Relationships	Sharing common interests
Capabilities	Strategic shifts	Dynamic processes
Distributed leadership	Emerging leadership theories	Interactive event
Tackle tough problems	Analyse data	Dynamic network analysis
Study of events	Catalyse emergence	Social grouping
Leadership events	Collective social system	Group vs individual
Expands potential for creativity	Empowerment	Respect diversity
Cultural respect	One-to-one conversations	One-to-many leadership exchanges
Emerging organisational trends	Complexity of real world	

CONCEPT 4: TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING

Theory of adult learning & development	Extrinsic catalyst	Intrinsic change
Reflective analysis	Critical thinking	Probing
Deductions	Assumptions	Alignment
Visualisation	Past	Experiences
Talk	Emancipatory	Learning
Social environment	Consciousness	Positive feelings
Disorientation dilemma	Challenge	Self-directed
Circumstances	Self-examination	Shame
Recognise	Decide	Identify
Values	Beliefs	Ethics
Discontent	Perspective	Rational discourse
Social transformation	Adult learning principles	Constructivism
Lifelong learning	Adult	Arguments
Solutions	Agree	Objective
Individual	Andragogy	Individual
Cognitive thought process	Thinking mode	Cognitive thought process
Enquiry	Organisational learning	Enquiry
Discussions	Share	Discussions
Frames of reference	Mezirow	Frames of reference
Negative feelings	Guilt	Negative feelings
Measure	Weigh	Measure
Fear	Options	Fear
Deconstruct	Mindset	Deconstruct
Conduct	Relationships	Conduct
Critical reflection	Reflective journaling	Critical reflection
Self-directed learning readiness	Learner-centred approach	Self-directed learning readiness
Freedom	Alternative	Freedom
Neutral	Validity	Neutral
Andragogy	Comprehend	Verbal
Thinking mode	Problem	Common ground
Organisational learning	Paradigm shift	Align
Share	Justify	Trust
Mezirow	Arguments	Freedom
Guilt	Provocative declarations	Deconstruct
Weigh	Purpose	Learning situations
Options	Problem-solving	Learning activities
Relationships	Happenings	Development
Reflective journaling	Day	Time

CONCEPT 4: TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING

Learner-centred approach	Consciousness	Reality
Alternative	Deductions	Beliefs
Validity	Reflect	Think
Analytical	Specifications	Reactions
Understand	Occurrence	Uncertainty
Values	Transformation	Recovery
Synthesis	Policy praxis	Pursuit
Neutral	Responsibility	Awareness
Concepts	Role-players	Centrality of experience
Initiative	Context	Scenario
Learning objectives	Reason	Interpretation
Process	Search	Find
Changes	Validity	Critical incidents
Incidence	Personal viewpoint	Worldviews
Link	Contribute	Participate
Influence	Facilitation	Approach
Analyse	Independent thinking	Relate
World	Events	Trigger
Inclusive	Assumptions	Influence
History	Past action	Possibilities
Courses of action	Evaluate	Assess
Intrinsic	Role-players	Information
Knowledge	Witnesses	Diary
Goals	Discomfort	Liberation
Transformation	Discuss	Meaning-making