

EVALUATION OF MIDDLE MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

by

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Declaration

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ABSTRACT

The research focused on the development of middle managers within the South African Police Services in the Republic of South Africa. Management development and the current issues within the field of management development are discussed. Competencies and competency requirements for managers and specifically competency requirements for managers within a government sphere provide the background for the evaluation of the Middle Management Learning Programme (MMLP). This program is offered by the South African Police Services to their employees on middle management level. The legislative environment in which development take place within South Africa establish an understanding of the kind of issues the South African Police Service deals with when developing their middle management corps.

An overview of the Acts, policies and guidelines is provided followed by the discussion of the program content of the Middle Management Learning Programme. The research makes use of a mixed method methodology through using both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The research is evaluative in nature and is evaluating the competencies taught in the programme against key competencies such as the American Management Association's (AMA) competency model and police management competencies. A questionnaire was developed and completed by members within the South African Police Service who attended the Middle Management Learning Program over a three year period (2011-2013). This questionnaire was divided into 4 sections with section 1 covering biographical information, section 2 focused on Kirkpatrick's (1959) four levels typology on training interventions, section three is based on The AMA competency model and the last section is based on police management competencies.

The research results of the questionnaire are presented graphically in the form of histograms and tables. In competencies such as action orientation, time management, mental flexibility and agility, critical and analytical thinking, and creative thinking the research findings show that there is room for improvement on these key competencies. Recommendation is made based on these results for further development of the programme. The final chapter also makes recommendations regarding the integration of development programs into a structured framework and a potential model on development of managers within the SAPS is suggested.

OPSOMMING

Die navorsing is op die ontwikkeling van middelvlakbestuurders in die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie (SAPD) in die Republiek van Suid-Afrika gefokus. Bestuursontwikkeling en die huidige kwessies binne die terrein van bestuursontwikkeling word bespreek. Bevoegdheid en bevoegdheidsvereistes vir bestuurders, en spesifiek bevoegdheidsvereistes vir bestuurders binne 'n regeringsfeer, dien as agtergrond vir die evaluasie/beoordeling van die Middelvlakbestuur Leerprogram. Dié program word deur die SAPD op middelbestuursvlak vir sy werknemers aangebied. Die wetgewende omgewing waarin ontwikkeling binne Suid-Afrika plaasvind, vestig begrip vir die soort kwessies wat die SAPD hanteer wanneer hy sy middelvlakbestuurskorps ontwikkel.

'n Oorsig van die wette, beleide en riglyne word verskaf gevolg deur 'n bespreking van die programinhoud van die Middelvlakbestuur Leerprogram. Die navorsing maak gebruik van 'n gemengde-metode metodologie deur kwalitatiewe en kwantitatiewe navorsingsmetodes aan te wend. Die navorsing is evaluerend van aard en meet die bevoegdhede wat in die program oorgedra word teen sleutel-bevoegdhede soos die bevoegdheidsmodel en polisiebestuursbevoegdhede van die Amerikaanse Bestuursvereniging (AMA). 'n Vraelys is ontwikkel en deur lede binne die SAPD voltooi wat die Middelvlakbestuur Leerprogram (MMLP) oor 'n tydperk van drie jaar (2011-2013) meegemaak het. Dié vraelys is in vier seksies verdeel met seksie 1 wat biografiese inligting dek, seksie 2 wat fokus op Kirkpatrick (1959) se vier vlakke tipologie rakende opleidingintervensies, seksie 3 wat op die AMA-bevoegdheidsmodel gebaseer is en die laaste seksie wat gerig is op polisiebestuursbevoegdhede.

Die navorsingsresultate van die vraelys word grafies in die vorm van histogramme en tafels aangebied. Wat bevoegdhede soos aksie-oriëntasie, tydsbestuur, geestelike buigbaarheid en vlugheid, kritiese en analitiese denke en kreatiewe denke betref, toon die navorsingsbevindings dat daar ruimte vir verbetering ten opsigte van hierdie sleutel-bevoegdhede bestaan. Aanbevelings vir verdere ontwikkeling van die program word op grond van die vermeldde resultate gedoen. In die slothoofstuk word ook aanbevelings gedoen rakende die samevoeging van ontwikkelingsprogramme in 'n gestruktureerde raamwerk en 'n potensiële model vir die ontwikkeling van bestuurders binne die SAPD word ook voorgestel.

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CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Changes that have occurred in the political landscape of South Africa since 1994 have led to changes in the structure, management and work methods of the South African Police Service (SAPS). These changes include changes not only within the SAPS, but also in the policing needs of the communities it serves.

Political change in the rest of the African continent also impacted on the types of crimes and the sophistication of methods use to commit crimes. Aboagye (2007:2) argues as follows:

“Increasing regional integration within Africa has implied open borders for the movement of people, goods and services with greater ease and speed. As a global phenomenon, this has also been accentuated by the widespread use of modern means of cellular and satellite communications”.

These changes require a police service that changes with time and employs more sophisticated development methods. To remain competitive any organisation needs a workforce that possesses both operational skills and higher level technical, strategic, managerial and problem solving abilities.

This can only be attained by investment in human capital through development that is needs specific and includes tertiary study. Reynecke and Fourie (2001:86) states that the SAPS requires specific skills, knowledge and attitudes from its members and therefore the responsibility rests on the SAPS to create opportunities for its members to develop these specific competencies. The authors further argues that when members take the initiative to develop themselves through academic study the SAPS must recognise such prior learning and incorporate it within its promotions and reward systems.

The SAPS needs police officers with a specific set of knowledge, skills and attitude that will enable them to execute their duties. These duties range from administrative duties, to general

policing duties to functions that require technical skills such as forensic services. According to Kempen (2006:43) several pathways exist in the SAPS:

“Learning pathways – An vocational pathway (obtaining generic policing skills); an academic pathway (own study) and an occupational pathway with options ranging from crime prevention, crime intelligence, resolving/investigation of crime, tactical (ORS), dog handling, bomb disposal to forensic science”.

Middle management within any organisation is important as it is this level of management that is directly managing the operating core of the organisation. This level of management is critical for any organisation because it operationalises and implements strategic plans that are developed at the management apex of the organisation. These middle managers are also the future senior managers, and development of their management capabilities is imperative. The responsibilities and functions of middle managers within the policing environment vary. These can range from functions such as shift commanders, group leaders and support managers that manage functions such as human resource management and financial management, at bigger police stations, to roles such as station commanders, unit commanders and managers within the support services environments at smaller police stations and units. It is important that a development path exist whereby the specific management competencies needed by middle managers are developed. The training programme provided by the SAPS address some of these development needs, but to be competitive, a broader understanding is needed and higher level skills must be developed in the middle management corps.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Ketel (2005:156) quotes Van Beek (2003) who makes the following bleak prediction about where management development in the SAPS might be heading.

“Management development will be diluted to an administrative office, inviting tenders and coordinating outsourced activities from all over the country. This will be the direct result of lack of vision and leadership within the training component and the inability of its trainers to stay abreast with new technology”.

Ketel (2005:156) proceeds to draw the following conclusion “...but the current reality of the strategic role and operational efficiency of this division within the SAPS leads the researcher to agree with Van Beek and other role players”.

This research focused on the current reality and whether these predictions might come true. The aim was to evaluate the current Middle Management Learning Programme (MMLP) in place and whether the content of this programme was aligned with the specific competencies needed by middle managers within the SAPS. The researcher attempted to draw conclusions from the data presented to verify whether the skills development policy of the SAPS and programmes flowing from this policy compared favourably with the identified competencies for middle managers in a public management setting.

1.3 LITERATURE REVIEW: DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT THEORIES AND MODELS

1.3.1 Theories on management development

According to Thomson, Mabey, Storey, Gray and Iles (2001:15) the following theories of management development can be identified.

- **Human capital and labour market theory**

The theory on human capital and labour market is built on the role of skills in the economy and primarily comes from the field of macro-economics. The main premise of this theory is that income relates directly to productivity, and in order to increase productivity there should be an increase in education or in-service training.

- **Learning theory**

The learning theory focuses on the methods that an individual or organisation employs to acquire certain skills and knowledge. The basic premise is that successful programs can only be developed if the reasons, conditions and method of learning are known. This means that when management development programmes are developed, the programmes must be structured in such a way that they engage “... the learners processes of maturation, self-fulfilment and self-determination; the learners knowledge and emotional investment in the learning they are embarking on; the learners past experiences of learning and their expectations about both the way in which the learning occurs and their own capabilities to learn” (Thomson *et al.*, 2001:20).

- **Organisation and human resource theory**

The organisation and human resource theory focuses on organisational structure and the increasingly specialised nature of managerial functions. At the same time, managers need to be able to perform more generic managerial tasks that take cognisance of the objectives of the organisation as a whole. Another dimension is the need for managers to move from more functional operational skills to more generalised management competencies.

1.3.2 American Management Association Management Development Competency Model

This model for management competency examines the competencies needed for different levels of management, from the individual professional to managers who are responsible for specific functions within their organisations. According to this model, management competencies are cumulative and the individual must first master the competencies on one level before learning and mastering the next level of competencies. This model is divided into three categories of competency with different competencies for each category. The categories are as follows: “knowing and managing yourself (10 competencies), knowing and managing others (17 competencies) and knowing and managing the business (19 competencies)”. (Tobin & Pettingell, 2008:43).

1.4 DEFINITIONS

1.4.1 Development

Development not focuses on formal learning alone, but is something that happens continuously throughout a human beings life as he/she enters different stages for instance baby, toddler, teenager, young adulthood, middle age and finally old age. Reynecke and Fourie (2001:87) aptly describe development as follows: “...development generates opportunities for the growth of learners without any direct relation to job performance current or future”. Development thus takes place through education, learning, on the job training and general skills that a person gains throughout his/her life. Gillery and Egglan as quoted in Ngwenya (2010:6) define development as the advancement of knowledge, skills and attitudes that leads to improved behaviour of people at the organisation, for both their personal and professional use. Within human resource management and human resource development literature, development as a concept embraces both the outer reality of the environment and organisational goals and the inner reality of the emerging self. Ngwenya (2010:6) quotes Baum (1995) who characterises

development "... as a process that takes place at any time and is not constrained by formal parameters or at specified points within an individual's lifecycle".

1.4.2 Training

According to Miller (2007:12) executive training is "... less about refining what exist than creating what does not exists". This definition makes a clear distinction between training aimed at developing technical skills and executive training. A distinction can be made between training and learning. Training mostly focuses on the transfer of information about a particular subject, whereas learning deals with internalising that information and developing a broader understanding of the training material.

1.4.3 Learning

Tobin and Pettingell (2008:17) propose a four stage model of learning in their American Management Association (AMA) guide to management development. These are as follows: data, information, knowledge and wisdom. Data are everywhere in the surrounding environment of each individual; when relevance is given to the data it become information, which is the second stage of the learning model. When the learned information is applied, it represents the third stage of the model namely knowledge. The fourth stage, wisdom, occurs when information is internalised and that information together with experience leads to tacit knowledge that gives a deeper understanding of issues and represents the last stage of the model.

1.4.4 Education

Education encompasses a whole range of learning and can be defined as "... activities that cover a broad range of topics for a broad purpose.... The concept of education includes also the learning activities that occur in an enterprise..." (Erasmus, Loedolff, Mda & Nel, 2006:2). Formal education normally refers to the studies carried out at school and tertiary institutions, while training refers to the mastering of a specific skill that will enable an individual to perform a certain job. It is imperative for any organisation to develop its employees on a continuous basis in order to remain competitive. This is especially true for the SAPS which have to meet the needs of a fast-changing society. Failure to change will lead to stagnation and inability to ensure safe and secure environment for the citizens of the country.

1.4.5 Difference between education, training, learning and development

Erasmus *et al.* (2006: 2) describe training as the way in which an enterprise uses a systematic process to enhance the knowledge, skills and behaviour of its employees to enable it to achieve its objectives and define education as "...activities that cover a broad range of topics for a broad purpose". The authors further explain that the concept of education also includes the learning activities that occur within the organisation. The underlying philosophy is that education creates a general basis that prepares an individual for life, and that training prepares the individual to perform specific tasks in a particular job. Camp, Blanchard and Huszczo quoted in Reynecke and Fourie (2001:87) differentiate among training, education and development and described these concepts as follows: Training refers to those activities that are aimed at generating knowledge to enhance the current job performance of the learner. Education refers to activities or programmes that aim at preparing learners for future posts or job assignments. Development is described as the growth opportunities that the individual uses when information learned during interaction with the environment combines and leads to personal growth that allows the individual to function better in all spheres of life. The central theme is that training, learning and education contribute to the overall development of the learner.

1.5 POLICE DEVELOPMENT

1.5.1 Basic police development

Two routes exist for entrance into the SAPS. One is the mainstream way whereby recruits enter the police service after leaving school or finalising academic studies. The second is known as lateral entry and refers to those members with a specific skill set who enters the SAPS after finalising their formal studies. These are specialists whose job requires specialised knowledge in a specific field, for example forensic analysts, legal experts, artisans, social workers and psychologists. The training of police officers, who enters the SAPS through the mainstream route, starts with the Basic Police Development Programme (BPDP) that takes place at one of the 10 basic police development academies that are spread throughout the country. This programme takes place over a two year period, and recruits are trained in different disciplines to become qualified police officers. The training of lateral entrants is known as the Introductory Police Development Program that takes place over a period of 12 weeks at a basic police development academy.

These entry level recruits are taught during the first phase of training by facilitators with a teaching qualification and background that typically underwent the Introductory Police Development Programme. Cleveland and Saville (2007:9) state that there are two main gateways into the police subculture of teaching. One is the academy instructor. The other is the field trainer who coaches the recruit upon finalising the academy phase. These two gate keepers have tremendous influence over a new officer's introduction to the norms, standards and values of the police profession. Basic police training in a South African context typically consists of the academy phase which comprises a period of 10 months, a field training phase for 12 months and another 2 months of assessments on work covered during the academy and field training phases.

1.5.2 Management and leadership development within SAPS

The development of junior, middle and senior managers within the SAPS takes place at the two management and leadership academies of the SAPS. One is situated in the Western Cape Province (Paarl Management and Leadership Academy) and one in the Free State Province (Thabong Management and Leadership Academy). Different programmes are offered at these two academies, with Thabong focusing on junior management development programmes and Paarl focusing on middle and senior management development programmes.

1.5.3 Different management development courses in the SAPS

Development of managers starts with the Basic Management Learning Programme (BMLP) which focuses on an introduction to management concepts and is aimed at junior ranks within the SAPS. The next level of management development, the Junior Management Learning Programme (JMLP) builds on information learned during the BMLP. The MMLP is focused on the middle management echelon of the SAPS. The final level of management development is aimed at developing management competencies of senior management and is known as the Executive Management Development Learning Programme (EDLP). The other programmes mentioned does not focus on middle management development but on entry level or senior levels of management and will only be discussed briefly. This research focused on the development of middle managers in the SAPS and only the MMLP will be discussed in-depth in this study.

Few management programs within the SAPS are currently accredited with the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) or have a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) level,

with the exception of the Basic Police Development Program which has a NQF Level 5 accreditation. Plans are currently in progress to have the subjects offered in the JMLP accorded with an NQF Level 6 accreditation. This undertaking is however still in its infancy and a great deal of ground work must still be done by decision makers within the Division Human Resource Development of the SAPS.

1.6 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, chapter 11, Section 206, states that the object of the Police Service is “to prevent, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold law and order” (Republic of South Africa [RSA], 1996). The South African Police Services Act (SAPS Act) (68 of 1995) (RSA, 1995a) in chapter 5 confers specific powers, duties and functions on police officers, while Section 14 specifically deals with the duty of police officers to preserve the life, the health and the property of citizens of the RSA. In order to execute this mandate the SAPS needs a skilled workforce that is able to instil confidence in its ability to ensure every citizens safety. The Skills Development Act (97 of 1998) (RSA, 1998) places certain duties and responsibilities on every employer to develop and train its employees. The SAPS has the responsibility in terms of this act, to provide development to its workforce.

1.7 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES

The SAPS faces several challenges and the development of its human resources is critical in ensuring that the organisation wins the fight against crime. The question should be posed whether the programmes in place are suitable for equipping middle managers with the competencies to ensure optimal resource usage (human and physical), technical skills, and analytical, strategic and general management competencies to ensure that the SAPS meets its constitutional mandate of keeping the South African public safe. Middle management in particular in every organisation, not only needs to have technical skills pertaining to operational issues, but also needs to be able to interpret and implement acts, policies, guidelines and the organisation’s strategic plans. Non-alignment of the content of training programmes with competency requirements can have catastrophic results, as many media head-lines regarding police incompetence has shown. The study sought to answer the question whether there was an

alignment between the content of the middle management development programmes and the competency requirements of middle managers in the SAPS.

The objectives of the study were to establish the following:

- a) How the MMLP is aligned with the three AMA categories of management competencies, as well as the general management requirements for middle managers in a government sector such as the SAPS.
- b) How these development programme address the development needs of middle managers within the SAPS.
- c) What factors inform the programme content of Middle Management Development Programmes in the SAPS?
- d) How to develop a training model or framework for middle managers in the SAPS.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN

Mouton (2008:55) describes research design as a blueprint that a researcher uses to explain how he/she plans to conduct the research. This research will make use of a mixed method research design by using a mixture of quantitative and qualitative research methods. It will focus on program evaluation and content analysis by analysing the content of the Middle Management Development Programme of the SAPS, policy documents, written communication and feedback from questionnaires. The research was evaluative in nature as sought to evaluate whether the MMLP of the SAPS addressed the competency requirements of middle managers within the SAPS. The study evaluated the content of the MMLP of the SAPS and compared the competencies taught during the programme with different management competencies as required from a middle manager within the government sector. The qualitative nature of this research allowed for the description and exploration of the development of middle managers within the SAPS as well as an evaluative approach to the MMLP as the chosen intervention for middle management development. The quantitative aspect allows for the interpretation of the research results.

Evaluation research is described by Babbie (2010:366) as follows:

“Evaluation research is a matter of finding out whether something is there or not. To conduct evaluation research we must be able to operationalise, observe and recognise the presence or absence of what is under study”.

A key aspect of programme evaluation is to measure whether a programme that is intended to accomplish a certain outcome actually succeeds in reaching that outcome. According to Babbie

(2010:376), the most effective evaluation research is evaluation research that combines both qualitative and quantitative components.

According to Mouton (2008), content analysis is exploratory and descriptive in nature and can contain both a qualitative and a quantitative component. The conceptualisation is normally inductive and a-theoretical. The mode of observation is through given data sources. Mouton further explains “Content analysis is usually aimed at public documents ...political speeches and so on” (Mouton, 2008:166).

1.9 METHODOLOGY

1.9.1 Sampling

The sampling strategy combined both non-probability sampling and theoretical selection. Non-probability sampling is described by Welman, Kruger and Mitchel (2009:67) as the probability that any element (unit of analysis) will be included cannot be specified. The unit of analysis, in this study was the MMLP measured against the competency requirements of middle managers in the SAPS. The researcher made use of purposive sampling which is described as “...experience, ingenuity and/or previous research findings...to deliberately obtain units of analysis in such a manner that the sample they obtain may be regarded as being representative of the relevant population” (Welman *et al.*, 2009:69). The main limitation of this selection process is the extent to which the sample represents the population. Different approaches by different researchers might lead to different ways of obtaining information, and might lead to difficulty in evaluating to what extent the sample is representative of the population (Welman *et al.*, 2009:69).

1.9.2 Data collection

Multiple methods of data collection were used by employing all available modes of observation (documents, policies, course material, and participation records). Questionnaires were also sent out to learners who had attended the MMLP presented by the SAPS Division HRD at Paarl Management and Leadership Academy in the past three years (2011-2013). The researcher made use of a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods to analyse the data collected through the questionnaires.

1.9.3 Program evaluation

Evaluation is described by Morra Imas and Rist (2009:9) as "...the process of determining the worth or significance of an activity, policy, or program. (It is) as systematic and objective as possible, of a planned, on-going or completed intervention". The authors explain that evaluation has four purposes namely ethical, managerial, decisional, and educational and motivational purposes. Babbie (2010:366) described evaluation research as follows: "Evaluation research is a matter of finding out whether something is there or not. To conduct evaluation research we must be able to operationalise, observe and recognise the presence or absence of what is under study". A key aspect of programme evaluation is to measure whether a programme that is intended to accomplish a certain outcome actually succeeds in reaching that outcome.

Paddock (1997: 441-446) state the following as important benchmarks when planning and evaluating management development interventions in a government setting: Oversight and leadership of the program, stability of administrative and financial support, consistent management philosophy, administrative control, selection and support of participants, accessibility, preparation for and application of classroom learning, quality of program delivery, evaluation of participants and on-going programme evaluation. The four levels typology developed by Kirkpatrick in 1959 that is still widely used today, is another method to evaluate whether the training intervention has reached its intended outcome. This typology focuses on the following four levels:

- Level 1: Reaction (did participants like the program?)
- Level 2: Learning (did participants change their attitude, knowledge or skill?)
- Level 3: Transfer (did participants change their behaviour?)
- Level 4: Results (did participants become more productive?)

Grobler and Warnich (2006:323) explain Kirkpatrick's (1959) four levels typology as follows: the first level Reaction, questions the skills of the trainers, the quality of the facility where the training is presented, the relevance and quality of the programme content as well as the techniques used to present the programme. The second level, Learning, is often assessed by doing pre- and post-tests as it deals with the knowledge that the programme participants had before and after the development intervention. The third level asks how the behaviour of the learner has changed. Development interventions aim to teach certain competencies and transfer

a body of knowledge that results in a change in work performance. The fourth level looks at what impact the intervention or programme has had on the organisational goals and whether that has led to organisational effectiveness.

Cartwright and Cooper (2008:293) list three key advantages of evaluating training and development interventions. These are expanded understanding and relevant criteria, the building of a numerological network of relationships among criteria and improvements in techniques for examining change as a function of training. All these factors are important and were used in this study to evaluate whether the training and development intervention had its intended outcome.

1.10 CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter 1 provided an overview of the concepts, preliminary literature review and research process that will be followed in this research. The second chapter of the research provided the literature reviewed and background on management development in a broader scope. Definitions of Education, Lifelong Learning, Training and Development was provided and discussed. Competencies and competency requirements were then discussed to provide background for the research question that dealt with competency requirements of middle managers within the SAPS. Chapter 3 focused on the legislative background and different police management development courses in place. The MMLP of the SAPS was discussed in depth. Chapter 4 provided the research objectives, methodology and sampling techniques followed in the research. The questionnaire that was used to extract information regarding the MMLP was presented and discussed. Chapter 4 further provided a graphical presentation of the research results with a short description of the relevant section in the questionnaire. In chapter 5 the research results was discussed and recommendation and conclusion is provided in chapter 6.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW: MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT, APPROACHES, THEORIES, MODELS AND MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES IMPACTING ON POLICE DEVELOPMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will give an overview and definitions of the terms development, lifelong learning, learning and education. The importance of training needs assessment and evaluation of these programmes will be discussed. The different management and development approaches, theories and models, that are popular in the management development literature, will be explained. Byrne and Rees (2008:1) states that while there are many excellent approaches to management development, most of these focuses primarily on individual development and not on processes that would allow an organisation to build its own program that is aimed specifically at these competencies that are required within the specific environment of that particular organisation.

This chapter will look into such processes and how the various theories and models fit into the development of competencies that will allow organisational and personal growth. Organisations face a highly competitive and volatile environment, and it is crucial that their managers are effective, productive, and efficient. This means that in today's public service environment, government departments are looking at management programmes that will not only develop the individual employee, but will ensure that the organisation achieve its goals in the most effective and efficient manner. Government departments need management capabilities to survive in a highly competitive environment. The different competency models are explained and the competencies required by government managers are discussed in this chapter.

2.2 DEFINITIONS: DEVELOPMENT, LIFELONG LEARNING, LEARNING, TRAINING AND EDUCATION

2.2.1 Development

Defining development, Ngwenya (2010:6) states the following: “Development refers to an all-important process, through which individual and organisational growth can achieve its full potential over time”. He further explains development as an act or process that can be described as “a gradual unfolding of growth”. Gillery and Egglund (1989) quoted in Ngwenya (2010:6) define development as the advancement of knowledge, skills and attitudes that leads to improved behaviour of people at the organisation, for both their personal and professional use. Within human resource management/human resource development literature, development as a concept embraces both the external environment and organisational goals and the inner reality of the emerging self. Ngwenya (2010:6) quotes Baum (1995) who characterises development “... as a process that takes place at any time and is not constrained by formal parameters or at specified points within an individual’s lifecycle”. Development is not only focuses on formal learning but is something that happens continuously throughout a human beings life as he/she enter different stages namely baby, toddler, teenager, young adulthood, middle age and finally old age. Reynecke and Fourie (2001:87) aptly describe development as follows: “...development generates opportunities for the growth of learners without any direct relation to job performance current or future”. Development thus takes place during education, lifelong learning, training and general skills that a person gains throughout his/her life cycle.

2.2.1.1 Lifelong learning

Jarvis (2007:99) states that today, unlike the early part of the 20th century, it has become common to think of education as lifelong as the different social structures between stages in the lifecycle are lowered and education is not limited to a specific life stage. From this background, Jarvis (2007:99) surmises that lifelong learning today includes non-formal, formal and informal learning. Lifelong learning is defined by Jarvis (2007:99) as “every opportunity made available by any social institution for and every process by which, an individual can acquire knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, emotions, beliefs and senses within the global society”. Lifelong learning does not only occur because of conscious effort but also happens implicitly. Learning thus takes place throughout all the stages of life and occurs for the duration of the lifespan of the individual. Lifelong learning is described by the European Commission in Luftenegger, Schober, Van de Schoot, Wagner, Finterwald and Spiel (2012:27) as “all

learning activities undertaken throughout life, with the aim to improving knowledge, skill and competence within a personal, civic, social, and/or employment related perspective”. According to Luftenegger *et al.* (2012:27), lifelong learning is not a new concept in psychology as it combines current theories and models under a lifespan perspective and is an important component of various branches of psychology such as educational psychology, development psychology and organisational psychology.

Luftenegger *et al.* (2012:28) proposes two central components of lifelong learning: a persistent motivation and appreciation for learning (will to learn) and the capacity to successfully translate the will to learn into concrete actions that enhance existing knowledge and skill levels (skill to learn). The individual who considers learning and knowledge acquisition as attractive and valuable will be able to successfully make the transition from the “will to learn” to the “skill to learn”. Zimmerman in Luftenegger *et al.*,(2012:28) developed a cyclical self-regulated learning model comprises of three phases: (a) initiating and planning a learning action (forethought); (b) learning action taken in a narrower sense (performance/volition); and (c) a functional assessment of the learning action (self-reflection). This involves that an individual undertaking the learning action thinks about the proposed learning action and initiates it. The motivation for undertaking the learning action should be clear and the individual should then reflect on the learning action to assess its value.

Luftenegger *et al.* (2012:28) states “Only when learning is driven by internal sources and can be self-managed can successful lifelong learning be ensured without a permanent dependence on environmental enhancement”. Jarvis (2007:147) describes the aim of lifelong learning as creating a culture of learning or intended learning. Learning occurs naturally as a result of living, but intended learning is basically vocational in nature. Workplace learning takes up a prominent position in lifelong learning. It is not the learning process but the learning outcomes that are important in the workplace.

Jarvis (2007:123) describes lifelong learning in terms of two different views. One sees lifelong learning as a new social movement while the second refers to it as a marketable commodity trading on the claims of the first one. “Learning opportunities are commodities to be sold and educational organisations are being forced to adopt a global capitalist learning market”. Jarvis (2007:113) cites Fields (1999) who states that

“...a great deal of professional development and skills updating is carried out not because anyone wants to learn, but because they are required to learn. Contract compliance, regulatory frameworks and structuring requirements are the three main culprits”.

Huang and Kim (2011:2) also state that “...it is not surprising that organisational lifelong learning can often become a mere inspiration rather than reality”. Senge (1990:139) in his theory on organisational learning states that organisations learn through individuals who learn, but that individual learning will not necessarily guarantee organisational learning.

Jarvis (2007:97) states that

“The boundaries between education and learning beyond school are no longer recognised and formal education is being forced to accredit learning that occurs beyond the education system; lifelong learning may now be regarded as a combination of human learning and recurrent education”.

According to Bidokht and Assereh (2011:1449) a culture of lifelong learning brings real benefits to society as well as to the individual, the employer and those employed. Lifelong learning is the key to improving the social fabric of society as well of that of the local economy. Learning contributes to all life stages, and learning should be inclusive of all ages and all communities. The authors propose the following three core principles to support lifelong learning:

- a) Lifelong learning should be valued in its own right as a source of fulfilment, and as a means of building individual and community capacity and self-determination.
- b) Lifelong learning should be integral to improving attainment in preschool children and in schools by influencing attitudes to learning and enhancing the abilities of parents and instructors to support children’s education.
- c) Lifelong learning should support the development of skills, to ensure that in future jobs will be sourced locally and that communities will thrive through improved opportunities for fulfilling and rewarding employment.

2.2.1.2 Learning

Laird (2003:138) explains the difference between pedagogy (the teaching of children), from the Latin root ‘Ped’, which means ‘child’, and andragogy, from the word ‘andra’, which is

derived from the Greek ‘aner’, which refers to a man. “Thus andragogy studies how adults learn. It asks whether they learn in ways that are significantly different from the ways in which children acquire new behaviours”. Sadler-Smith (2006:3) defines andragogy as follows: “Andragogy – The process of gaining knowledge and/or expertise”. This means that learning is more than just merely the acquisition of a specific set of skills. It goes deeper and even changes the values and attitudes of an individual. Learning therefore has a profound impact on the very being of a person and can lead to a complete change in the knowledge, attitudes and skills of an individual. It enables a person to master tasks and to adopt a certain belief system that seemed impossible before the learning intervention.

According to Laird (2003:139), the following six andragogical assumptions are made about learning when training adults:

- a) Adults need to know why they need to learn something before learning it.
- b) The self-concept of adults is heavily dependent upon a move towards self-direction.
- c) Prior experiences of the learner provide a rich resource for learning.
- d) Adults typically become ready to learn when they experience a need to cope with a life situation or perform a task.
- e) Adults’ orientation to learning is life-centred, and they see education as a process of developing increased competency levels to achieve their full potential.
- f) The motivation for adult learners is internal rather than external.

The above assumptions shows that adult learning is self-directed and programmes that are designed in such a manner that they allow the adult learner some room for independence, will be most effective. Dulworth and Bordonaro (2005:36) distinguish between implicit learning and explicit learning and describe implicit learning as the acquisition of knowledge that takes place largely in the following manner:

- Independently of conscious attempts to learn.
- Without awareness of how learning took place.
- In the absence of explicit knowledge about what knowledge or skill was acquired.

Explicit learning is described by Dulworth and Bordonaro (2005:36) as learning that is more often than not concerned with processes in which there is a conscious and overt attempt to acquire new knowledge or learn a new skill. Explicit learning is viewed from an instrumental perspective as an intentional process aimed at improving effectiveness. Explicit learning is

described by Sadler-Smith (2006:150) as a process that is overt and conscious. Sadler-Smith (2006:151) explains the link between explicit and implicit learning as follows: “However, in many learning situations (life experiences more generally) implicit learning takes place with inevitability, and the outcome of any learning experience or event may have both explicit and implicit facets”. This means that the outcome of a learning intervention, even though its goal is instrumental and there is a conscious effort to learn a certain set of skills, has both implicit and explicit learning implications.

Sadler-Smith (2006:4) describes learning as a long term change in the knowledge that individuals possess their different types and levels of skill, and their values, attitudes and assumptions. This then leads to increased potential to grow, develop and perform in more effective and efficient ways. Sadler-Smith goes further and describes the importance of the learning process, and the ability of the learning process to provide a competitive edge to the organisation as the employees engage in learning and learn to learn more effectively. “This may present a generic competence that can help an organisation to differentiate itself from its competitors” (Sadler-Smith: 2006:5). Sadler-Smith (2006:2) stresses the importance of learning both on an individual level and on an organisational level. He maintains that individuals may be transformed by their learning, but may also gain the power to transform the context. This means that learning enable the individual to change and/or better his/her circumstances. Sadler-Smith (2006:2) explains this process as follows:

“...it is through learning that we acquire new knowledge, skills and attitudes that may enable us to function and perform more efficiently and effectively and exercise greater choices in our working and personnel lives”.

Gold, Thorpe and Mumford (2010:111) uses Boyatzis model of learning to illustrate that learning first take place on an individual level where the learner experiments with new thoughts, behaviours and feelings and reflects on what was learned and is able to identify gaps. Secondly, as the learner practises behaviours related to these new thoughts and feelings, new neural pathways are created and the learned behaviour is embedded and becomes commonplace.

2.2.1.3 Training

Erasmus, *et al.*, (2006:2) give the following definition of training: “Training is the way in which an organisation uses a systematic process to modify the knowledge, skills, and behaviour of employees that will enable it to achieve its objectives”. They explain that training is ‘task

orientated' because it focuses on the 'work' performed in an organisation and it is based on job description of the individual employee. Training aims to improve employee performance in the organisation, and normally is recommended when work standards are low because of lack of knowledge and (or) skills, and (or) poor attitudes among individual employees or groups. Training can be viewed as a 'deliberate intervention' that is undertaken or planned to address present and/or anticipated knowledge/attitudes/skills shortcomings (Erasmus, *et al.*, 2006:2).

There is a distinction between learning and training. Training focuses on the transfer of information about a particular subject, and learning deals with internalising that information and developing a broader understanding of the content of the training material. According to Miller (2007:12) the goal of executive training is "... less about refining what exist than creating what does not exist" This definition encapsulate the differences between training aimed at developing technical skills and executive training that is aimed at developing conceptual skills. A four stage model on training is proposed by Tobin and Pettingell (2008:17) with the stages being as follows: Data, Information, Knowledge and Wisdom. According to them data are found within the environment surrounding every individual, when relevance is given to the data it become information which is the second stage of the learning model (Miller, 2007; Tobin & Pettingell, 2008). When the individual applies the learned information the third stage of the model is entered. The fourth stage, wisdom, occurs when the information (data) is internalised, this information together with past experience leads to tacit knowledge that gives a deeper understanding of issues and the last stage of this model is reached.

Training interventions should not only focus on getting theory across, but should also aim to develop a deeper understanding of issues that allow learners to internalise the information and change their behaviour. Goldstein in Sadler-Smith (2006:3) describes training as the systematic acquisition of skills, rules, concepts, or attitudes that result in better performance in the work environment. The aim of training is not only for the learner to know something for the duration of the training intervention, but mainly to be able to apply the new knowledge and/or skills in his/her work environment.

2.2.1.4 Education

Education can be defined as "...activities that cover a broad range of topics for a broad purpose.... The concept of education includes also the learning activities that occur in an enterprise..." (Erasmus, *et al.*, 2006:2). Formal education normally refer to the studies done at

school and tertiary levels, while training refers to the mastering of a specific skill that will enable a individual to perform a certain job. It is imperative for any organisation to educate its members on a continuous basis in order to remain competitive. The SAPS, as with all government entities, operates in a fast changing society and needs to adapt to the needs of the people whom it is serving. Failure to change will lead to stagnation and inability to ensure a safe and secure environment for citizens of the country.

Education is defined by Rogers (1985) quoted in Sadler-Smith (2006:3) as follows:

“It has the quality of personal involvement (both feeling and cognitive aspects), of being self-initiated (the impetus comes from within), of being pervasive (making a difference in the behaviour, attitudes and even personality of the learner) of being evaluated by the learner (who knows if it is meeting a need) and of having the essence of meaning”.

The student must engage in the learning on both an emotional and a cognitive level. This engagement must be of such a nature that a change in behaviour and/or attitudes takes place.

2.2.2 Difference between education, training and development

Erasmus *et al.* (2006:2) describe training as the way in which an organisation uses a methodical process to change the competencies of its employees to enable it to achieve its objectives; education is defined as activities that covers a broad range of topics for a broad purpose. The authors state that education also includes the learning activities that occur in an organisation. The underlying philosophy is that education creates a general basis that prepares an individual for life, and that training prepares the individual to perform specific tasks in a particular job. Camp, Blanchard and Huszczo in Reynecke and Fourie (2001:87) differentiate between training, education and development and describe training as those activities aimed at generating learning to enhance the current job performance of the learner. Education refers to activities that are aimed at preparing learners for future jobs or assignments. The authors describe development as generating opportunities for the growth of learners that occur during education, training and learning and do not have any direct relation to job performance current or future. Development is not linked to a specific intervention or programme and can take place anywhere; however the central concept of development includes training, education and learning. Development occurs when what is learned in the class room and in the organisation

combined with the knowledge about the self-gained by interacting with other people and the environment is internalised and leads to a better understanding of phenomena.

2.3 TRAINING NEEDS ASSESSMENT

When deciding to train employees, the organisation first need to verify whether there is a need for the development of its employees. It is also important to integrate the assessment of training needs into the planning process. The purpose of training needs assessment is explained by Cascio and Aguinis (2011:350) as follows “The purpose of needs assessment is to determine if training is necessary before expending resources on it”. They also state that there are three important points in training needs assessment that must be considered. First, training needs assessment is perceived as an essential starting point in all instructional design models. Second, despite the assumed importance of training needs assessment many training programmes do not use it. Third, there is little ongoing research in respect of training needs assessment (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011:350).

Three different methods to uncover training needs within the organisation are listed by Cascio and Aguinis (2011:351).

- **Organisational analysis**

During organisational analysis the organisation determines where the training is needed. Cascio and Aguinis (2011:351) explain the purpose of organisational analysis as the ability to link strategic workforce planning considerations with training needs assessment results. Another objective is to pinpoint inefficient organisational units to determine whether training will address identified performance problems. According to Cascio and Aguinis (2011:351) the most important question during organisational analysis is whether the training will produce changes in employee behaviour that will contribute to the organisations goals. When no such connection can be made, training is probably unnecessary. A final objective is to estimate the extent to which transfer of training takes place within the organisation. The support system that exists within the organisation for the application of what is learned during training, to actual performance on the job, is called transfer of training. Grobler and Warnich (2006: 305) state that the purpose of organisational analysis is to analyse organisational performance criteria such as productivity, total work related accidents in a cycle and labour and operating cost. This will uncover problem areas that may indicate a need for development.

- **Operational analysis**

According to Grobler and Warnich (2006:305) operational analysis has to do with how a job should be performed and the required level of performance. The data that are collected through operational analysis enable the organisation to create development interventions that focus on the accurate performance of specific functions. Cascio and Aguinis (2011:351) explain that operations analysis requires a careful examination of the work to be performed after training. It involves the following:

- a) A systematic collection of information that describes how work is done.
- b) Determination of standards of performance for that work.
- c) Determination of how tasks are to be performed to meet the standards.
- d) Determination of the competencies necessary for effective task performance.

Competency task analysis (CTA) differs from traditional task analysis in that it focuses explicitly on identifying the mental aspects of performance, which entail activities such as decision-making, problem solving, pattern recognition and situational assessment – that are not directly observable. Traditional task analysis seeks to identify *what* is done, while CTA focuses on *how* it is done. CTA is mostly important for complex jobs that are dynamic and have high stakes outcomes, for example pilots, disaster teams, and accident investigators.

- **Individual analysis**

Individual analysis assesses how well each employee actually performs his/her job, relative to the standards required by the job. An important aspect of individual analysis therefore is to determine whether training can fill the gap between actual job performance and the standards as set by job specifications (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011:351). Grobler and Warnich (2006: 306) explain individual analysis as placing the focus on the employee and identifying those employees who need development. Individual analysis has two purposes: the first is the identification of employees who are currently in need of development and the second is the identification of which competencies (skills, knowledge and attitudes or abilities) need to be gained or strengthened.

2.4 APPROACHES DURING TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTIONS

The approach that will be followed during that specific training intervention is also important. Different approaches exist when planning any training intervention. It is important for the organisation to decide what approach will be taken during the training intervention. Erasmus *et al.* (2006:4-8) list the following eight approaches that can be followed:

- **Learning by exposure ‘sitting by Nellie’ approach**

This learning by exposure approach to training is being followed by organisations when they do not want to spend additional funds on a training intervention, but need the employee to become acquainted with the job that he/she must perform. This typically happens in the case of new employees, when a more senior colleague is assigned to mentor and train the new employee in the job requirements. It therefore cannot really be called a training intervention as no real intervention takes place and can be described more aptly as on-the-job training as the employee only receives guidance from colleagues. There are no trainers involved in the intervention and the employee are not prepared before-hand or evaluated after the training has taken place (Erasmus *et al.*, 2006:4).

- **The ‘educational’ approach**

This training approach is followed when the training intervention is developed by external providers and often leads to recognised qualifications (Erasmus *et al.*, 2006:5). According to Erasmus *et al.* (2006:5) the organisation invites service providers, who then provide official accredited courses to employees.

- **The ‘systems’ approach**

Organisations exist within an external environment consisting of suppliers, competitors and clients, and are seen as open systems, because they react to changes within these external environments. Different sub-systems exist within the organisation itself and make up the internal environment. According to the systems approach, organisations must direct their development activities in such a manner that they consider all of these environments. The benefits of the systems approach to development for the internal environment include; higher productivity, lower absenteeism and labour cost, and improved ability and skills. Successful training using this approach will have a positive impact on the organisation as a whole as satisfied clients leads to “...an improved market share, higher turnover and increased profit” (Erasmus *et al.*, 2006:5).

- **The ‘problem centered’ approach**

This approach focuses on solving short-term problems that are ad-hoc in nature. It deals with specific operational issues and is focused on identification of high-level skills. In order to address the problem as quickly as possible; it is cost effective and deals with an immediate problem that can be solved in the short term (Erasmus *et al.*, 2006:6).

- **The ‘action learning’ approach**

This approach requires that learners study real-life problems and try to solve them in real-life situations. This approach can be challenging as it demands changing problems into

opportunities (Erasmus *et al.*, 2006:6). An example of this approach is the field training phase of the Basic Police Development Program during which police recruits work in the field and respond to calls under the supervision of a field training officer. The recruits gain exposure to real life situations for example attending an accident scene, and practically apply the theory that they have learned during the basic phase of their training.

- **The ‘analytical’ approach**

The focus of this approach is on needs assessment whereby an analysis of the skills, knowledge and attitudes required to perform a specific job is done. A gap between the skills, knowledge and attitudes require by the job and those possessed by the learner is identified and training programmes are developed based on this information (Erasmus *et al.*, 2006:7).

- **The ‘competence’ approach**

This approach (Erasmus *et al.*, 2006:7) focuses on describing job outcomes, and the trainer and learner can then decide how to reach these outcomes. Standards are described in terms of the following:

- a) Elements of competence.
- b) Performance criteria.
- c) Range statements.

- **The ‘training process or ‘procedural’ approach**

The procedures that accompany this approach are as follows:

- a) The existence of a training policy.
- b) The inclusion of training responsibilities in job descriptions.
- c) The regular and periodic definition of training needs.
- d) The creation of training plans.
- e) The provision of training resources.
- f) The implementation of training plans.
- g) The assessment of training results (Erasmus *et al.*, 2006:6).

2.5 PROGRAMME EVALUATION

In order to ensure that development interventions lead to organisational effectiveness, reach their targeted audience and justify the resources allocated to the programme, it is important to evaluate the development intervention. Babbie (2010:366) states that evaluation is a matter of finding out whether something is there or not. Evaluation is described by Morra Imas and Rist (2009:9) as “...the process of determining the worth or significance of an activity, policy, or

programme. (It is) as systematic and objective as possible, of a planned, on-going or completed intervention". The authors further explain that evaluation has four main purposes:

- Ethical – To report to senior management and employees how a program has been implemented and what results have been achieved. This purpose combines the objectives of using better accountability, processing information and serving of organisational goals.
- Managerial – To achieve better distribution of financial and human resources among different programs, improve program management and to maximise organisational benefits from these programs.
- Decisional – To assist management to make choices in terms of the continuation, termination or restructuring of a policy or program.
- Educational and motivational purposes – To help educate and motivate organisations, their employees, clients and suppliers by enabling them to understand the processes in which they are involved in and to associate themselves with their objectives.

Morra Imas and Rist (2009:12) described the following general purposes of evaluation. Evaluation ensures social development and promotes the fostering of democratic processes; it ensures accountability, oversight, transparency and compliance; evaluation assists in building knowledge management and sharing capabilities and contributes to organisational development; it promotes dialogue and cooperation and determines program or policy relevance, effectiveness, impact and sustainability. Babbie (2010: 363) explains that the purpose of evaluation is to evaluate the impact of a social intervention or program such as new teaching methods. He states that evaluation researchers use social research methods to study, appraise and help improve programs or policies in all their important aspects such as their implementation and administration, diagnosis of social problems they address, and their outcomes and efficiency (Babbie, 2010:363).

It is useful for the organisation to evaluate programs in order to see what benefits they have, to learn from mistakes made in the past and to identify best practices. The following is some of the benefits of program evaluation. Knowing the impact of the program, identifying whether the program is working as planned, who is the beneficiaries of the program and whether there is differences in performance at various sites where the program is being introduced or delivered (Morra Imas & Rist, 2009:12).

2.6 THEORIES OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

According to Laird (2003:133–134), many meta theories of management development have their roots in psychology and the works of Watson, Piaget, Maslow, Pavlov, Rogers, Bandura and others. These meta-theories form the basis of today's development theories. Laird (2003:133–134) identifies five different meta-theories that focus on the following:

- Behaviourism: Behaviourism was developed at the start of the 20th century. This theory is mainly concerned with changes in the behaviour of an individual as a result of learning. The main principle here is that learners are passive and learning only occurs with some kind of outside stimulation. It is also assumed that only observable behaviour is important and that thoughts and feelings do not have any importance as they cannot be observed (Gold *et al.*, 2010:267).
- Cognitivism: This theory is rooted in Gestalt psychology after the German Gestalt psychologists who developed this theory as a result of the limitations that they had observed in the behaviourism model, particularly its 'thoughtless' approach to human learning. Cognitivism looks at the way in which humans process information and is primarily concerned with insight into and understanding of the individual; it sees people as actively shaping their environment, unlike the passive drones that are shaped by their environment as is the case in behaviourism.
- Humanism: Humanism emerged as a direct result of psychological studies that tried to explain why and how a person learned and became motivated. This theory was influenced by the hierarchy of needs of Maslow and by Carl Rogers who worked in the field of motivation. Rogers' theory places emphasis on the whole person, his/her feelings and attitudes as well as environmental influences. According to Bergh and Theron (1999:407), Rogers maintained that optimal self-development required an atmosphere of positive valuing, acceptance, love and respect from others. According to Laird (2003:133–134), the core assumptions in this theory are the following:
 - a) The person as a whole is the main subject of humanistic psychology.
 - b) Humanistic psychology is concerned with the knowledge of a person's entire life history.
 - c) Human existence and intention are of great importance.
 - d) Life goals are of equal importance.
 - e) Human creativity has a primary place.

- f) Humanistic psychology is frequently applied to psychotherapy.
- Social learning: This type of learning focuses on how people learn in a social context. It focuses on how people learn by interacting and observing others. The core assumption of social learning is that people learn by imitating others.
 - Constructivism: Constructivism asserts that all knowledge is context bound. Learning therefore cannot be divorced from the context in which it is used. Learning is seen as cumulative in nature, and all new information must be related to existing information in order to retain and use it in future (Laird, 2003:137).

Table 2.1 represents the different meta theories of management development, their main proponents, their view of learning and the manifestation of the theories in adult learning.

Table 2.1: Five orientations to development

Aspect	Behaviourism	Cognitivism	Humanism	Social learning	Constructivism
Learning theorists	Thorndike, Pavlov, Watson, Guthrie, Hull, Tolman and Skinner	Koffka, Kohler, Lewin, Piaget, Ausubel, Bruner and Gagne	Maslow and Rogers	Bandura and Rotter	Candy, Dewey, Lave, Piaget, Rogoff, Von Glaserfelt and Vygotsky
View of the learning process	Change in behaviour	Internal mental process (including insight, information processing, memory and perception)	Personal act to realise full potential	Interaction with and observation of others in a social context	Construction of meaning from experience and context
Locus of learning	Stimuli in the environment	Internal cognitive structuring	Affective and cognitive needs	Interaction of person, behaviour and environment	Internal construction of reality by individual
Purpose of education	To produce behavioural change in the desired direction	To develop capacity and skills to learn better	To become self-actualised and autonomous	To model new roles and behaviour	To construct knowledge
Teacher's role	To arrange environment to elicit desired response	To structure content of learning activity	To facilitate development of whole person	To model and guide new roles and behaviour	To facilitate and negotiate meaning with learners
Manifestation in adult learning	Behavioural objectives Competency-based education Skills development and training	Cognitive development Intelligence, learning and memory as function of age Learning how to learn	Andragogy Self-directed learning	Socialisation Social roles Mentoring Locus of control	Experiential learning Self-directed learning Perspective transformation Reflective practice

Adapted from Laird (2003:127)

Thomson *et al.*, (2001:15) identify the following theories of management development:

- **Human capital and labour market theory**

This theory is built on the role of skills in the economy and comes primarily from the field of macroeconomics. The main premise of this theory is that income relates directly to productivity and in order to increase productivity, there should be an increase in education or in-service training (Thomson *et al.*, 2001:15–16).

- **Learning theory**

This theory focuses on the methods that an individual or organisation employs to acquire certain skills and knowledge. The basic premise of this theory is that successful management development programmes can only be developed if the reasons, conditions and methods of learning are known. This means that when management development programmes are developed, the programmes must be structured in such a way that they engage the learners processes of maturation, self-fulfilment and self-determination; the learners knowledge and emotional investment in the learning they are embarking on; the learners past experiences of learning and their expectations about both the way in which the learning occurs and their own capabilities to learn (Thomson *et al.*, 2001:20).

This theory also links up with the learning organisation theory that was popularised by Peter Senge (1990). This type of organisation continuously adapts to its operating environment, learns through lessons learned in the past and employs innovation and creativity when dealing with problems. According to Dulworth and Bordonaro (2005:23), “The learning organization view represents a higher maturity and often serves as a vision for companies on their journey to become a learning organization”. The authors identify three important aspects of any learning system: First, it must have a web page or a virtual presence. Second, it must have learning systems and data software. Third, it must develop strategic plans and monitor and evaluate the implementation of these planned activities. This will give the organisation the competitive edge to survive.

- **Organisation and human resource theory**

In this theory the focus is on organisational structure and the increasingly specialised nature of managerial functions while at the same time managers need to be able to perform more generic managerial tasks that take cognisance of the objectives of the organisation as a whole. Another dimension is the need for managers to move from more functional operational skills to more generalised management skills (Thomson *et al.*, 2001:15–16).

2.7 MODELS OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

2.7.1 American Management Association Management Development Competency Model

This model for management competency examines the competencies needed for levels of management from the individual professional to managers who are responsible for specific functions within their organisations. According to this model, management competencies are cumulative and the individual must first master the competencies on one level before mastering the next level of competencies. This model is divided into three categories of competency with different competencies for each category. The categories are as follows: knowing and managing yourself (10 competencies), knowing and managing others (17 competencies) and knowing and managing the organisation (19 competencies) (Tobin & Pettingell, 2008:43). These competencies are schematically presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: AMA Management Development Competency Model

AMA MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT COMPETENCY MODEL		
Managing yourself	Managing others	Managing the organisation
Emotional intelligence/self-awareness	Oral communication	Problem solving
Self-confidence	Written communication	Decision-making
Self-development	Valuing diversity	Managing and leading change
Building trust and personal accountability	Building teams	Driving innovation
Resilience and stress tolerance	Networking	Customer focus
Action orientation	Partnering	Resource management
Time management	Building relationships	Operational and tactical planning
Flexibility and agility	Emotional Intelligence/interpersonal savvy	Result orientation
Critical and analytical thinking	Influencing	Quality orientation
Creative thinking	Managing conflict	Mastering competency
	Managing people and performance	Business and finance acumen
	Clarifying roles and accountabilities	Strategic planning
	Delegating	Strategic thinking
	Empowering others	Global perspective
	Motivating others	Organisational savvy
	Coaching	Organisational design
	Developing top talent	Human resource planning
		Monitoring the extreme environment
		Core functional/technical skills

Source: Adapted from Tobin and Pettingell (2008:44)

2.7.2 Learning maturity model

Dulworth and Bordonaro (2005:36) define a learning organisation as “an organisation skilled at creating, acquiring, interpreting, transferring and retaining knowledge and purposefully

modifying its behaviour to reflect new knowledge and insights”. According to Dulworth and Bordonaro (2005:36) a learning culture does the following:

- Stimulates tests and adopts new ideas.
- Encourages and rewards skills development.
- Recognises and accepts differences.
- Provides timely and accurate feedback.
- Encourages appropriate risk taking and learns from mistakes.
- Shares knowledge widely and rewards collaboration.

Dulworth and Bordonaro (2005:37) further explain that the learning organisation’s transformational journey entails three basic steps, as illustrated in Table 2.3:

Table 2.3: Steps in becoming a learning organisation

Thinking there	Getting there	Living there
Designing a tangible process to reach the desired outcome.	Current state and mapping out a goal state.	
Building and acquiring the skills to achieve goals and objectives.		
Embedding learning into everyday work requires an in-depth understanding of how adults acquire new knowledge and learn new skills.		

Adapted from Dulworth and Bordonaro (2005:37)

This table explains the process in becoming a learning organisation. This entails putting certain building blocks in place, mapping out where the organisation wants to go and then ensuring that systems stays in place to continue existing in a state of constant learning (living there).

2.7.3 Kolb’s Experiential Learning Model

Kolb (quoted in Laird 2003:145) developed the experiential learning model and defined it as “the process whereby knowledge is created through transformation of experience”. The core of this model is the assumption that there is an interaction between content and experience that work together in transforming the individual undergoing the learning experience. Kolb (quoted

in Laird 2003:145) identifies four steps in the experiential learning cycle, which can be demonstrated as follows in Figure 2.1:

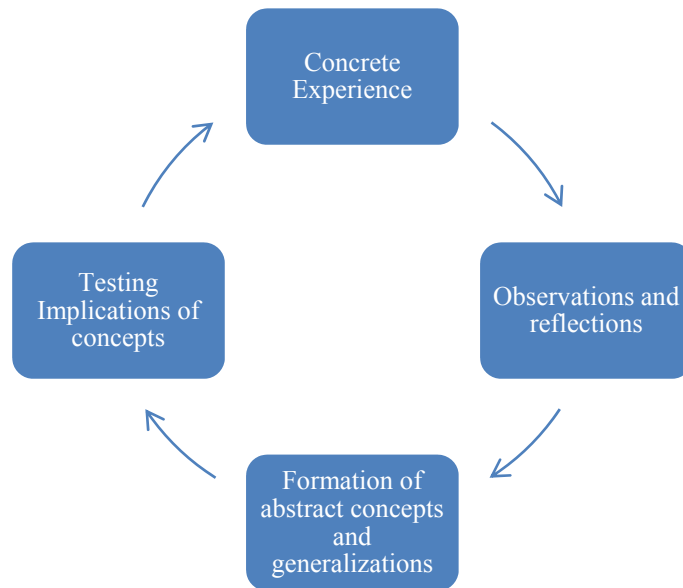


Figure 2.1: Kolb's experiential learning cycle

Adapted from Laird (2003:145)

According to Kolb in Laird (2003:146), these steps consist of the following:

- a) Concrete experience – full involvement: new, here-and-now experiences.
- b) Observation and reflection – reflecting on and observing experiences from many perspectives.
- c) Formation of abstract concepts and generalisations – creating concepts that integrate observations into logical and sound theories.
- d) Testing implications of concepts in new situations – using these theories to make decisions and solve problems.

Kolb's learning cycle explains how learning might and should occur. According to Gold *et al.*, (2010:271) the arrows within the cycle indicate tensions and contradictions between existing experience and the formation of new concepts as well as between reflection on the learning that took place and actions. Kolb calls these tensions transformation.

2.8 GENERAL MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

General management competencies are important for any institution to survive in a competitive environment. While some competencies can be improved through training, such as listening

skills, time management, and organisational abilities, a well organised employee who listens well and manages his time well will likely be recognised as having greater management potential than one who doesn't demonstrate these competencies. Other competencies are better learned on the job than in a classroom (Tobin & Pettingell, 2008:31).

This is true of many competencies that are needed in the competitive modern work sphere where knowledge of the environment that the organisation operates in is central to the vertical movement of an employee within the ranks of the organisation. Critical thinking and cognitive ability that is linked to intelligence is important for any manager, but highly intelligent employees may fail to progress in their chosen professions due to a lack of some of the other basic competencies needed within an organisation.

According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:115), the most commonly used definition of competency is that of Boyatzis quoted in Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:115), who describes competency as “an underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective and/or superior performance of a job”. This definition draws on McClelland’s explanation of key success areas, in Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:115), which refer to motives, traits and aspects of a person’s self-image or the social roles of individuals that are related to job performance. Boyatzis’ competency cluster model is demonstrated by Gold *et al.*, (2010:230) as follows in Table 2.4:

Table 2.4: Boyatzis’ competency cluster model

<p>Goal and action cluster</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Efficiency orientation • Pro-activity • Diagnostic use of concepts • Concern with impact <p>Leadership cluster</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-confidence • Use of oral presentations • Logical thought • Conceptualisation <p>Human resource cluster</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of socialised power • Positive regard • Managing group processes 	<p>Directing subordinates cluster</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing others • Use of unilateral power • Spontaneity <p>Focus on others cluster</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-control • Perceptual objectivity • Stamina and responsibility • Concern with close relationships
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- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accurate self-assessment | |
|--|--|

Adapted from Gold *et al.* (2010:230)

Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:115) quote several authors with various definitions of competency; one is by Zacarias and Tagonon as quoted in Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:115), who define competency as “the sum total of observable and demonstrated skills, knowledge and behaviours that lead to superior performance”, and another is by Tett *et al.* (2000) as quoted in Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:115), who regard a competency as future-evaluated work behaviour by describing it as an identifiable aspect of prospective work behaviour attributable to the individual that is expected to contribute positively and/or negatively to organisational effectiveness. Another definition given by Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:116) is that of Kurz and Batram (2002) who state that competency is not the behaviour itself but is the total number of capabilities, activities, processes and responses that is at an individual’s disposal and enables a range of work demands to be met more effectively by some people than by others. Competency is what enables performance to occur. Ketel (2005:38) states that there is a variety of uses for competencies needed by management:

- Defining core competencies of organisations (job-related competencies).
- Competency-based qualifications.
- Competencies for the assessment of potential and managerial development for the basis of assessment.

Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:116) state,

The description of competence is person based – an approach that finds its origins in the USA. Within this approach competencies are conceived as individual characteristics that are related to excellent or superior performance. This perspective is worker orientated and is concerned with the input of individuals in terms of behaviour, skills or underlying personal characteristics required by jobholders.

Zacarias and Tagonon (quoted in Coetzee and Schreuder 2010:116) demonstrate this person-based approach to competency as follows in Figure 2.2:

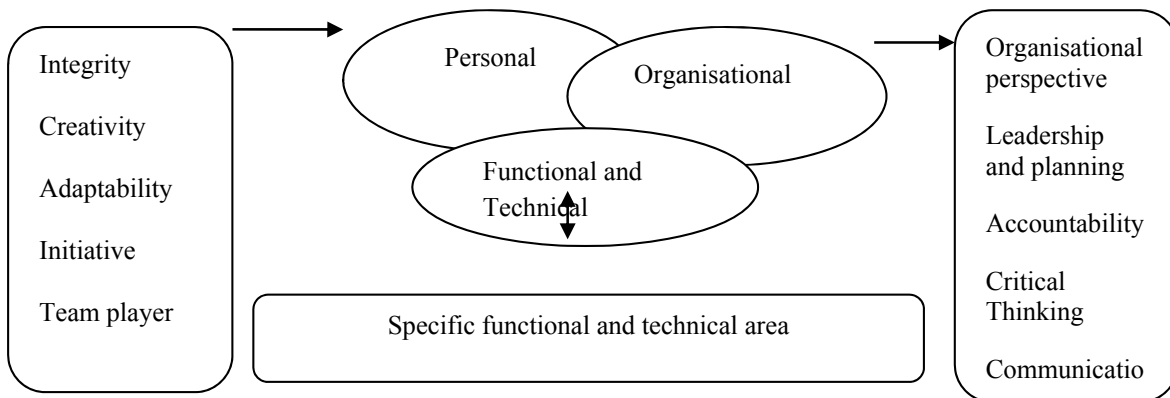


Figure 2.2: Definition of competency by Zacarias and Tagonon

Source: Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:116)

Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:116) further explain that in South Africa, the concept of competence refers to meaningful skills related to specific occupations as described in the Organising Framework for Occupations (OFO). The term ‘skills’ is used in the context of competency, rather than as a description of tasks or functions. The skill level of an occupation is related to the competent performance of specific tasks associated with an occupation.

“The OFO identifies competency and professional requirements through six dimensions: skills, knowledge, qualification, experience, professional registration, and ability. Competence in occupational learning is demonstrated against the three learning components: a knowledge and theory component and standard, a practical skills standard, and a work experience standard” (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010:116).

According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:117), the main drawback of competency modelling is that it is of limited use in several human resource practices such as selection and promotion procedures due to difficulty in defining the typical requirements of specific jobs as many managerial functions require a “multiple job model that assumes, for example, experience building competency models, and existence of many single job models and consultants specialised in competency work”. According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:118), the following phases exist in designing a competency model:

- Competency identification
- Competency definition
- Competency profiling

The authors also identify the categories of competency as follows in Table 2.5:

Table 2.5: Categories of competency

Competency	Description of Competency
Key competence	The vital few competencies required for organisational success from a short- and long-term perspective.
Strategic competence	Competence related to organisational success from a long-term perspective.
Critical competence	Competence related to organisational success from a short-term perspective.
Declining competence	Competence that will be phased out or shifted according to market-driven changes.
Obsolete competence	Competence that was phased out or shifted in accordance with market-driven changes.
Core competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is a special skill or technology that creates customer values that can be differentiated. • It is difficult for competitors to imitate or procure. • It enables an organisation to access a wide variety of seemingly unrelated markets by combining skills and technologies across traditional organisational units.

Adapted from Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:119)

2.9 POLICE MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

Ketel (2005:66) quotes various authors who all agree that the main competencies for general management apply equally to police management. According to Kriel (quoted in Ketel 2005:65), there are eight core competencies for managers in a safety and security environment, such as the SAPS:

- a) Analytic ability: The ability to obtain data from a variety of sources, to compare and cumulate this data in order to focus on what is relevant and to use this data to analyse and solve problems.
- b) Judgement: The ability to make the best choice out of various alternative solutions and to apply insight in order to reach logical conclusions.
- c) Confidence: The willingness to take decisions that result in actions and to accept responsibility.
- d) Planning and organising: The ability to set clear goals and to create practical plans, to mobilise resources and to co-ordinate the necessary activities.
- e) Control: The ability to set procedures through which processes, tasks and/or activities of subordinates as well as the results of delegated instructions and projects can be monitored and regulated.

- f) Leadership: The ability to get ideas accepted and to lead individuals and groups to the achievement of set goals.
- g) Drive: The ability to tackle and complete tasks with enthusiasm and direction in spite of problems that are experienced.
- h) Tolerance of stress and pressure: The ability to work through negativity and work stress without disturbing work productivity.

Stumpke (quoted in Ketel 2005:66) lists the following three types of police management skills:

- Functional skills
- People skills
- Conceptual skills

These critical skills for police managers, and especially middle managers, correspond with the skills and/or competency requirements of many other organisations, whether within the private or public sector.

2.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter gave an overview of terms such as ‘development’, ‘lifelong learning’, ‘learning’, ‘teaching’ and ‘education’. The current views on management development were discussed, and the different approaches, theories and models within management development literature were explained. The importance of training needs assessment and the approaches that are followed in presenting a development intervention were highlighted. Evaluation and its importance in development interventions were explained. An overview of the main meta-theories that influence development theory to a great extent was given in an attempt to provide background regarding current development theory. The researcher argued that development was an overarching concept that included training, learning and education. The different competency models were explained, and the competency requirements of police managers were discussed. The next chapter will give an overview of the legislative background that governs police development and will discuss the MMLP as an avenue for the development of police middle managers within the South African context.

CHAPTER 3

POLICE DEVELOPMENT IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will explain the legislative framework underpinning development within the SAPS. The SAPS functions in a highly regulated environment. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (RSA, 1996) provides for the establishment of a police service. This service is regulated by the South African Police Services Act (SAPS Act) (68 of 1995a) (RSA, 1995). Even though the SAPS fall under the public service in South Africa, only civilian personnel within the SAPS are regulated by the Public Service Act (103 of 1995) (RSA, 1994). This research was focused on the development of police officers, and the Public Service Act (RSA, 1995b) will thus not be discussed here. All SAPS members are appointed in terms of the SAPS Act (RSA, 1995a). The SAPS is an essential service, and its policing functions and processes are regulated by this act. The different laws governing training and development in South Africa and policies within the SAPS dealing with development will be discussed in this chapter.

An explanation of the organisational layout of the SAPS and the Division HRD will follow. The focus will then be placed on the different programmes presented at the two management and leadership development academies (Paarl and Thabong). The content of the MMLP, which was the main focus of this research, will be discussed.

3.2 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

The legislative context that regulates development in the SAPS includes, amongst others, the following acts and policies:

- The Constitution of the Republic of South African, 1996.
- The South African Police Services Act (Act 68 of 1995).
- The South African Qualifications Authority Act (Act 58 of 1995).
- The Skills Development Act (Act 97 of 1998).
- The National Qualifications Framework Act (Act 67 of 2008).
- The Skills Development Levies Act (Act 9 of 1999).
- The National Skills Development Strategy.
- The education, training and development (ETD) policy of the SAPS.

A short description of each of these acts and policies will follow.

3.2.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa states in Section 206 that the object of the Police Service is “to prevent, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold law and order” (RSA, 1996). To ensure execution of this mandate, the SAPS must ensure development of its members. The SAPS Act (68 of 1995) (RSA, 1995a) in chapter 5 confers specific powers, duties and functions on police officers, with Section 14 specifically dealing with the employment of police officers to preserve the life, health and property of the citizens of the RSA (RSA, 1995). In order to execute this mandate, the SAPS need a skilled workforce that is able to instil confidence in its ability to ensure every citizen’s safety. Section 34, chapter 9 of the SAPSs Act (68 of 1995) (RSA, 1995a) deals with the training and development of members and vests the National Commissioner of the SAPS with the power to decide what training and development police officers must undergo (RSA, 1995a).

3.2.2 The Skills Development Act (Act 97 of 1998)

The Skills Development Act (97 of 1998) (RSA, 1998) places certain duties and responsibilities on every employer to develop its employees. The purpose of this act is to develop competencies within the South African workforce, which will lead to higher productivity and competitiveness within and among organisations. Chapter 1 Section 1(c) states that the purpose of this Act is the following:

- To use the workplace as an environment for active development of employees.
- To provide employees with the opportunities to acquire new skills.
- To provide opportunities for new entrants to the labour market to gain work experience.
- To employ persons who find it difficult to be employed (RSA, 1998).

Chapter 1 Section 2 (2) also states that the above purposes of the Skills Development Act (97 of 1998) (RSA, 1998) are achieved through the establishment of the following bodies to provide for an institutional and financial framework:

- i. The National Skills Authority.
- ii. The National Skills Fund.
- iii. A skills development levy-financing scheme as contemplated in the Skills Development Levies Act (9 of 1999) (RSA, 1999).
- iv. Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs).
- v. Provincial offices of the Department.

- vi. Labour centres of the Department.
- vii. Accredited trade test centres.
- viii. Skills development institutes.
- ix. The Quality Council for Trades and Occupation (RSA, 1999).

The Skills Development Act (97 of 1998) (RSA, 1998) places certain responsibilities on employers to develop their employees. The SAPS therefore has the responsibility in terms of this Act to provide development opportunities to its workforce. The Act also provides for financing of development initiatives by means of a levy grant that every employer must contribute to.

3.2.3 The National Qualifications Framework Act (Act 67 of 2008)

The National Qualifications Framework Act (67 of 2008) (RSA, 2008) replaces the previous South African Qualifications Authority Act (58 of 1995) (RSA, 1995c) and lays down specific guidelines in terms of the accreditation of qualifications within South Africa. It also places certain duties and responsibilities on the SAQA to recognise professional bodies and manage the three qualification councils that oversee standards development and quality assurance in three different sectors: the Council on Higher Education, dealing with tertiary education, Umalusi, the quality assurer for general and further education and training, and the Quality Council for Trades and Occupations, the qualifications council for trades and occupations (RSA, 2008). All these bodies are responsible for quality assurance and standards development for all formal qualifications in South Africa. The SAPS uses these professional bodies to certify and register development programmes within the SAPS.

3.2.4 The Skills Development Levies Act (Act 9 of 1999)

Chapter 7, Section 27 (1) of the Skills Development Act (97 of 1998) (RSA, 1998) provides for the establishment of a National Skills Fund. A levy grant system was promulgated by the Skills Development Levies Act (9 of 1999b), which ensures that all employers of government departments contribute to SETAs in their specific sector to ensure development of employees in that sector (RSA, 1999). Each separate sector within the South African economy has one SETA. There are 27 SETAs that cover all economic sectors in South Africa, including all government sectors. Within its own sector, every SETA must develop and implement a skills development plan, including workplace skills development plans, act as the education and

training quality assurer and pay out skills development grants (Hofmeyer & Chennells, 2005:226).

3.3 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

The organisational structure of the SAPS is hierarchical, with a pyramid-shaped reporting structure and centralised decision-making powers. The SAPS is a highly complex organisation due to its size, and it is high in horizontal differentiation as it consists of many different units, divisions, sections and components. The employees in these divisions, units, sections and components have diverse skills, focused on their specific field of expertise, as well as different levels of education and training. To further complicate this organisational structure, there is a complex vertical differentiation with more than 13 reporting levels, requiring many levels of management. The operating core of the SAPS is large, and the spatial differentiation thereof is one of the most extensive in the country, with regional offices in every province of the RSA and a contact point in even the smallest town.

The SAPS is headed by the National Commissioner of the SAPS. The National Commissioner has three Deputy National Commissioners who report to him/her, with 16 Divisional Commissioners and nine Provincial Commissioners who report to the respective Deputy National Commissioners. Each Divisional and Provincial Commissioner operates autonomously and separately from other provinces and divisions with their own reporting structure. Each province/division is responsible for its own performance and accountable to the National Commissioner and relevant Deputy National Commissioners. Figure 3.1 gives a schematic representation of this organisational layout.

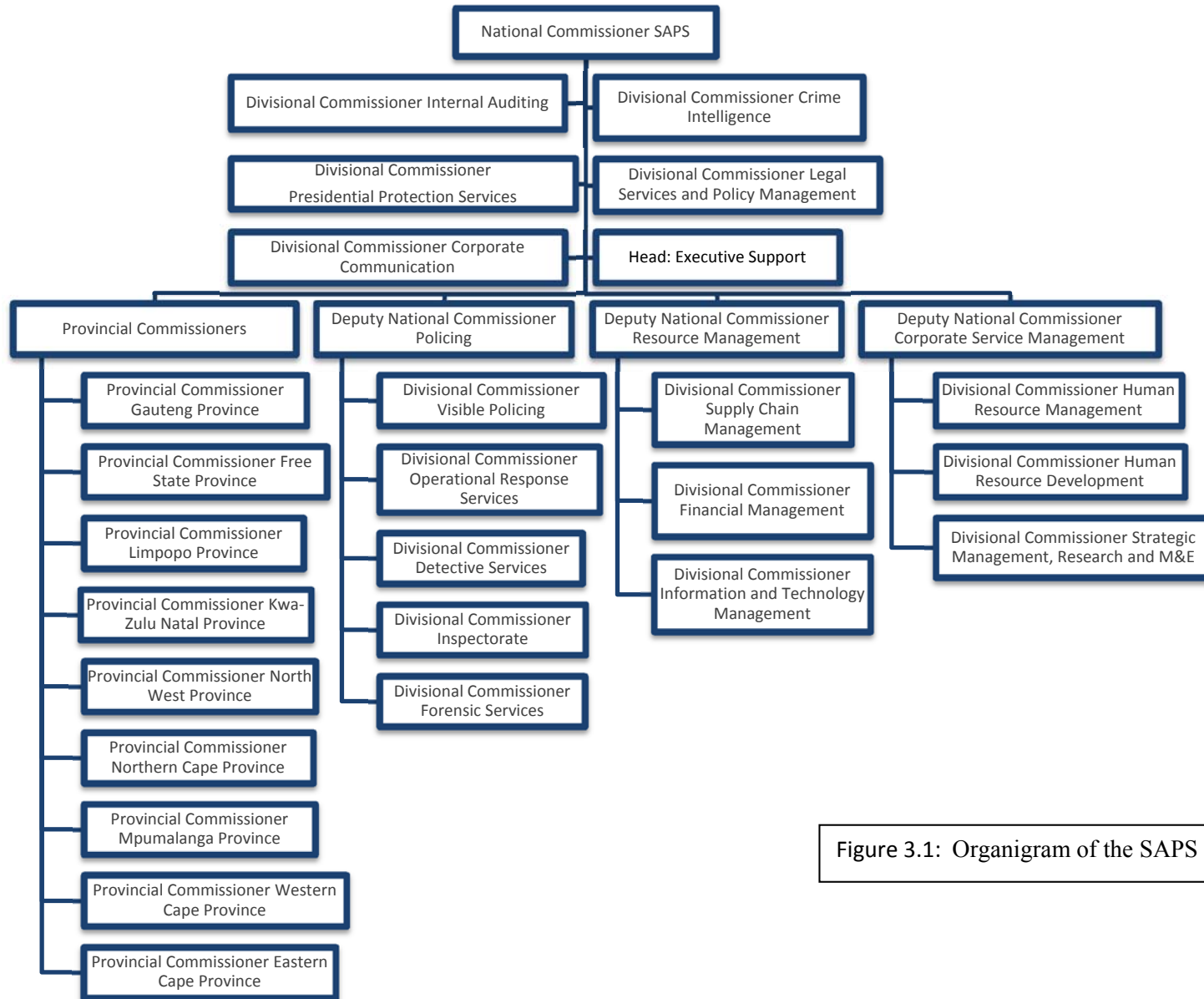


Figure 3.1: Organigram of the SAPS

3.4 SKILLS DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

The SAPS is part of the Safety and Security Sector Education and Training Authority (SASSETA). SASSETA is the official verifier of all police development within South Africa and provides guidelines for and verification of assessment processes and certification of learners. SASSETA as mandated by the Skills Development Act (97 of 1998) stipulates that the SAPS must have an ETD policy in place that provides uniform standards for the assessment processes across all development programmes within the SAPS (RSA, 1998).

The ETD policy of the SAPS provides guidelines for development programmes within the SAPS. The purpose of the policy is to regulate and manage the implementation of development interventions within the SAPS. Section 7 of the SAPS ETD policy provides for the following types of training provided by the SAPS:

- a) Entry-level training: Entry-level recruits undergo the Basic Police Development Programme, which consists of an academy phase, a field training phase and an integrated assessment phase, which take place over a period of two years.
- b) Reservist training: Reservists within the SAPS undergo training that includes theoretical aspects of policing in general as well as on-the-job development and training.
- c) Lateral entrant training: Police officers who need specialised skills, for example pilots, lawyers and psychologists, enter the SAPS laterally on specific ranks, usually as commissioned officers, and are known as lateral entrants. These lateral entrants undergo a shortened version of basic training known as the Introductory Police Development Learning Programme.
- d) In-service training: In-service training is provided to develop the functional competencies of employees in support of the strategic objectives of the SAPS.
- e) Animal training: The dogs, horses and other animals utilised as aids in policing activities within the SAPS must be certified as competent to do the job after undergoing the necessary training.
- f) Management training: This refers to development interventions that provide senior, middle and junior management of the SAPS with the relevant competencies to ensure efficient and effective management of government resources and updated strategies to address crime and the causes thereof.
- g) Adult Basic Education and Training: Adult Basic Education and Training (Grade 1 to Grade 9) is provided to employees (e.g. cleaners and groundskeepers) whose education

levels are below the Further Education and Training (Grade 10 to 12) standards (SAPS ETD policy, 2012).

The ETD policy of the SAPS (2012) stipulates that the following guidelines must be in place to regulate the processes and procedures that the SAPS must follow during development interventions:

- Implementation Guidelines for the Assessment Strategy.
- Implementation Guidelines for the Moderation of Assessments.
- Implementation Guidelines for the Certification of Learner Achievements.
- Implementation Guidelines for Handling Disputes and Appeals on Assessment decisions.
- Implementation Guidelines for Recognition of Prior Learning.
- Implementation Guidelines for Providing Learner Support and Guidance (SAPS ETD policy, 2012).

These guidelines are revised annually to ensure that the SAPS stay abreast of changes in legislation and the latest changes in the development environment within the South African context. The following discussion of these guidelines gives a brief overview of their content:

- **Implementation Guidelines for the Assessment Strategy**

These guidelines deal with the assessment of all development programmes within the SAPS. They define the assessment strategy as an expression of the generic approach to assessment by the development (ETD) provider, the SAPS. The guidelines are applicable across all development interventions presented in the SAPS, irrespective of whether the programme is already aligned to the NQF or not (SAPS Assessment Strategy, 2012:3).

The Assessment Strategy defines assessment as a structured process through which authentic evidence of a learner's performance is collected for the purpose of determining the competence of the learner. Competence may be measured against registered unit standards or exit-level outcomes for qualifications that are NQF aligned. For non-NQF-aligned qualifications, competence may be measured against a specified set of criteria. The Assessment Strategy further states,

Assessment should achieve the purpose of a unit standard or organisational standard i.e. the technical knowledge and competency through one or more assessment covering the full range of learning as applicable (SAPS Assessment Strategy, 2012:3).

The following requirements are set for all assessments within the SAPS:

- a) They should fit the purpose of the training.
- b) They should produce highly skilled people.
- c) They are periodic, focusing on outcomes as they are attained.
- d) They are a combination of formative and summative assessments focusing on the integration of skills (SAPS Assessment Strategy, 2012:3).

According to the Assessment Strategy (2012:3), all training presented should link the skills being taught with theory and practice. Where the training environment does not allow for real-life assessment, simulation games, role plays and case studies must be used. According to the Assessment Strategy, “In terms of Outcomes-Based Assessments, assessments should be designed so that it measures Applied Competence” (SAPS Assessment Strategy, 2012:3). The Assessment Strategy describes applied competence as a combination of foundational, practical and reflexive competence (SAPS Assessment Strategy, 2012:4). The Assessment Strategy explains these competencies as follows in Table 3.1:

Table 3.1: Applied competence

Foundational competence	Practical competence	Reflexive competence
It is the demonstration of the understanding of ‘what’ the learner is doing and ‘why’ the learner is doing something.	It is the demonstrated ability to perform a set of tasks and actions in an authentic context that can be measured through real-life situations, role plays and case studies.	It refers to the learner’s ability to integrate performance and decision-making with understanding and the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances as well as to explain the reasons behind these adaptations.

Adapted from the Implementation Guidelines for the Assessment Strategy of the SAPS (2012)

- **Implementation Guidelines for the Moderation of Assessments**

These guidelines ensure that assessments by human resource development providers within the SAPS adhere to the requirements of the SAQA. The purpose of the moderation of assessments is to verify that assessments are fair, valid, reliable and practicable. Moderation of assessments promotes quality assurance of the ETD functions of the SAPS. It also ensures that evidence regarding learner achievements and competency is verifiable, sufficient and current. The

moderation of assessment also ensures the integrity of the assessment process and that assessment instruments and instructions are standardised (SAPS Implementation Guidelines for the Moderation of Assessments, 2012).

These guidelines play an important role in ensuring that quality development is provided by the SAPS. The Guidelines for the Moderation of Assessments (2012:2) define a moderator as a member of the SAPS who is registered with a relevant SETA to manage and oversee the quality of assessments of development programmes presented by the SAPS; moderation is defined as the process of making judgements about the quality and results of assessments with the purpose of confirming assessment judgements. The SAPS Implementation Guidelines for the Moderation of Assessments (2012:2) distinguish between knowledge-based assessments and performance-based assessments and define knowledge-based assessments as assessments that measure the different levels of the cognitive sphere, usually by means of written examinations, while performance-based assessments are defined as assessments that measure the demonstration of physical skills in the psychomotor domain or sphere. These guidelines provide for the appointment and registration of moderators and explain the duties and responsibilities of moderators during the assessment process. They provide guidelines for the handling of reassessments of learners, the moderator's responsibilities and the process to follow when irregularities regarding assessments occur. They further set guidelines regarding the scope and frequency of the moderation of assessments.

- **Implementation Guidelines for the Certification of Learner Achievements**

These guidelines set standards for the certification and verification of NQF-aligned qualifications and unit standards as well as the certification of organisational standards-based learning programmes. SASSETA requires a structured certification system of all development interventions in the SAPS. The Implementation Guidelines on Certification of Learner Achievement (SAPS, 2012:2) outline the roles and responsibilities of all role players involved in the development sphere of the SAPS to ensure that standards adhere to validity, credibility and authenticity. These guidelines are aimed at ensuring proper control over the issuing of certificates for NQF-accredited interventions and interventions in terms of organisational standards-based learning programmes (SAPS Guidelines on Certification of Learner Achievement, 2012:2).

The guidelines define NQF-based qualifications as learning programmes that are based on unit standards that are aligned with the NQF and registered with the SAQA. An organisational standards-based learning programme is defined as any development programme that is presented by the SAPS but is not yet aligned with NQF standards (SAPS Guidelines on Certification of Learner Achievement, 2012:2). These guidelines set out the process that functionaries within the Division HRD in the SAPS must follow in the certification of learners in both NQF-accredited programmes and organisational standards-based learning programmes.

- **Implementation Guidelines for Handling Disputes and Appeals on Assessment Decisions**

These guidelines explain the appeals process when there are disputes regarding assessment decisions. The guidelines provide for disputes or appeals to be lodged in the following circumstances:

- a) Unfair, invalid or unreliable assessment decisions.
- b) Assessors' judgements that are considered biased.
- c) Inadequate expertise or experience of the assessor.
- d) Unethical practices.
- e) Unprocedural assessments.

The Implementation Guidelines for the Handling of Appeals on Assessment Decisions (SAPS, 2012:2–4) provide for three different phases of the appeals process. During the first phase, attempts are made to resolve the dispute before a formal appeal is lodged. The second phase is entered when the dispute cannot be resolved and a formal appeal is lodged. The chairperson of the Appeals Authority within the Division HRD will then hear the matter and try and resolve it. If the appellant is still not satisfied with the outcome, the third phase is entered in which the appellant may take his/her appeal to SASSETA.

- **Implementation Guidelines for Recognition of Prior Learning**

The Implementation Guidelines for the Recognition of Prior Learning (SAPS, 2012:1) provide for a process that enables people from all educational backgrounds to receive formal recognition for competencies (experience, skills and knowledge) that they already possess. Recognition of prior learning (RPL) attempts to put a value on all learning, irrespective of how it is achieved. Employees of the SAPS who have not obtained a formal qualification but who have acquired competencies through work experience, internal development programmes, self-study and formal and informal on-the-job education and development qualify for RPL. This

process is voluntary and the employee himself/herself must initiate the process (SAPS Implementation Guideline for the Recognition of Prior Learning 2012:1).

The guidelines define recognition of prior learning as the comparison of the previous development that the employee obtained against the learning outcomes required for a specific qualification and the acceptance of those learning outcomes for the purpose of that which meets the set requirements. According to the guidelines, the purpose of RPL includes the following:

- a) Redressing of past imbalances by recognising skills gained at work and providing access to further education and training.
- b) Identification of gaps in a candidate's competence and assisting in creating a development plan to address these gaps.
- c) Granting of advanced status and standing.
- d) Crediting and certifying employees for parts of or the whole qualification.

Recognition of prior learning within the SAPS is subject to the principles of validity, fairness, reliability and practicability. It provides for an open, transparent and credible approach to assessments (SAPS Implementation Guidelines for Recognition of Prior Learning, 2012:3).

- **Implementation Guidelines for Providing Learner Support and Guidance**

The Guidelines for Learner Support and Guidance ensure that an environment conducive to development exists. The guidelines explain that the provision of learner support is aimed at guiding, supporting and counselling of learners if a specific problem that impedes their development occurs. This enables the learner to progress through the development programme to achieve the required standards of competence. These guidelines are elementary and deal mainly with learners' special needs and also provide suggestions on how to deal with learners with special needs. Professional counselling does not fall within the scope of these guidelines, and learners who require professional counselling should be referred to qualified professionals.

3.5 HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

This research focused on the programmes presented in the Division HRD. According to the official website of the SAPS, the main purpose of this division is "to provide quality education, training and development to all personnel of the SAPS in accordance with relevant legislation". The national office of the division is responsible for developing, implementing and maintaining national standards relating to all development-related matters within the SAPS. The division has a capacity for dealing with national developmental programmes that cannot be delegated

to lower levels for practical reasons. The division is accountable to the Deputy National Commissioner: Corporate Services Management. The head office of the division is situated at the Shorburg Building in Pretoria. The division is headed by a lieutenant general, with a number of major generals who is each responsible for one of the following sections within the HRD environment:

- Head: Education, Training and Development – Research and Curriculum Development.
- Head: Education, Training and Development – Systems, Skills Development and Quality Management.
- Head: Basic Police Development.
- Head: In-service Training and Generic Skills.
- Head: Management Development and International Training.

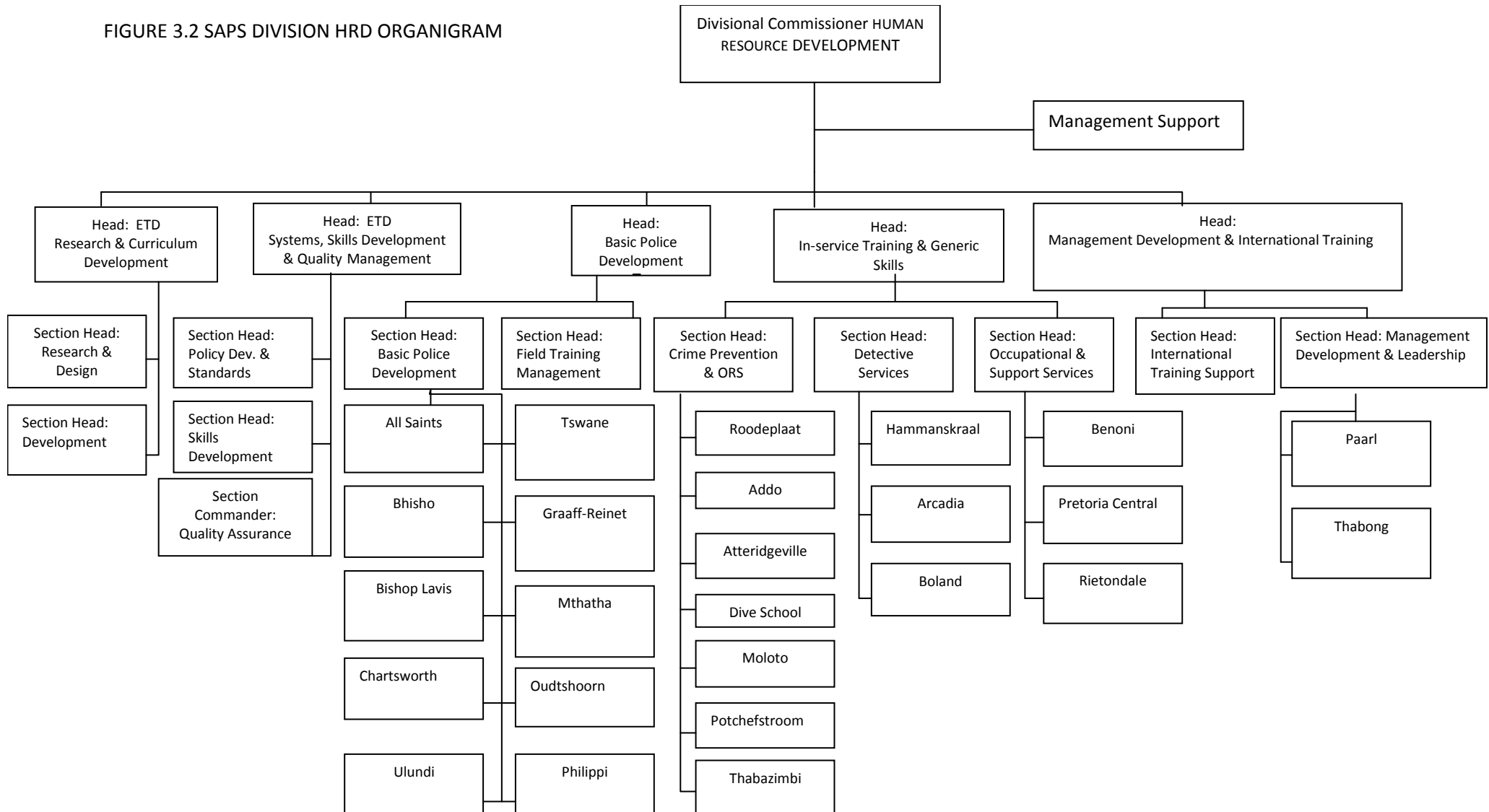
Each of these sections, with the exception of the ETD clusters (Research and Curriculum Development and Systems, Skills Development and Quality Management), has dedicated academies that present training in its specific focus area. The section ETD – Research and Curriculum Development is responsible for the development of course material and research on programmes that are presented by the Division HRD. The focus is on the development of programmes before they take place, and the section is also responsible for the revision/updating of programme content.

The functions of the section ETD – Systems, Skills Development and Quality Management are of a monitoring and evaluation nature, and the respective Monitoring & Evaluation (M&E) sections within the academies fall within this section. The focus is mainly on the implementation of programmes. This section is responsible for ensuring that academies comply with the SASSETA prescripts regarding quality assurance and standards of ETD systems, and the Assessment Body of the SAPS falls within this section.

The section Basic Police Development is divided into two subsections: the subsection Basic Police Development, which deals with new recruits during their first phase of training, and the subsection Field Training, which deals with the second phase of the Basic Police Development Programme, known as the field training phase, during which recruits are exposed to real-life situations under the supervision of a field training officer. The section Basic Police Development has 10 police academies throughout the country dedicated to this programme.

The section In-service Training and Generic Skills is responsible for the training of SAPS members who have already completed the Basic Police Development Programme. This section is divided into three subsections: Crime Prevention and Operational Response Services has seven academies, focusing on courses such as diving courses, dog handler courses, mounted unit courses, bomb disposal courses, close-quarter combat, public order policing and other operational readiness courses. Occupational and Support Services has three academies, focusing on generic skills such as vehicle handling, administrative courses, basic computer training and occupational health and safety courses. Detective Services has three academies, focusing on various investigating courses. The section Management Development and International Training, which presents the MMLP, the focus of this research, presents management development programmes to managers within the SAPS from the two management and leadership academies, Paarl and Thabong. Figure 3.2 provides a visual presentation of the Organigram of the SAPS Division HRD.

FIGURE 3.2 SAPS DIVISION HRD ORGANIGRAM



Organigram adapted from the SAPS Website <http://www.saps.gov.za>

3.6 MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Senior, middle and junior managers within the SAPS receive training in two different focus areas. One is called the management stream, in which managers are prepared for the general management roles that they need to play within a highly specified policing environment. These courses focus on general management principles but are developed in such a way that they address certain competencies that are required within a specialised environment such as the SAPS. The other focus area is called the operational stream, in which managers are trained in the specific operational requirements within the SAPS. These operational courses are more physical and practical in nature, and competencies in fields such as disaster management, high-risk operations and high-level strategic thinking are taught through exposing the learners to stressful situations in order to develop and train them to function within such environments.

Development programmes of junior, middle and senior managers within the SAPS are presented at the two management and leadership development academies of the SAPS. One is situated in the Western Cape Province (Paarl Management and Leadership Academy) and one in the Free State Province (Thabong Management and Leadership Academy). Different programmes are offered at these academies, with Thabong focusing on junior management development programmes and Paarl focusing on middle and senior management development programmes. This distinction serves to reinforce the rank-based hierarchy within the SAPS. Table 3.2 explains this rank linkage to management level.

Table 3.2: Rank linkage to management level

Rank	Management level	Post level
General, Lt General, Major General & Brigadier	Senior management	Director General, Deputy Director General, Chief Director, Director
Colonel, Lt Colonel & Major	Middle management	Deputy Director, Assistant Director
Captain, Lieutenant & Warrant Officer	Junior management	Section heads, shift commanders
Sergeant, Constable	None	Members

Adapted from Ketel (2005:71)

The training of non-commissioned officers (constables, sergeants and warrant officers) typically takes place at Thabong Management and Leadership Academy and that of commissioned officers (lieutenants and higher) at Paarl Management and Leadership Academy. A short description of the different courses will follow. The MMLP, which was the focus of this study, will be briefly discussed here, and a more in-depth discussion of this programme will be given later on in this chapter.

3.7 DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

The following management development programmes are offered at the two management and leadership academies within the SAPS (Paarl and Thabong): The BMLP focuses on constables and sergeants. This programme was developed to prepare members for future junior management roles. The JMLP is divided into two phases, with Phase 1 focusing on warrant officers and Phase 2 focusing on lieutenants and captains. The MMLP focuses on majors, lieutenant colonels and colonels, the middle management echelon of the SAPS, and was the focus of this research. The EDLP focuses on senior management with the ranks of brigadier, major general, lieutenant general and general. These other management development programmes is not focused on middle management, but deals with lower or higher ranks with lower or senior levels of management and will not be discussed in this research. This research focused on the development of middle managers in the SAPS, and only the MMLP will be discussed in depth.

3.8 THE MIDDLE MANAGEMENT LEARNING PROGRAMME

Middle management is defined by Rautenbach (quoted in Ketel 2005:62) as those employees who are neither responsible for executive decision-making nor can they be classified as supervisors. They are an important group in any organisation, since they are most likely to replace senior management. Middle managers within the SAPS have more people reporting directly to them than any other level of management. The technical knowledge and people skills required of middle management are also more than those required of senior management. Middle management therefore needs a wide range of competencies to execute its functions. Reynecke and Fourie (quoted in Ketel 2005:68) list the following general police management competencies (see Table 3.3):

Table 3.3: Police management competencies

Style	Administrative	Communication	Supervisory	Cognitive
Management style	Managing the job/tasks handling	Relating to others/ people handling		
Interpersonal style	Time management/ prioritising	Listening and organising	Appraising people and performance	Identifying/ solving problems
Communication style	Setting goals and standards	Giving clear information	Disciplining and counselling	Making decisions and weighing risks
	Planning and scheduling work	Getting unbiased information	Training, coaching and delegating	Thinking clearly and analytically

Adapted from Reynecke and Fourie (quoted in Ketel, 2005:68)

The SAPS has developed a middle management training programme that aims to develop these competencies at the middle management level of the SAPS. The programme is known as the MMLP. According to the Division HRD, the MMLP is designed and developed for middle managers at the level of colonel, lieutenant colonel and major. Commanders are encouraged to nominate members who meet the following qualifying criteria to attend the programme:

- Candidates must have been appointed under the SAPS Act (68 of 1995) (RSA, 1995a).
- Colonels, Lieutenant Colonels and majors who were appointed laterally (those officers who entered the SAPS on a specific rank due to the specialised nature of their jobs) must have attended the following programmes prior to being nominated:
 1. Colonels – the four-week Lateral Entry Police Development Programme.
 2. Lieutenant colonels and majors – the three-month Introductory Police Development Learning Programme.
- Colonels, lieutenant colonels and majors who have completed the Officers Programme prior to 1996 and officers who have completed the JMLP must be nominated to attend the MMLP course.

The MMLP is offered over a period of five weeks and consists of the following seven learning areas:

- **Personal mastery**

The outcome of this learning area is that the learner is able to function effectively in his/her professional capacity based on an understanding of himself/herself and his/her values. The learner is tasked with identifying his/her own motivational drivers and unique design and with

developing a personal strategy consisting of a purpose statement, personal vision, values and action plans and with aligning these with the vision and mission of the SAPS. The learner must be able to develop his/her own personal development plan. This learning area teaches the learner strategic thinking and time management skills and develops the necessary conceptual skills in the learner to differentiate between leadership and management. The learner is given different tasks and activities to demonstrate his/her understanding of the context and strategy of the MMLP.

- **Interpersonal leadership**

This learning area focuses on the ability of the learner to lead, motivate, support and develop other staff members. The outcome of this learning area is the learner's ability to demonstrate awareness and confirm self-perception and to discover the differences among people and how these apply to team roles, team personality orientation, team leadership, team competency, team-spirit and team values. The learner must be able to demonstrate through the performance of different tasks and activities his/her understanding of emotional intelligence and building blocks for leadership and team functioning.

- **Professional leadership**

This learning area is divided into three parts:

- a) Ecosystemic perspective: The outcome of this part of the learning area is the ability of the learner to explain the meaning of 'professionalism' in the SAPS environment and to identify his/her own professional values and the behaviour that would stem from these values measured against the SAPS code of conduct. The learner must be able to demonstrate and understand organisational leadership and the nature of leadership and to develop an organisational leadership strategy.
- b) Professional leadership: This part focuses on the learner's understanding of organisational levels and the leadership functions on those levels. The learner must be able to identify her/his own mentoring contribution and must show knowledge of the model of professional practice within a policing environment.
- c) Mentoring: This part focuses on the mentoring function of police managers, and the learner must be able to demonstrate knowledge of mentoring models and the mentoring process. The learner must be able to demonstrate an understanding of mentoring and be able to develop a mentoring strategy.

- **Service delivery**

This learning area is divided into four parts:

- a) Contextualising service delivery: This part deals with teaching the learner how to function in and perform all the general managerial and police-specific functions through exercises and activities that support the invitational approach to service delivery and its impact on service culture.
- b) The service chain: This part aims to teach the learner an understanding of benchmarks for service delivery within the SAPS. It teaches the learner the organisational service chain and an understanding of the Batho Pele Principles, the SAPS Code of Conduct and the SAPS Service Charter.
- c) The internal and external service quality chains: This part deals with the needs of the internal and external clients and teaches the learner various methods and skills for ensuring client satisfaction. The learner must be able to demonstrate an understanding of the internal and external service quality chains.
- d) The service marketing triangle: This section focuses on the learner's ability to explain what influences client perception. The learner must be able to demonstrate an understanding of the impact of internal and external marketing on employee and client perception.

- **Resource management**

The focus of this learning area is teaching the learner how to control and manage different kinds of resources, whether physical, financial or human resources, which are allocated to his/her specific work environment. An overview of legislation such as the SAPS Act (68 of 1995) (RSA, 1995a) and the Public Finance Management Act (1 of 1999) (RSA, 1999a) is given, and the learning area aims to develop the learner's understanding of financial management, human resource management and supply chain management procedures and processes within the policing context.

- **Quality and project management**

This learning area aims to give the learner an understanding of the concepts of quality management and project management. The learner must be able to demonstrate an understanding of the concepts and tools of quality management and project management and be able to apply these to the SAPS.

- **Financial simulation**

This learning area entails a practical board game in which the learner has the opportunity to practically apply all the concepts and competencies that he/she was taught in the resource management (financial, human and physical) part of the programme. The learner is allocated

human, physical and financial resources in a simulation board game, and various scenarios are presented. The learner must demonstrate the ability to successfully manage the resources to reach the desired outcome.

3.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter explored the legal framework within which the SAPS operate when presenting development programmes to its members. It further explained the organisational layout of the SAPS and the Division HRD within the SAPS. The policies that guide the development of employees within the SAPS were discussed. An overview of development programmes was given to give the reader an understanding of the different programmes that are currently on offer within the SAPS. The basic management courses expose junior managers, who are responsible for managing only a few employees and resources, to basic management concepts and provide a foundation that is built on during the JMLP and the MMLP. Managers within the operational environment receive training within their activity cluster that is specialised and deals with the specific managerial skills needed within that environment. An in-depth discussion of the learning areas of the MMLP followed. The aim of this programme is to address the developmental needs of police officers in a middle management role within the SAPS. The next chapter will deal with the research design and methodology that were used to evaluate the content alignment of the MMLP with the competency requirements of middle managers in the SAPS.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROGRAMME EVALUATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will introduce the research problem and objectives of this study. The research design focused on a mixed method approach, and both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to interpret the data gathered. Evaluation research is explained, and the research methodology that was followed when analysing the data collected will be discussed. The population and sampling selection will be explained. The different methods of data collection that were used in order to extract information to evaluate the programme will be discussed. The data collection methods included theoretical selection and questionnaires to learners who had attended the MMLP of the SAPS. An in-depth discussion of the questionnaire is presented. The different evaluation criteria for development interventions are presented, and the ethical considerations when doing research are discussed.

4.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES

The SAPS faces many challenges, and the development of its human resources is critical in ensuring that the organisation wins the fight against crime. The question should be posed whether the programmes in place are suitable for equipping middle managers with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to ensure optimal resource usage (human and physical), technical skills, analytical and strategic management skills and general management competencies to ensure that the SAPS meets its mandate of keeping the South African public safe. The middle management echelon is particularly important as it should not only possess technical skills pertaining to operational issues but also needs to be able to interpret and implement acts, policies, guidelines and the organisation's strategic plans. Development programmes that are not aligned in terms of course content with skills requirements can have catastrophic results for the organisation. The study sought to answer the question whether there was an alignment between the content of the MMLP and the competency requirements of middle managers in the SAPS.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

This research made use of a mixed method approach by using both quantitative and qualitative methods. A research paradigm is described by Babbie (2010:33) as a model or frame of reference through which a person observes or understands the world around him/her. Scientific paradigms typically become so entrenched that they resist change. Eventually, the shortcomings of these paradigms become so obvious that new ones that surpass the old paradigms are developed. Babbie (2010:93) states that the research process involves the researcher observing phenomena and then describing what was observed. Because this scientific examination is careful and deliberate, scientific descriptions are typically more accurate and precise than causal ones.

The research question was evaluative in nature as the research sought to evaluate whether the MMLP of the SAPS addressed the competency requirements of middle managers within the SAPS. The researcher made use of a self administered Questionnaire as the research sought to evaluate the perceptions of the respondents that attended the development programme. These Questionnaires were used to gather data to try and answer this research question. Babbie (2010:255) defines a questionnaire as a

“Document containing questions and other types of items designed to solicit information appropriate for analysis. Questionnaires are used primarily in survey research, but also in experiments, field research and other modes of observation”.

Babbie (2010:422) further describes the questionnaire as an instrument that is used specifically to elicit information that will be useful for analysis. The responses obtained through the questionnaire were analysed by making use of quantitative methods of data analysis. Quantitative research is described by Babbie (2010:422) as “the numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining phenomena that those observations reflect”. The responses collected through the questionnaires were coded and analysed to explain the relationship between the content of the MMLP and the competency requirements of middle managers within the SAPS.

The questionnaires sought to evaluate the content of the MMLP and to describe the different management competencies required from a middle manager within a government sector such as the SAPS. The qualitative nature of this research allowed for a description and exploration

of the development of middle managers within the SAPS as well as an evaluation of the MMLP as the chosen intervention for middle management development. The study made use of a mixed method research methodology and focused on content analysis and evaluation research.

According to Mouton (2008:158), evaluation research aims to answer the question whether a programme was properly implemented as designed, whether it reached its objectives and whether the target group was adequately covered. Morra Imas and Rist (2009:9) describe evaluation as “the process of determining the worth or significance of an activity, policy, or programme. (It is) as systematic and objective as possible, of a planned, on-going or completed intervention”. Babbie (2010:362) explains that evaluation research is not a design in itself but is rather a certain application of social research methods and can involve several research designs. Programme evaluation is one such method and is the process used to determine whether a programme or social intervention has produced the intended results. It is a form of applied research that is described by Babbie (2010:363) as follows: “Program evaluation is the use of social research procedures to systematically investigate the effectiveness of social intervention programs”. The aim of programme evaluation is to study, evaluate and help improve social intervention programmes.

The main aspects of programme evaluation include the measurement and investigation of the design and execution of programmes or social interventions. This leads to programme evaluation being described as ‘measuring the unmeasurable’. Babbie (2010:366) describes evaluation as follows: “Evaluation research is a matter of finding out whether something is there or not”. In order to conduct evaluation research, one must be able to operationalise, observe and recognise the presence or absence of what is being studied. One key aspect of programme evaluation is measuring whether a programme that is intended to accomplish a certain outcome actually succeeds in reaching that outcome. According to Babbie (2010:376), the most effective form of evaluation research is research that combines both qualitative and quantitative components.

4.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.4.1 Sampling

The sampling strategy combined both non-probability sampling and theoretical selection. Non-probability sampling is described by Welman *et al.* (2009:67) as the probability that any

element (unit of analysis) will be included cannot be specified. The unit of analysis in this study was the MMLP, measured against the competency requirements of middle managers in the SAPS. The researcher made use of purposive sampling by relying on “experience, ingenuity and/or previous research findings...to deliberately obtain units of analysis in such a manner that the sample they obtain may be regarded as being representative of the relevant population” (Welman *et al.*, 2009:69). The main limitation of this selection process is the extent to which the sample represents the population. Purposive or judgemental sampling might not always provide a description of the whole population but might suffice for generalised comparative purposes (Babbie, 2010:193). Different approaches by different researchers might lead to different ways of obtaining information and might lead to difficulty in evaluating to what extent the sample is representative of the population (Welman *et al.*, 2009:69).

For the purposes of collecting data through questionnaires, the researcher made use of convenience sampling by collecting information from learners who had attended the MMLP in the past three years (2011-2013). The population consisted of all learners who had attended the MMLP since 2011 at the Paarl Management and Leadership Academy. The sample consisted of the total number of learners who responded to the web-based questionnaire that was sent out.

4.4.2 Programme evaluation

Cartwright and Cooper (2008:293) state that in order to determine the worth of any development intervention, it is important to collect information to verify whether the development programme is responsible for the changes that occur in the individual and in his/her performance. Three key questions need to be asked according to Cartwright and Cooper (2008:293):

- Does the examination of the various criteria indicate that a change has occurred?
- Can the changes be attributed to the development programme?
- Is it likely that similar changes would have occurred for all participants in the programme?

Cartwright and Cooper (2008:293) list three key advantages in evaluating development interventions. These are the expanded understanding and relevant criteria, the building of a numerological network of relationships among criteria and improvements in techniques for examining change as a function of training. This evaluation of the MMLP attempted to

investigate whether these criteria had already been met and if not would attempt to develop criteria, to suggest improvements in evaluation techniques and to provide a numerical network of relationships between the content alignment of the MMLP and the competency requirements of middle managers in the SAPS.

Paddock (1997:441–446) states the following as important benchmarks when planning and evaluating management development interventions in a government setting:

- a) Oversight and leadership of the programme.
- b) Stability of administrative and financial support.
- c) Consistent management philosophy.
- d) Administrative control.
- e) Selection and support of participants.
- f) Accessibility.
- g) Preparation for and application of classroom learning.
- h) Quality of programme delivery.
- i) Evaluation of participants.
- j) Ongoing programme evaluation.

The four-level typology that was developed by Kirkpatrick in 1959 (Kirkpatrick, 1979:119) and is still widely used today is another method to evaluate whether the development intervention has reached its intended outcome. This typology focuses on the following four levels:

- Level 1: Reaction (did participants like the programme?)
- Level 2: Learning (did participants change their knowledge and understood facts, principles and techniques taught?)
- Level 3: Transfer (did participants change their behaviour?)
- Level 4: Results (did participants become more productive?)

According to Laird (2003:255), despite the popularity of this model, it is widely criticised for the following reasons:

- Not supported by research: Research has consistently shown that the levels within the taxonomy are not related or are only correlated at a low level.

- Emphasis on reaction measures: Research has shown that reaction measures have a nearly zero correlation with learning or performance outcome measures.
- Failure to update the model: The model has remained the same for the last 40 years with little effort to update or revise it.
- Not widely used: The model is not widely used. Despite more than 40 years of urging people to use it, most do not find it a useful approach.
- Can lead to incorrect decisions: The model leaves out so many important variables that four-level data alone are insufficient to make correct and informed decisions about training programme effectiveness.

This research made use of these criteria in order to avoid the criticism above and evaluate the data and draw conclusions based on the available information.

4.4.3 Data collection

A questionnaire was compiled and administered to learners who had attended the MMLP in the three year period, 2011-2013. These learners were requested to complete questionnaires via a web-based survey. The learners were contacted via email to determine their willingness to participate in the web-based survey in order to ensure a better return rate and to explain the survey.

The questionnaire consisted of four sections. The first section required the learner to provide his/her biographical details. The second section consisted of closed-ended statements set out on a Likert-type scale with ratings that included strongly agree, agree, strongly disagree and disagree. This section evaluated the learner's experience of the MMLP and focused on four levels: reactions, learning, transfer and results. This section was loosely based on Kirkpatrick's (1959) four-level typology for evaluating training interventions. These levels focused on the learner's reaction to the intervention, the learning that had taken place, the transfer of the learning, whether the information learned had led to a change in behaviour and whether the results of the development programme had led to a change in organisational effectiveness.

The third section concerned competencies according to the AMA management development competency model. Learners were asked to compare the competencies acquired during the MMLP with the three categories of competencies in the AMA competency model. These categories consist of competencies according to three levels that build on each other. The categories are as follows: knowing and managing yourself (10 competencies), knowing and managing others (17 competencies) and knowing and managing the organisation (19

competencies). The premise of this model is that one cannot progress to a new level of competency before mastering the competencies on the previous level. In this section, the learner was required to rate his/her perceived competencies on a rating scale that started off with no ability, moved to some ability and ended with well-developed ability.

The fourth section of the questionnaire dealt with the learner's ability to transfer the learning acquired through the MMLP to the workplace. The statements in this section were also set out on a Likert-type scale with ratings that included no ability, some ability and well-developed ability. The learner was requested to rate his/her perceived ability to transfer learning to the workplace. The core police management competencies (Kriel quoted in Ketel, 2005:65) are as follows: analytic ability, judgement, confidence, planning and organising, control, leadership, drive, and tolerance of stress and pressure. These competencies were listed and explained, and the learner had to rate how well he/she was able to apply these competencies as a result of the learning acquired through the MMLP.

The data gathered through the questionnaires were used to determine how these core competencies compared with the competencies included in the MMLP. The research seeks to evaluate general trends and minority responses were not probed as the focus was placed on evaluating general trends. A comparison was also drawn between the competencies acquired through the MMLP and the competencies included in the different competency models, for example the AMA competency model, the competency model of Zacarias and Tagonon, and Boyatzis' competency cluster model, as well as the three types of competency as set out in the EDT policy of the SAPS.

4.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Coldwell and Herbst (2004:16) state that three parties are involved in the research process, namely the researcher, the user of the research results and the respondent or participant in the research. The interaction between these parties leads to certain ethical questions. In order for research to be ethical, the following four situational factors apply (Collins, Du Plooy, Grobbelaar, Puttergill, Terre Blanche, Van Eeden, Van Rensburg & Wigston, 2000:108):

- a) The methods used by the researcher to collect, analyse and report research data should meet the generally accepted ethical principles of research.

- b) The purpose or goal of this research was to verify what factors informed the programme content of the MMLP in the SAPS as well as to develop a training model or framework for middle managers in the SAPS.
- c) The personal motives or intentions of the researcher were to acquire knowledge and to contribute to the body of knowledge and professionalism in the SAPS.
- d) The questionnaires were completed anonymously, and the identity of all research participants was protected. The researcher hoped to add to existing knowledge regarding the evaluation of development interventions in the government sector (Collins *et al.*, 2000:108).

4.6 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

In order to ensure the reliability and validity of the research, the researcher undertook to comply with the following six behavioural norms that regulate research, according to Collins *et al.* (2003:108):

- Universalism: The researcher aimed to pass peer evaluation; peers would be allowed to judge whether the research was in line with previously accepted methods, thinking and knowledge on the subject.
- Communalism: The researcher undertook to accurately report the methods used and the purpose, motives and consequences of these methods. The researcher would share her research findings, including means, ends, motives and consequences, freely and honestly with other members of the research community.
- Disinterestedness: Personal gain was not the researcher's main aim for doing the research.
- Organised scepticism: The researcher would be critical of her own and others' research and would be honest when she spotted errors, omissions and subjected biases.
- Honesty: The researcher would be honest with herself, the participants of the research and the broader research community.
- Respect: The researcher would protect the research participants' basic human and civil rights.

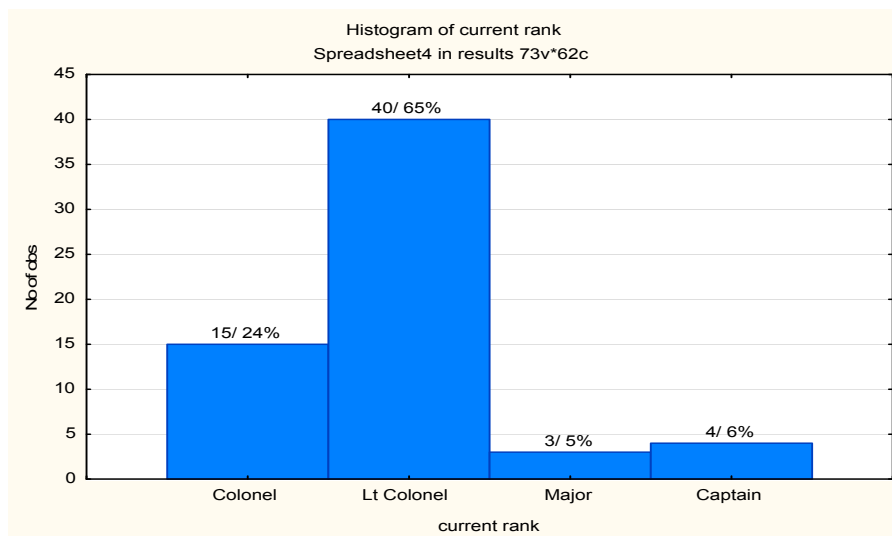
4.7 QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH RESULTS

This section focuses on the presentation of data collected through a web-based questionnaire that was completed by members of the SAPS who had attended the MMLP at the SAPS Paarl

Management and Leadership Academy. Each statement in every section of the questionnaire will be discussed and explained in terms of the management competencies as explained in chapter 2. The research questionnaires were sent to 504 respondents who provided email addresses. A total of 176 did not reach the intended recipients and were returned due to wrong email addresses and out-of-office notifications. Out of a total of 328 respondents who had received the questionnaire, only 62 responded. The results of these respondents' feedback are presented here. The questionnaire consisted of four sections with various statements; the respondents had to rate themselves on each statement on a Likert-type scale. The responses to the statements were interpreted and will be presented in terms of a histogram comparing the different values.

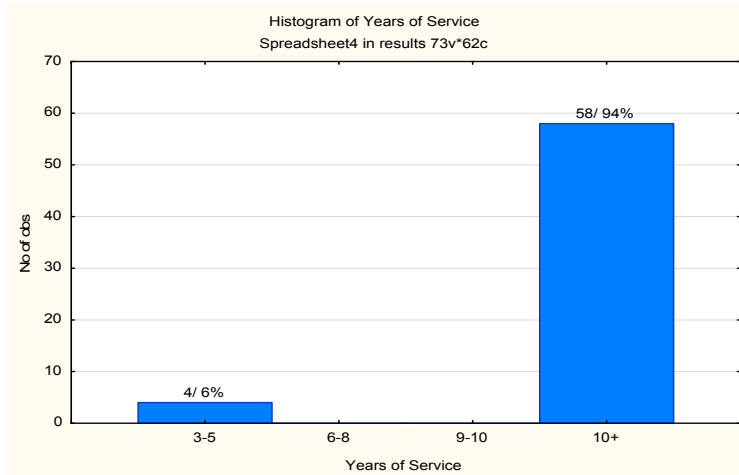
4.7.1 Biographical details

The first section of the questionnaire requested the respondents to state their rank and years of service within the SAPS. Each individual answer is presented in terms of a histogram in which percentages of the different values are given.



According to the Division HRD of the SAPS, members on the ranks of colonel, lieutenant colonel and major are eligible to attend the MMLP. The results of the sample, however, show that 6% of members were on the rank of captain. This group was not included in the target audience. The majority of members who attended the MMLP were on the rank of lieutenant colonel (65%), the second highest total was members on the rank of colonel (24%) and only 5% of members were on the rank of major. The low attendance of majors can be attributed to

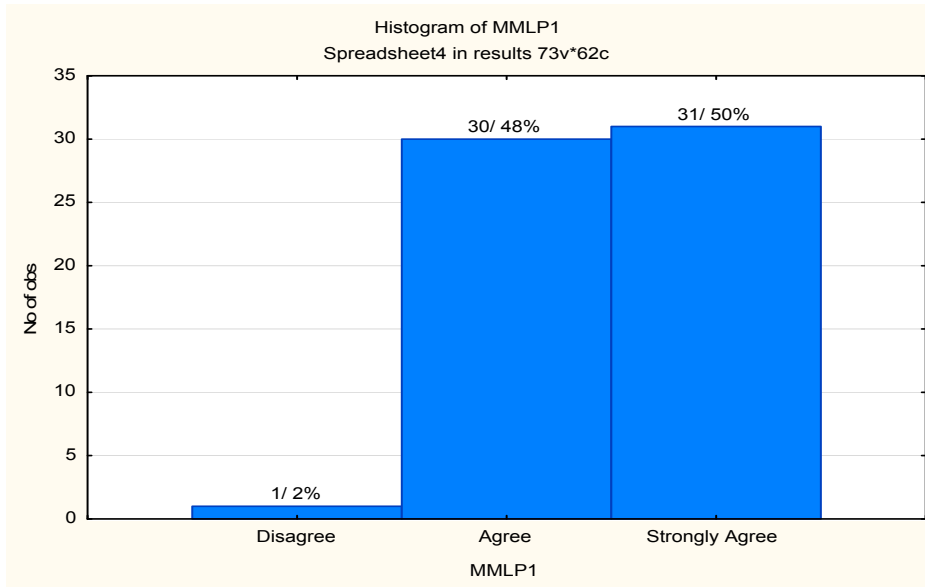
the fact that the rank of major was newly introduced into the SAPS in 2011 and only a few posts were created and filled on that rank.



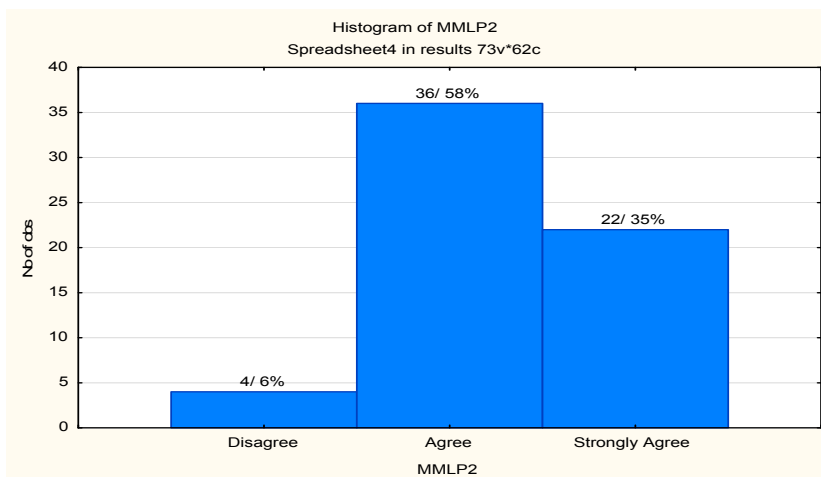
The results show that the majority (94%) of members who attended the MMLP had more than 10 years of service in the SAPS. Only 6% of the respondents stated that they had between three and five years of service in the SAPS.

4.7.2 Evaluation of the training programme

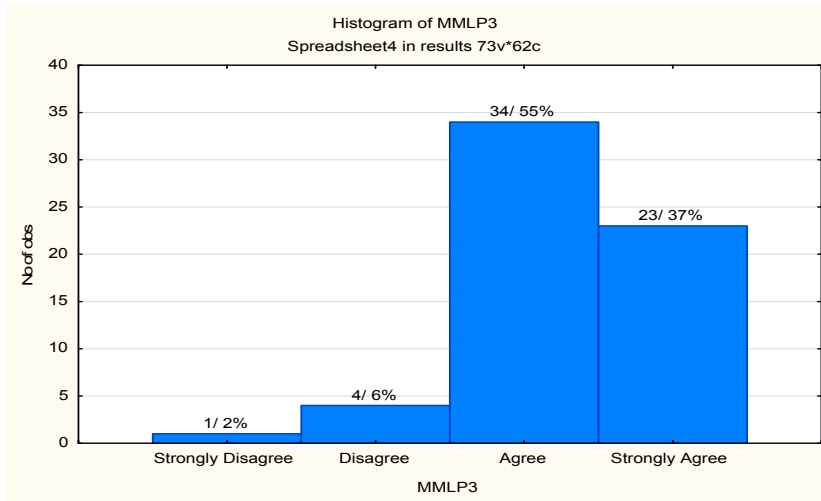
The statements in the second section of the questionnaire dealt with the management training presented. The learner's experience of the MMLP was evaluated, focusing on four levels: reaction, learning, transfer and results. This section was loosely based on Kirkpatrick's (1959) four-level typology for evaluation of training interventions. These levels focused on the learner's reaction to the intervention (statements 1,2,3), the transfer of the learning and the learning that had taken place (statements 4,5,8,9,10), whether the information learned had led to a change in behaviour (statements 6,7,11,12,14) and whether the results of the development programme had led to a change in organisational effectiveness (statements 13,15,16,17). This section consisted of closed-ended statements set out on a Likert-type scale with ratings that included strongly agree, agree, strongly disagree and disagree. The results of this section are presented as follows:



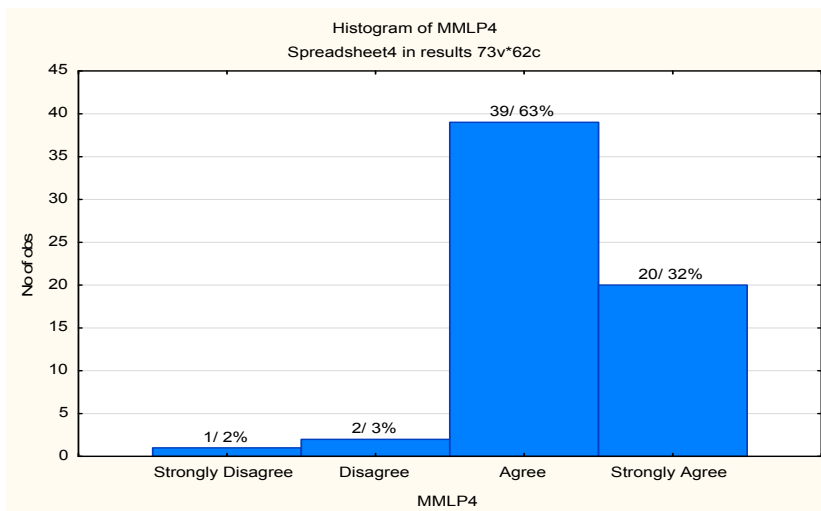
Statement 1 measured respondents' level of enjoyment of the development programme as a whole. The majority of the respondents (50%) strongly agreed that the MMLP was enjoyable, 48% agreed and only 2% indicated that they did not find the programme enjoyable.



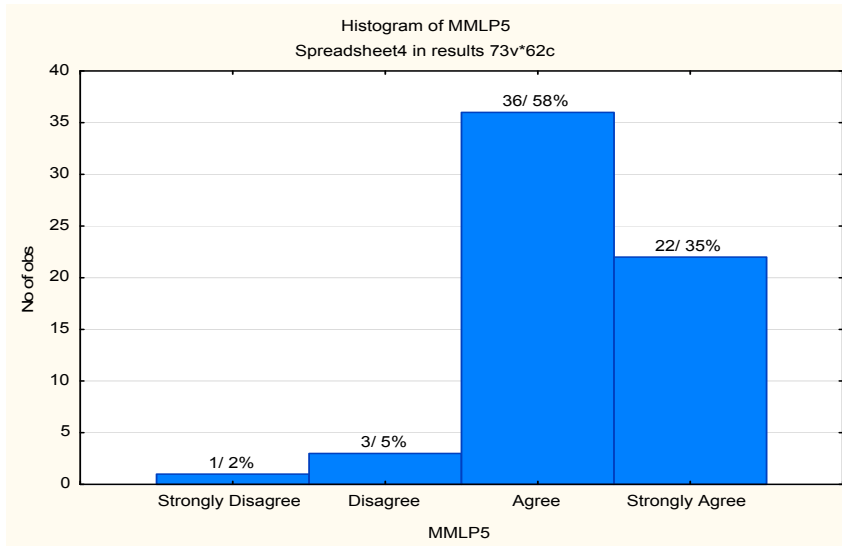
Statement 2 requested respondents to rate the facilitators of the MMLP. A total of fifty-eight per cent agreed that the facilitators were adequately skilled and informed about the programme, 35% strongly agreed and 6% disagreed.



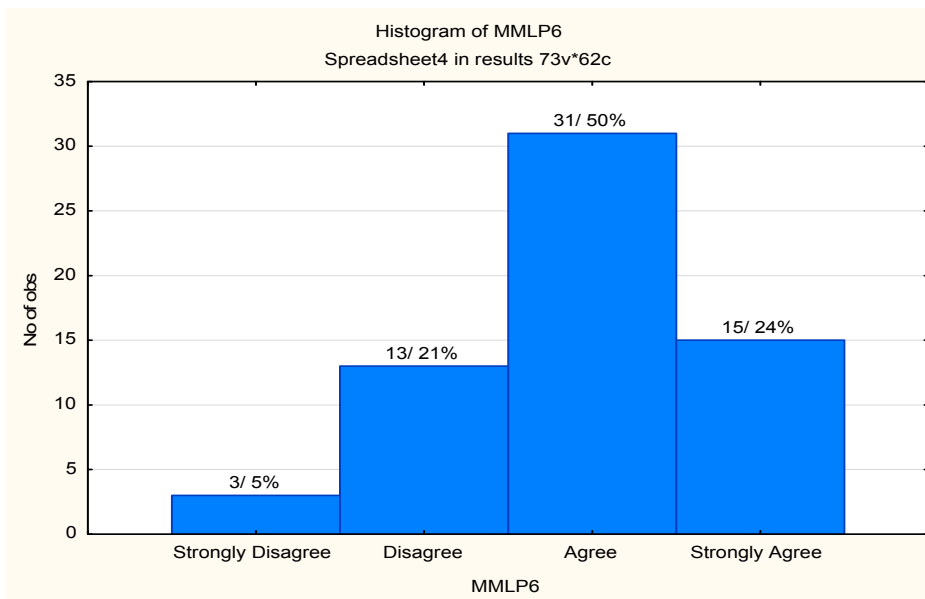
Statement 3 requested respondents to rate the quality of the training venue. Fifty-five per cent agreed that the training venue was conducive to learning, 37% strongly agreed, 6% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.



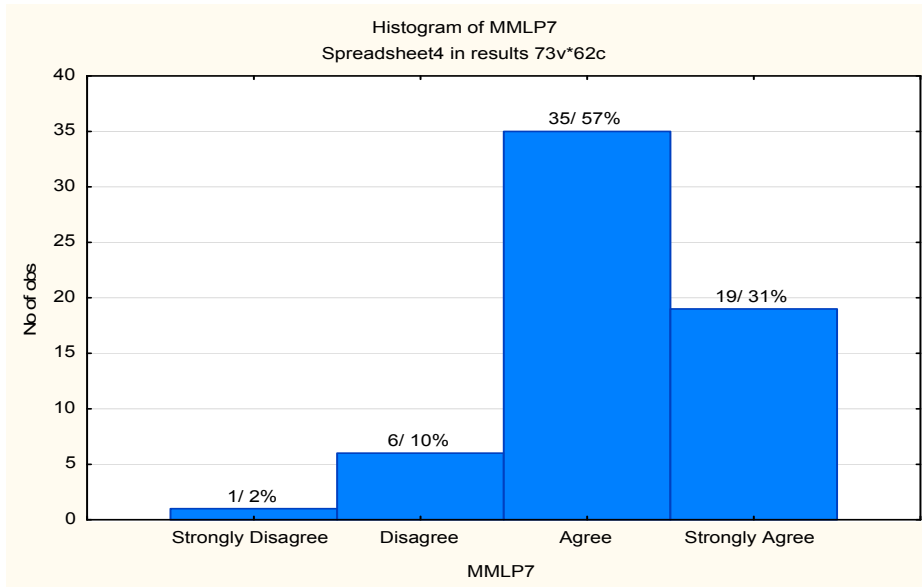
Statement 4 requested respondents to rate the effectiveness of the techniques used in transferring the learning competencies as set out in the learning outcomes. Sixty-three per cent agreed that the techniques were effective, 32% strongly agreed, 3% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.



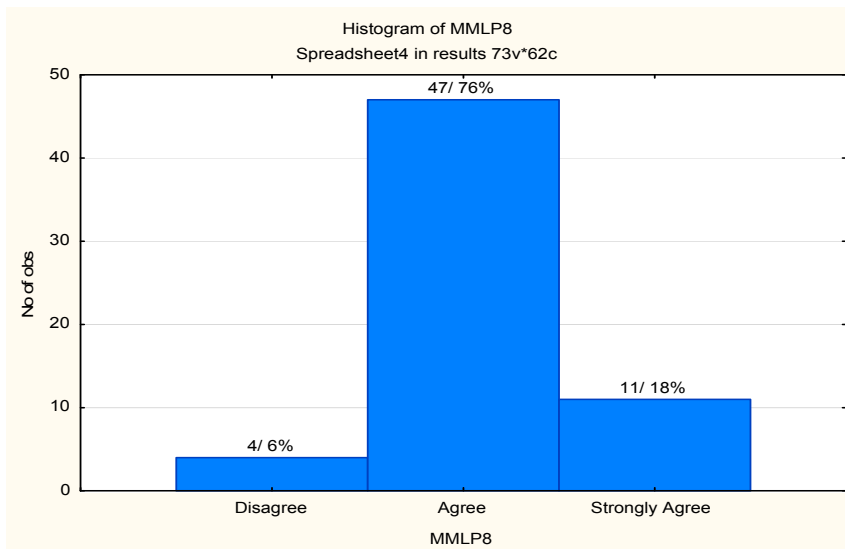
Statement 5 requested respondents to indicate whether they thought that the content of the programme was appropriate for a manager at their level in the SAPS. Fifty-eight per cent agreed that it was appropriate, 35% strongly agreed, 5% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.



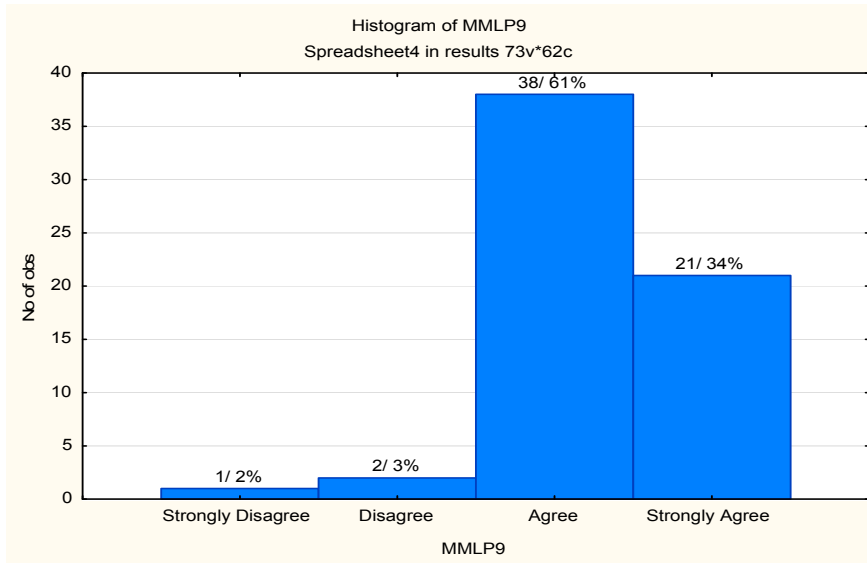
Statement 6 requested respondents to rate their level of competency before the development intervention. Fifty per cent agreed that before attending the programme, they did not possess the skills, knowledge and attitudes that they had gained through attending the MMLP, 24% strongly agreed, 21% disagreed and 5% strongly disagreed.



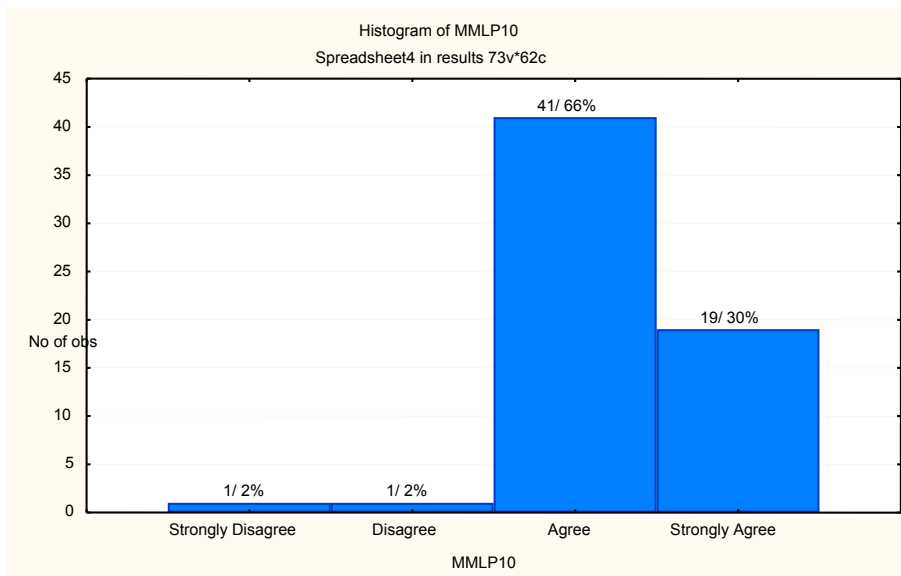
Statement 7 requested respondents to indicate whether a change in their behaviour had taken place as a result of the MMLP. Fifty-seven per cent agreed that there had been a change in their behaviour, 31% strongly agreed, 10% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.



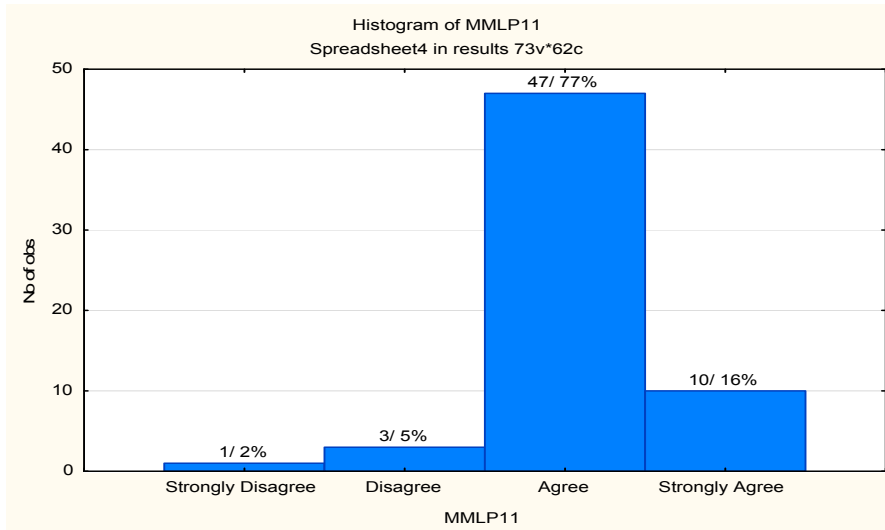
Statement 8 requested respondents to indicate whether their understanding of managing government resources had improved as a result of the MMLP. Seventy-six per cent agreed that they had gained a better understanding, 18% strongly agreed and 6% disagreed.



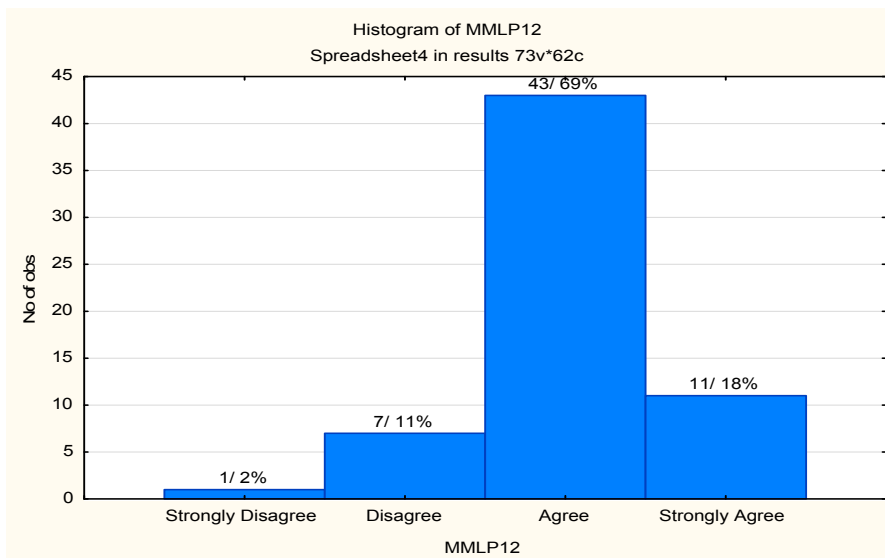
Statement 9 requested respondents to state whether their understanding of their own management style had improved after attending the MMLP. Sixty-one per cent agreed that attending the MMLP had given them a better understanding of their own management style, 34% strongly agreed, 3% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.



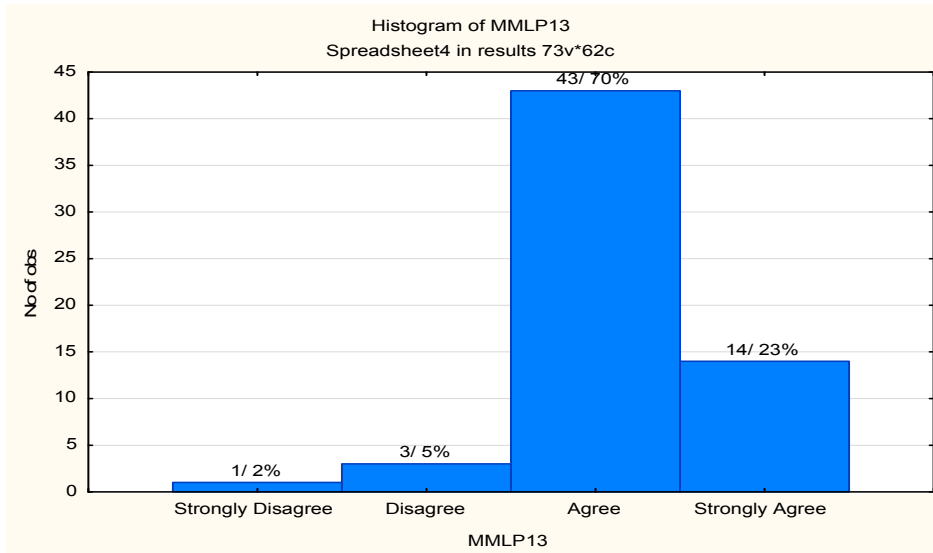
Statement 10 requested respondents to state whether they had gained new insight as a result of the MMLP. Sixty-six per cent agreed that they had, 30% strongly agreed, 2% disagreed and 2% strongly disagree.



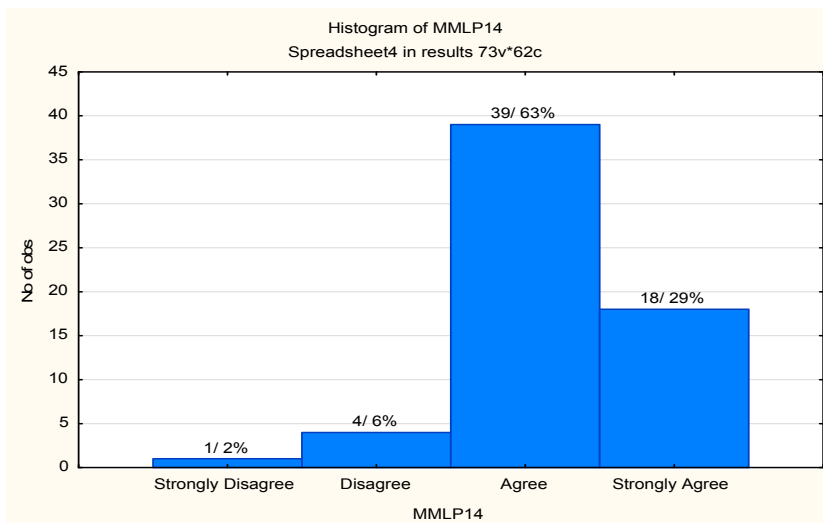
Statement 11 requested respondents to state whether their ability to interpret, understand and implement policies and procedures had improved as a result of the MMLP. Seventy-seven per cent agreed that it had, 16% strongly agreed, 5% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.



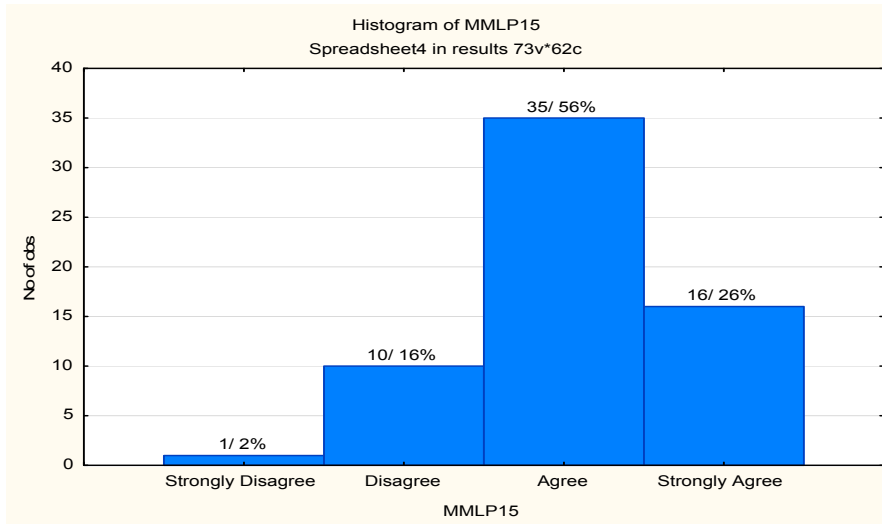
Statement 12 requested respondents to state whether it was easy to apply the competencies learned during the MMLP when they returned to their workplace. Sixty-nine per cent agreed that they had found it easy to apply the new competencies learned, 18% strongly agreed, 11% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.



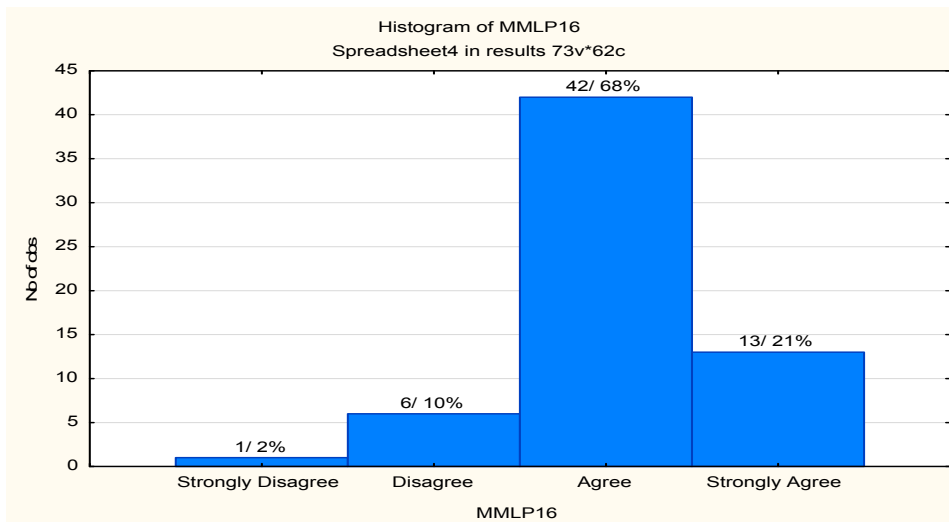
Statement 13 requested respondents to state whether they were able to mentor others better as a result of the MMLP. Seventy per cent agreed that they were, 23% strongly agreed, 5% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.



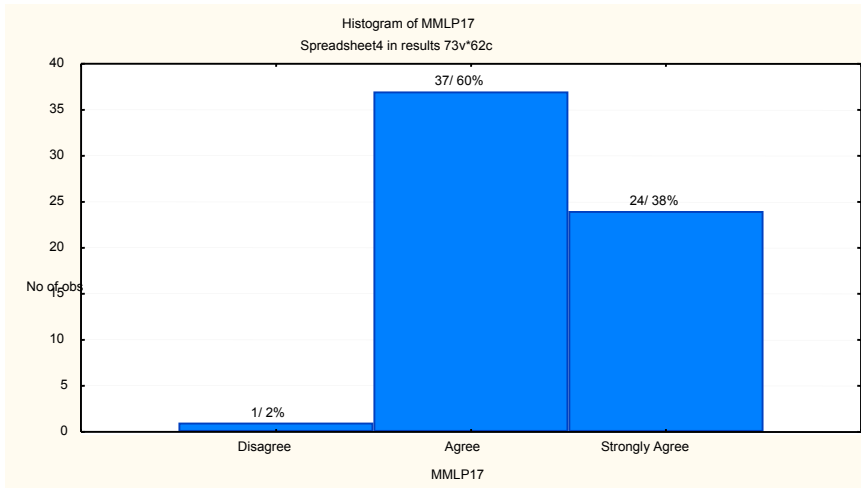
Statement 14 requested respondents to indicate whether there had been a change in their behaviour when dealing with work-related and personal problems. Sixty-three per cent agreed that there had been a change, 29% strongly agreed, 6% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.



Statement 15 requested respondents to indicate whether they had become more productive in their work as a result of the MMLP. Fifty-six per cent agreed that they had, 26% strongly agreed, 16% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed.



Statement 16 requested respondents to state whether they were able to apply the competencies learned in the MMLP at their workplace. Sixty-eight per cent agreed that they were, 21% strongly agreed, 10% disagreed and 2% strongly.



Statement 17 requested respondents to indicate whether the organisation had benefited from their attendance of the MMLP. Sixty per cent agreed that it had, 38% strongly agreed and 2% disagreed.

4.7.3 American Management Association Management Development Competency Model

The third section of the questionnaire concerned competencies according to the AMA competency model. Respondents were asked to compare the competencies acquired through the MMLP with the three categories of competencies in the AMA competency model. These categories consist of competencies according to three categories that build on each other. The categories are as follows: knowing and managing yourself, knowing and managing others and knowing and managing the organisation. In this section, the respondents were required to rate their perceived competencies on a scale of no ability, some ability and well-developed ability. The results of each question in this section are graphically presented in table format, listing the different scores of the questionnaires. Three different tables will be presented according to the three different categories of the AMA competency model as well as a fourth table listing the AMA competencies with the lowest scores in all three categories.

- **Knowing and managing the self**

Table 4.1: Responses in terms of the AMA Management Development Competency Model: Knowing and managing self

AMA COMPETENCY MODEL	
MANAGEMENT COMPETENCY	EVALUATION OF ABILITY

Managing yourself	No ability	Some ability	Well-developed ability
Emotional intelligence/self-awareness	2%	32%	66%
Self-confidence	3%	28%	69%
Self-development	3%	33%	64%
Building trust and personal accountability	5%	29%	66%
Resilience and stress tolerance	5%	42%	53%
Action orientation	2%	58%	40%
Time management	5%	28%	67%
Mental flexibility and agility	3%	45%	52%
Critical and analytical thinking	2%	34%	64%
Creative thinking	3%	35%	62%

Adapted from Tobin and Pettingell (2008:43)

Emotional intelligence/self-awareness

Respondents rated themselves as follows on emotional intelligence/self-awareness: 66% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for emotional intelligence/self-awareness, 32% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

Self-confidence

Respondents rated themselves as follows on self-confidence: 69% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for self-confidence, 28% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Self-development

Respondents rated themselves as follows on self-development: 64% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for self-development, 33% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Building trust and personal accountability

Respondents rated themselves as follows on trust and personal accountability: 66% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for trust and accountability, 29% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Resilience and stress tolerance

Respondents rated themselves as follows on resilience and stress tolerance: 53% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for resilience and stress tolerance, 42% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Action orientation

Respondents rated themselves as follows on action orientation: 40% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for action orientation, 58% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

Time management

Respondents rated themselves as follows on time management: 67% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for time management, 28% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Mental flexibility and agility

Respondents rated themselves as follows on mental flexibility and agility: 52% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for mental flexibility and agility, 45% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Critical and analytical thinking

Respondents rated themselves as follows on critical and analytic thinking: 64% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for critical and analytic thinking, 34% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

Creative thinking

Respondents rated themselves as follows on creative thinking: 62% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for creative thinking, 35% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

- **Knowing and managing others**

Table 4.2: Responses in terms of the AMA Management Development Competency Model: Knowing and managing others

AMA COMPETENCY MODEL			
MANAGEMENT COMPETENCY	EVALUATION OF ABILITY		
Managing others	No ability	Some ability	Well-developed ability
Oral communication	5%	31%	64%
Written communication	5%	36%	59%
Valuing diversity	0	50%	50%
Building teams	2%	30%	68%
Networking	0	37%	63%
Partnering	0	45%	55%
Building relationships	0	30%	70%
Emotional intelligence/interpersonal savvy	5%	30%	65%
Influencing	3%	51%	46%
Managing conflict	3%	30%	67%
Managing people and performance	3%	30%	67%
Clarifying roles and accountabilities	3%	25%	72%
Delegating	2%	27%	71%
Empowering others	4%	18%	78%
Motivating others	2%	25%	73%
Coaching	2%	33%	65%
Developing top talent	5%	50%	45%

Adapted from Tobin and Pettingell (2008:43)

Oral communication

Respondents rated themselves as follows on oral communication: 64% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for oral communication, 31% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Written communication

Respondents rated themselves as follows on written communication: 59% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for written communication, 36% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Valuing diversity

Respondents rated themselves as follows on valuing diversity: 50% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for valuing diversity, 50% rated themselves with some ability and none of the respondents rated themselves with no ability.

Building teams

Respondents rated themselves as follows on building teams: 68% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for building teams, 30% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

Networking

Respondents rated themselves as follows on networking: 63% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for networking, 37% rated themselves with some ability and none of the respondent rated themselves with no ability.

Partnering

Respondents rated themselves as follows on partnering: 55% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for partnering, 45% rated themselves with some ability and none of the respondents rated themselves with no ability.

Building relationships

Respondents rated themselves as follows on building relationships: 70% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for building relationships, 30% rated themselves with some ability and none of the respondents rated themselves with no ability.

Emotional intelligence/interpersonal savvy

Respondents rated themselves as follows on emotional intelligence/interpersonal savvy: 65% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for emotional intelligence/interpersonal savvy, 30% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Influencing

Respondents rated themselves as follows on influencing: 46% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for influencing, 51% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Managing conflict

Respondents rated themselves as follows on managing conflict: 67% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for managing conflict, 30% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Managing people and performance

Respondents rated themselves as follows on managing people and performance: 67% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for managing people and performance, 30% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Clarifying roles and responsibility

Respondents rated themselves as follows on clarifying roles and responsibility: 72% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for clarifying roles and responsibility, 25% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Delegating

Respondents rated themselves as follows on delegating: 71% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for delegating, 27% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

Empowering others

Respondents rated themselves as follows on empowering others: 78% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for empowering others, 18% rated themselves with some ability and 4% rated themselves with no ability.

Motivating others

Respondents rated themselves as follows on motivating others: 73% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for motivating others, 25% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

Coaching

Respondents rated themselves as follows on coaching: 65% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for coaching, 33% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

Developing top talent

Respondents rated themselves as follows on developing top talent: 45% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for developing top talent, 50% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

- **Knowing and managing the organisation**

Table 4.3: Responses in terms of the AMA Management Development Competency Model: Knowing and managing the organisation

AMA COMPETENCY MODEL			
MANAGEMENT COMPETENCY	EVALUATION OF ABILITY		
Managing the organisation	No ability	Some ability	Well-developed ability
Problem solving	2%	32%	66%
Decision-making	2%	25%	73%
Managing and leading change	3%	30%	67%
Driving innovation	4%	48%	48%
Customer focus	5%	31%	64%
Resource management	2%	28%	70%
Operational and tactical planning	3%	39%	58%
Result orientation	3%	27%	69%
Quality orientation	2%	35%	63%
Mastering competence	3%	39%	58%
Business and finance acumen	5%	58%	37%
Strategic planning	7%	34%	59%
Strategic thinking	5%	32%	63%
Global perspective	5%	55%	40%
Organisational savvy	5%	52%	43%
Organisational design	5%	52%	43%
Human resource planning	3%	32%	65%
Monitoring the extreme environment	3%	57%	40%
Core functional/technical skills	3%	32%	65%

Adapted from Tobin and Pettingell (2008:43)

Problem solving

Respondents rated themselves as follows on problem solving: 66% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for problem solving, 32% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

Decision-making

Respondents rated themselves as follows on decision-making: 73% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for decision-making, 25% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

Managing and leading change

Respondents rated themselves as follows on managing and leading change: 67% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for managing and leading change, 30% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Driving innovation

Respondents rated themselves as follows on driving innovation: 48% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for driving innovation, 48% rated themselves with some ability and 4% rated themselves with no ability.

Customer focus

Respondents rated themselves as follows on customer focus: 64% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for customer focus, 31% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Resource management

Respondents rated themselves as follows on resource management: 70% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for resource management, 28% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

Operational and tactical planning

Respondents rated themselves as follows on operational and tactical planning: 58% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for operational and tactical planning, 39% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Result orientation

Respondents rated themselves as follows on result orientation: 69% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for result orientation, 27% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Quality orientation

Respondents rated themselves as follows on quality orientation: 63% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for quality orientation, 35% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

Mastering competence

Respondents rated themselves as follows on mastering competence: 58% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for mastering competence, 39% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Business and finance acumen

Respondents rated themselves as follows on business and finance acumen: 37% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for business and finance acumen, 58% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Strategic planning

Respondents rated themselves as follows on strategic planning: 59% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for strategic planning, 34% rated themselves with some ability and 7% rated themselves with no ability.

Strategic thinking

Respondents rated themselves as follows on strategic thinking: 63% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for strategic thinking, 32% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Global perspective

Respondents rated themselves as follows on global perspective: 40% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for global perspective, 55% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Organisational savvy

Respondents rated themselves as follows on organisational savvy: 43% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for organisational savvy, 52% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Organisational design

Respondents rated themselves as follows on organisational design: 43% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for organisational design, 52% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

Human resource planning

Respondents rated themselves as follows on human resource planning: 65% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for human resource planning, 32% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Managing the extreme environment

Respondents rated themselves as follows on managing the extreme environment: 40% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for managing the extreme environment, 57% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

Core functional/technical skills

Respondents rated themselves as follows on technical/functional skills: 65% rated themselves with a well-developed ability for technical/functional skills, 32% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

- **Lowest scores per AMA category**

Table 4.4: AMA competencies with lowest scores in all three categories

MANAGING YOURSELF			
AMA COMPETENCY	No ability	Some ability	Well-developed ability
Action orientation	2%	58%	40%
Flexibility and agility	3%	45%	52%
Resilience and stress tolerance	5%	42%	53%
MANAGING OTHERS			
Influencing	3%	51%	46%
Valuing diversity	0	50%	50%
Developing top talent	5%	49%	46%
Partnering	0	45%	55%
MANAGING THE ORGANISATION			
Business and finance acumen	5%	58%	37%
Monitoring the extreme environment	3%	57%	40%
Global perspective	5%	55%	40%
Organisational savvy	5%	52%	43%
Organisational design	5%	52%	43%
Driving innovation	4%	48%	48%
Operational and tactical planning	3%	39%	58%
Mastering competency	3%	39%	58%
Strategic planning	7%	34%	59%

Adapted from Tobin and Pettingell (2008:43)

When comparing the ratings with the competencies learned during the MMLP, one sees that certain competencies scored high on some ability. This could be an indication that respondents were unsure about their own ability or that they did not know whether they had learned this ability during the MMLP. The competencies with the lowest scores will be presented in terms of the three AMA categories and discussed separately.

Knowing and managing yourself

In the category knowing and managing yourself, in the competency action orientation, 58% of respondents rated themselves with some ability whereas only 40% rated themselves with a well-developed ability. In flexibility and agility, 45% of respondents rated themselves with some ability and 52% with a well-developed ability. In resilience and stress tolerance, 42% of respondents rated themselves with some ability and 53% with a well-developed ability. These high scores on some ability are particularly worrying as these three competencies are important in a high-stress environment such as the SAPS.

Knowing and managing others

In the category knowing and managing others, the following competencies scored high on some ability: In influencing, 51% of respondents rated themselves with some ability, in valuing diversity, 50% of respondents rated themselves with some ability, in developing top talent, 49% of respondents rated themselves with some ability and in partnering, 45% of respondents rated themselves with some ability. These competencies should ideally have higher ratings in terms of well-developed ability. These are core competencies for any police officer as influencing, valuing diversity, partnering and developing top talent are an integral part of a police manager's job.

Knowing and managing the organisation

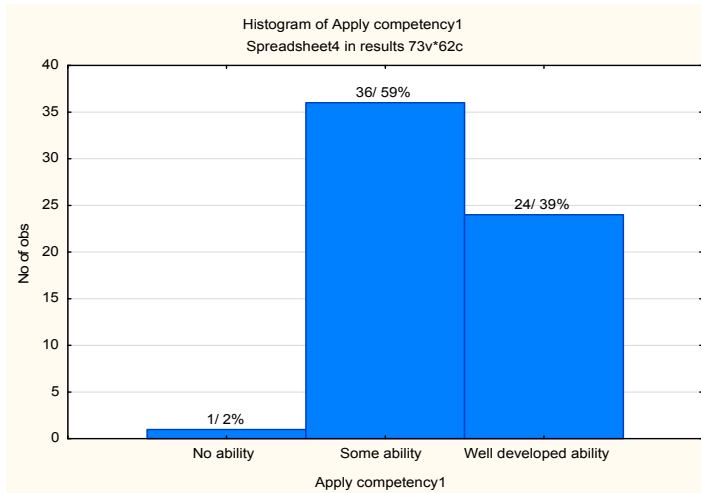
It is particularly worrying that half (nine) of the competencies in the knowing and managing the organisation category scored high on some ability. This category is important for the organisation as it is the core function of its managers. It is clear that urgent attention should be given to developing these competencies. This category should be the main focus when any revision of the MMLP is planned. Recommendations regarding possible changes will be made in Chapter 6.

4.7.4 Police management competencies

The fourth section of the questionnaire dealt with the learner's ability to transfer the learning acquired through the MMLP to the workplace. The core police management competencies (Kriel quoted in Ketel 2005:65) are as follows: analytic ability, judgement, confidence, planning and organising, control, leadership, drive, and tolerance of stress and pressure. These competencies were listed and explained, and the learner had to rate how well he/she was able to apply these competencies as a result of the MMLP. The statements in this section were also set out on a Likert-type scale whereby the learner was required to rate his/her perceived competencies on a scale as follows: no ability, some ability and well-developed ability. The

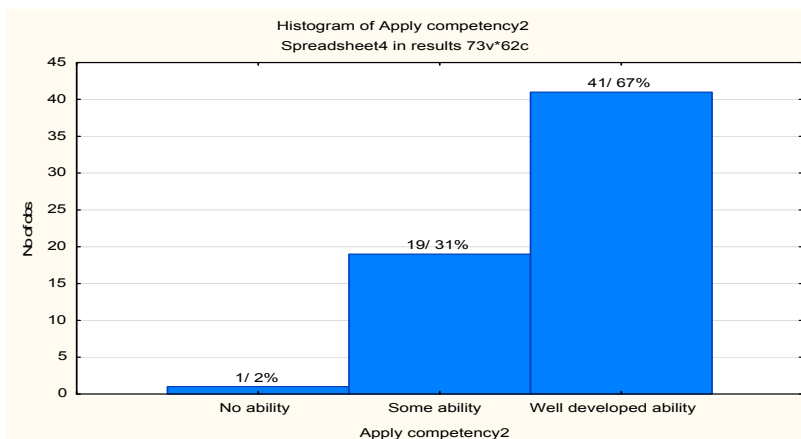
results of this section of the questionnaire are once again presented in the form of histograms in which each statement is rated individually.

APPLIED COMPETENCY 1 - ANALYTIC ABILITY



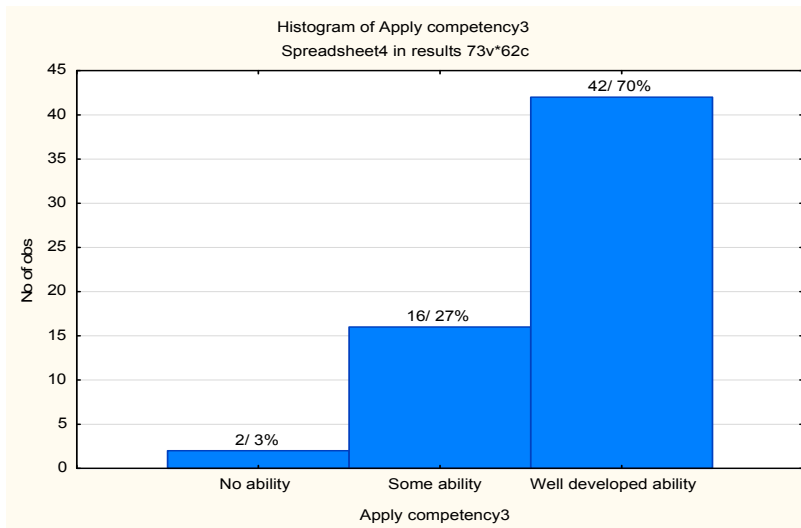
In this competency, respondents were requested to rate their ability to obtain data from a variety of sources, to compare and cumulate this data in order to focus on what is relevant and to use this data to analyse and solve problems. Thirty-nine per cent of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability, 59% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

APPLIED COMPETENCY 2 - JUDGEMENT



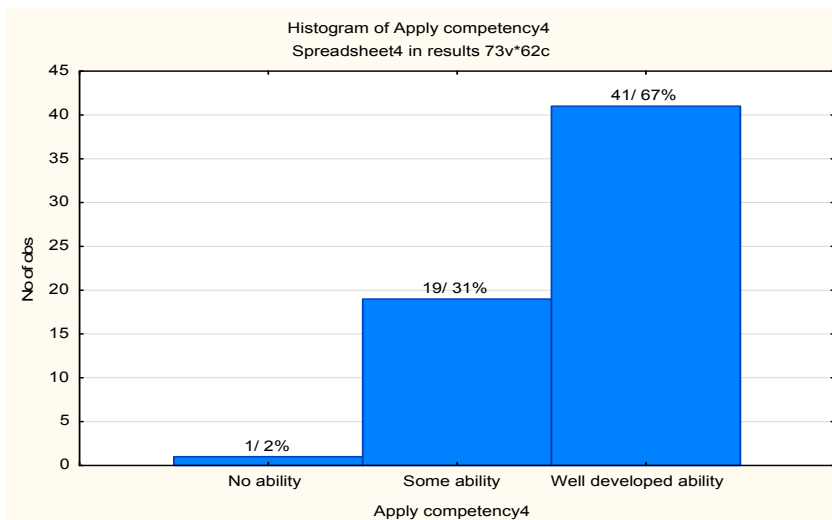
In this competency, respondents were required to rate their ability to make the best choice out of various alternative solutions and to apply insight in order to reach logical conclusions. Sixty-seven per cent of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability, 31% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

APPLIED COMPETENCY 3 - CONFIDENCE



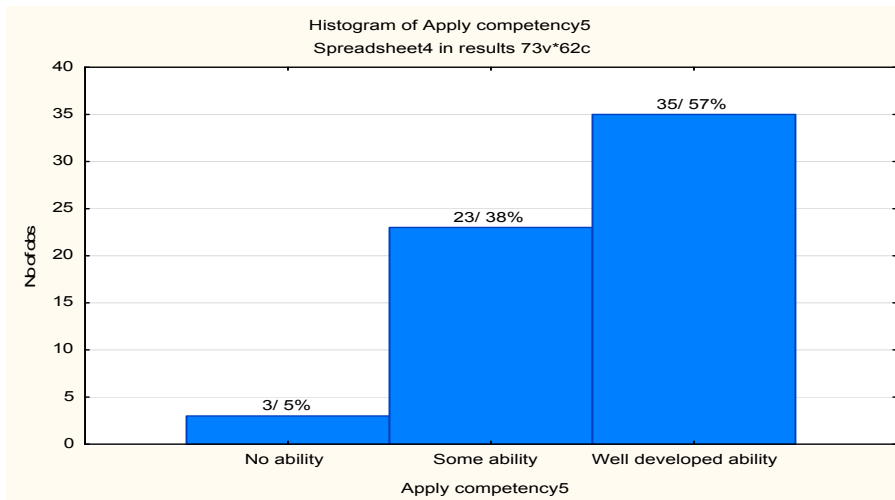
In this competency, respondents were required to rate their willingness to take decisions that result in actions and to accept responsibility. Seventy per cent of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability, 27% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

APPLIED COMPETENCY 4 – PLANNING AND ORGANISING



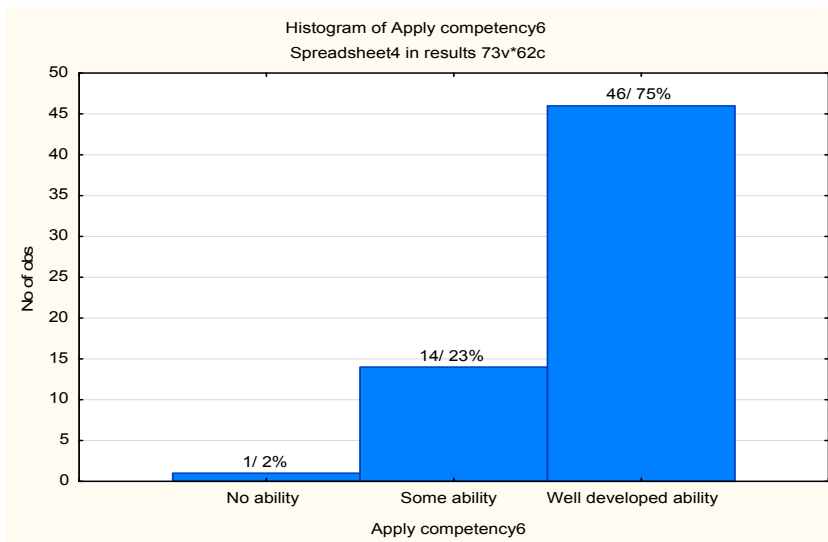
In this competency, respondents were required to rate their ability to set clear goals, to create practical plans, to mobilise resources and to co-ordinate the necessary activities. Sixty-seven per cent of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability, 31% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

APPLIED COMPETENCY 5 - CONTROL



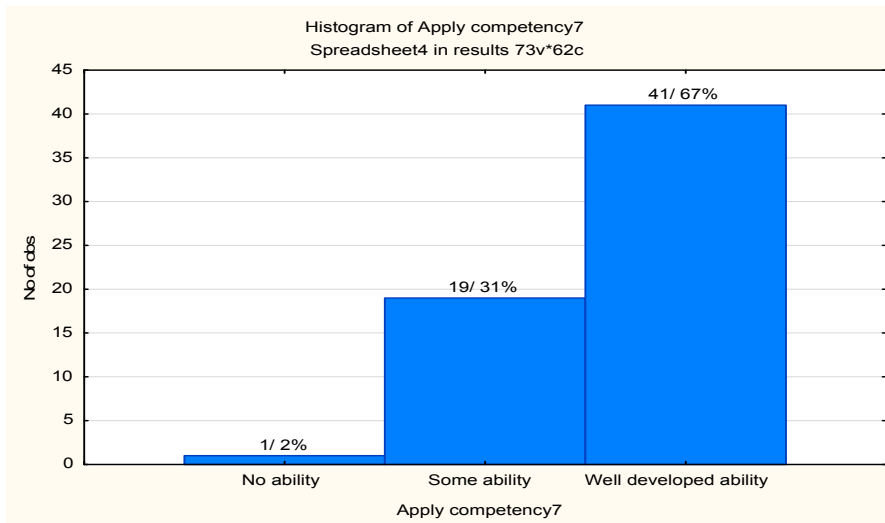
In this competency, respondents were required to rate their ability to establish procedures through which the processes, tasks and/or activities of subordinates could be monitored and regulated as well as to monitor the results of the delegated instructions and projects. Fifty-seven per cent of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability, 38% rated themselves with some ability and 5% rated themselves with no ability.

APPLIED COMPETENCY 6 - LEADERSHIP



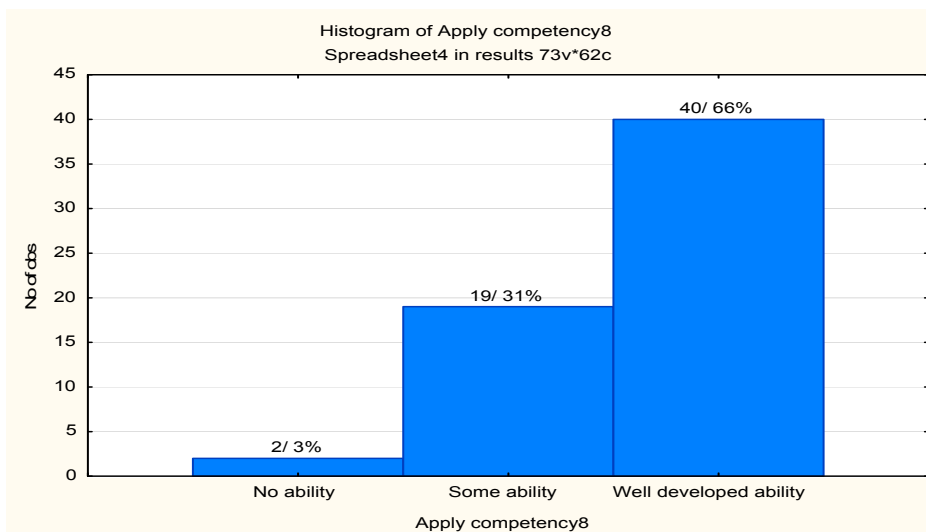
In this competency, respondents were required to rate their ability to get ideas accepted and to lead individuals and groups to the achievement of set goals. Seventy-five per cent of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability, 23% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

APPLIED COMPETENCY 7 - DRIVE



In this competency, respondents were required to rate their ability to tackle and complete tasks with enthusiasm and direction in spite of problems that are experienced. Sixty-seven per cent of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability, 31% rated themselves with some ability and 2% rated themselves with no ability.

APPLIED COMPETENCY 8 – TOLERANCE OF STRESS AND PRESSURE



In this competency, respondents were required to rate their ability to work through negativity and work stress without disturbing productivity. Sixty six per cent of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability, 31% rated themselves with some ability and 3% rated themselves with no ability.

4.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter dealt with the research objectives as well as the research design and data collection methods that were used in this research. Evaluation research was explored, and the different evaluation criteria that were used to evaluate the MMLP were discussed. The underlying ethical considerations that the researcher must comply with to ensure that the research is conducted in the approved manner were discussed. The results of the web-based questionnaire that was used to gather data about the MMLP were presented. The different sections of the questionnaire were discussed based on the individual statements, and each statement was presented in the form of a histogram indicating the respondents' rating of their experience of the programme and their perceived levels of competency in terms of the different competencies as stated in the questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of four sections, and each section was compiled in such a manner that it dealt with a different management development evaluation technique or competency requirement. The next chapter will interpret these results and compare them with the management development evaluation techniques and competency requirements that were discussed in the literature review.

CHAPTER 5

EVALUATION OF MIDDLE MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters introduced management concepts and the organisational structure of the SAPS and gave a brief overview of the different management development programmes of the SAPS. The MMLP of the SAPS was discussed in depth, and an overview of the most important Acts, policies, practices and internal procedures applicable within the development context of the SAPS was given. In chapter 4 the methodology and results of the questionnaire were presented in the form of histograms and tables that graphically presented the respondents' feedback on the statements posed in the questionnaire. This chapter will discuss these results and compare them with the literature on management development as discussed in the literature review.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS: QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE MIDDLE MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Respondents' results in the different sections of the questionnaire that dealt with different evaluation techniques and core competencies will be examined. When comparing the research results with the literature and practice, the following research objectives will be addressed:

- a) How the MMLP is aligned with the three AMA categories of management competencies, as well as the general management requirements for middle managers in a government sector such as the SAPS.
- b) How these development programmes address the development needs of middle managers within the SAPS.
- c) What factors inform the programme content of Middle Management Development Programmes in the SAPS.
- d) How to develop a training model or framework for middle managers in the SAPS.

The questionnaire that was distributed, the evaluation of the MMLP course content, the discussion of the various acts and policies in chapter 3 together with the literature reviewed

tried to reach these objectives and to answer the research question as to whether the current MMLP presented by the SAPS at the Paarl Management and Leadership Academy meets the competency requirements of middle managers in the SAPS. A discussion of the results of the questionnaire will now follow.

5.2.1 Biographical details

- **Rank**

Eighty-nine per cent of the sample was on the ranks of colonel and lieutenant colonel. These are relatively senior positions in the SAPS and mostly consist of members in at least a middle management position at station/unit level. In smaller stations and units, these ranks represent station/unit commanders and senior managers. This is encouraging as it means that the target audience is being developed. What is disturbing, however, is that 6% of the respondents were on the rank of captain. This rank is not included in the target audience for the MMLP. The question therefore should be posed what criteria were used to select these captains for a programme not intended for them.

- **Years of service**

Ninety-four per cent of the respondents had more than 10 years' service in the SAPS. This indicates that the majority of members attending the MMLP have a relatively long service in their rank and most likely have been managers for a long time before attending the development programme. This might pose a problem with regard to the outcomes of the programme as many of the target group potentially already possess the competencies that the programme aims to teach.

5.2.2 Programme evaluation

The learner's experience of the training programme was evaluated focusing on four levels: reaction, learning, transfer and results. This section was loosely based on Kirkpatrick's (1959) four-level typology to evaluate training interventions. These statements focused on the learner's reaction to the intervention (statements 1,2,3), the transfer of the learning and the learning that had taken place (statements 4,5,8,9,10), whether the information learned had led to a change in behaviour (statements 6,7,11,12,14) and whether the results of the development programme had led to a change in organisational effectiveness (statements 13,15,16,17). These questions consisted of closed-ended statements set out on a Likert-type scale with ratings that included strongly agree, agree, strongly disagree and disagree. The respondents were requested to mark the most appropriate statement. It is important to note that these results are based on

the perception of the respondents and might not necessarily reflect what is happening in practice due to the low response rate on the questionnaire.

- **Level 1: Reaction (did participants like the programme?)**

The scores indicated that 98% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they had found the MMLP interesting and enjoyable. A total of 93% agreed or strongly agreed that the facilitators were adequately skilled and 92% agreed or strongly agreed that the training venue was conducive to learning. The scores on these statements are high and indicate that the respondents experience the MMLP in a positive way. In terms of Kirkpatrick's (1959) four-level typology, there is a clear indication that on the level of reaction to the learning, the development programme was experienced in a positive manner by the respondents.

- **Level 2: Learning (did participants experience a change in knowledge and understood the facts, principles and techniques taught?)**

The research found that 95% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the techniques used was effective in transferring competencies and 93% agreed that the content was appropriate. This means that the programme outcomes are reached and techniques use is effective to ensure proper understanding of programme content. Ninety-four per cent agreed or strongly agreed that they had gained a better understanding of managing resources as a result of the development programme. This change in knowledge is encouraging for the SAPS as resource management is important for managers on a middle management level. Scores of 95% and 96% respectively were received for understanding of own management style and insight and knowledge gained. The results indicated content is being understood by the respondents and bode well for the effectiveness of the programme. These overall results indicated that the development programme succeeded in reaching the second-level outcomes of Kirkpatrick's (1959) four-level typology.

- **Level 3: Transfer (did participants change their behaviour?)**

A total of 74% of the respondents indicated that they did not have certain skills, knowledge and attitudes before the attending the MMLP. Attendance of the MMLP assisted them in behavioural changes and gaining of new skills and attitudes. A total of 26% of respondents however disagreed or strongly disagreed that they have gained any new knowledge, skills or attitudes. This might indicate a gap in the program in terms of evaluating participants before the programme and the entry requirements of these participants attending the MMLP. The result could also be an indication that participants did not understand the content of the

programme or that they have already learned the information that was being taught. This corresponds with the result of the first part of the questionnaire where 94% of respondents who attended the MMLP had more than 10 years of service in the SAPS.

The research found that 88% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they had experienced a change in behaviour toward their work and colleagues, 93% were able to interpret and implement policies, acts and strategic plans better as a result of the development programme. The respondents (87%) found it easy to apply the knowledge learned during the MMLP to the workplace. This means that the transfer of knowledge lead to a change in behaviour at work. The fact that 87% of the respondents were able to apply knowledge indicate that a conducive environment exist within the SAPS to transfer knowledge, attitudes and skills learned on the MMLP. On this statement a total of 13% of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. These respondents might have found that their workplace was not conducive environment to apply the knowledge learned or they were unable to translate the knowledge into actions.

On statement 14 a total of 92% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the MMLP allow them to change their behaviour when dealing with work and personal related problems. This change in attitude when dealing with problems is a good indication that the programme is meeting some of its intended outcomes. These results can be interpreted as encouraging or worrying, depending on one's perspective. The positive aspect is that the MMLP seems to employ practices that obtain the desired results when teaching new competencies that positively impact in a change of attitudes and behaviour. What is worrying, though, is that the majority of SAPS managers who either have not yet attended the intervention or who did not respond to the invitation to take the survey may not have the same experience of the programme. This would mean that they either already possess these competencies or that the programme was unable to teach these competencies due to a gap in the programme content or a flawed selection process. It is encouraging to note that the majority of respondents were able to transfer the knowledge learned to their workplace. These results indicates that the MMLP succeeded in reaching the outcomes in level three of Kirkpatrick's (1959) four-level typology.

- **Level 4: Results (did participants become more productive?)**

The majority of the respondents (93%) agreed or strongly agreed that they were able to mentor others better as a result of the development programme. Eighty-two per cent agreed or strongly agreed that they had become more productive, 89% agreed or strongly agreed they were able to apply learned competencies and 98% agreed or strongly agreed that the organisation had benefited from their participation in the programme. The MMLP thus seems to have a positive impact on organisational effectiveness when evaluated in terms of Kirkpatrick's (1959) four-level evaluation criteria.

With regard to the criticism by Laird (2003:255) of Kirkpatrick's (1959) four-level typology, this research found that the typology could indeed be utilised successfully to evaluate the MMLP. Despite the criticism, the popularity of this model made it ideal to apply to a government development sector. The following points of criticism were taken into account during the development phase of the survey:

- Not supported by research: Even though research has consistently shown that the levels within the taxonomy are not related or are only correlated at a low level, the typology nevertheless served the purpose of this specific research and was able to yield the desired results.
- Emphasis on reaction measures: Research has shown that reaction measures have a nearly zero correlation with learning or performance outcome measures. This research, however, was specifically designed to measure the reaction of the respondents to the development intervention and their perceived levels of learning or performance outcome. Therefore, based on this reaction measure, Kirkpatrick's (1959) four-level typology fitted this research.
- Failure to update the model: Even though the model is relatively old and has not been updated for the last 40 years, it still proved effective for gathering the relevant information for this research.
- Not widely used: Despite the model not being widely used and most researchers not finding it useful, it was employed in this research as it was found to be the most useful approach.
- Can lead to incorrect decisions: The model leaves out so many important variables that four-level data alone are insufficient for making informed decisions about training programme effectiveness. This criticism was taken into account, and therefore

Kirkpatrick's (1959) typology was used as one of the evaluation techniques employed in this research.

Cartwright and Cooper (2008:293) state that in order to determine the worth of any development intervention, it is important to collect information to verify whether the development programme is responsible for the changes that occur in the individual and in his/her performance. The questionnaire was designed in such a manner that it extracted this information from respondents. According to Cartwright and Cooper (2008:293), the three key questions that need to be asked are the following:

- Does the examination of the various criteria indicate that a change has occurred? When interpreting the results of the questionnaire, one finds that the majority of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they had experienced the programme in a positive way. This bodes well for the SAPS as the programme was found interesting and enjoyable (98% of respondents), the training venue adequate (92%) and the facilitators well informed and competent (93%). With regard to whether any learning, took place, the respondents (74%) indicated that they had not previously possessed the specific skills, knowledge and attitudes that were taught in the programme. The results indicated that they agreed or strongly agreed that they had changed in their attitude towards work and colleagues (88%). Respondents (92%) indicated that changes also occurred in their behaviour when dealing with problems as a result of the programme and that the learning programme was appropriate for a manager on their level in the SAPS (93%). This indicates that the manner in which the learning was transferred was appropriate and effective. The respondents indicated that the MMLP had enabled them to gain a better understanding of the management of government resources (94%). When the MMLP is evaluated according to the first criterion as stated by Cartwright and Cooper (2008:293), it is evident from the results that a change has occurred as a result of the development programme.
- Can the changes be attributed to the development programme? When looking at the combined responses according to which respondents agreed or strongly agreed, one finds that the research results indicated that the programme was able to bring about a better understanding of the respondents' management style (95%), new insight (96%) and an improved ability to interpret, understand and implement policies, Acts and strategic plans (93%). The respondents all rated themselves very high on these criteria, and it is clear that these changes can be attributed to the MMLP. When looking at the

results of the development programme, one finds that 93% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they were able to mentor others better as a result of the MMLP, that they had been taught better coping skills and were able to deal with work-related and personal problems better (92%). They also agreed or strongly agreed that they had become more productive in the workplace (82%) after attending the programme. It is thus clear from these results that the changes that occurred can be attributed to the MMLP.

- Is it likely that similar changes would have occurred for all participants in the programme? Due to the high percentages of respondents who agreed or strongly agreed on all the statements, it seems highly unlikely that the same results would have occurred across the board if the respondents had not attended the MMLP.

5.2.3 AMA Management Development Competency Model

The AMA Management Development Competency Model was used to evaluate the competencies that had been taught during the MMLP. This model served as a guideline to measure whether the competencies set out in the model corresponded to those taught during the SAPS development programme for middle managers. The respondents rated their perceived level of competency on a scale including well-developed ability, some ability and no ability. The AMA model competencies were chosen because they relate well to the competencies needed for all levels of management, from the individual professional to managers who are responsible for specific functions within their organisations (Tobin & Pettingell, 2008:43). According to this model, management competencies are cumulative and the individual must first master the competencies on one level before learning and mastering the next level of competencies. This model is divided into three categories of competency with different competencies in each category. The respondents were required to rate themselves on each competency within the three categories, and the findings were as follows:

- **Knowing and managing yourself (10 competencies)**

Respondents rated themselves on emotional intelligence/self-awareness, self-confidence, self-development, building trust and accountability, resilience and stress tolerance, action orientation, time management, mental flexibility and agility, critical and analytical thinking, and creative thinking. In all these competencies, the majority of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability in the mid to high 60%. This is not very encouraging as a rating of only sixty per cent of managers with a well-developed ability, may be an indication of lack of managerial ability within the middle management sphere of the SAPS. One would think that

a manager within a relatively high-pressure environment such as the SAPS would need a great deal of self-knowledge. These individuals need to operate in a highly stressful environment and lead others to make appropriate choices in high-pressure situations; therefore, high levels of self-management are almost mandatory.

- **Knowing and managing others (17 competencies)**

Respondents rated themselves on written communication (59%), oral communication (64%). These are very low scores for managers on middle management level who need to be able to communicate on a daily basis whether through the written or spoken word. This lack in well-developed communication ability must receive urgent attention. Middle managers must be able to communicate clearly with both the people they are leading and the people they are policing. An inability to communicate effectively can lead to misunderstandings have negative effects on policing. On valuing diversity 50% of respondents rated themselves as having a well-developed ability and 50% with some ability. This is a great concern as middle managers within policing need to be able to deal with different people from diverse backgrounds. This lack of confidence in own ability can have serious consequences for policing in this country. There is an urgent need that diversity related content must be included in future course content of the MMLP. On the competencies such as building teams (68%), networking (63%), partnering (55%) influencing (46%), managing conflict (67%), managing people and performance (67%), building relationships (70%), emotional intelligence/interpersonal savvy (65%), respondents scored seventy percent or lower on well-developed ability. All these competencies relate to managing and leading others. The fact that on all these competencies the respondents scored below seventy percent is worrying. This is a clear indication that the MMLP did not transfer these competencies successfully. What is interesting, though, is that on clarifying roles and accountabilities (72%), delegating (71%), empowering others (78%) and motivating others (73%), all respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability, but on coaching (65%) and developing top talent (45%), respondents rated themselves low. This could indicate that respondents either did not understand the statements or that the development programme had failed to transfer these competencies adequately.

- **Knowing and managing the organisation (19 competencies)**

Only two competencies, decision-making (73%) and resource management (70%) in this category received scores above seventy per cent on well-developed ability. Eight competencies received scores in the sixty percent range with respondents rating to have a well-developed ability in these competencies. The following three competencies namely strategic planning (59%), mastering competence (58%) and operational and tactical planning (58%) of

respondents rated themselves to have a well-developed ability in these competencies. The respondents that rated themselves to have well-developed abilities in this category were very low. An alarming 6 competencies in the total of 19 competencies in this category received scores of below fifty per cent with well-developed ability. In these competencies the majority of respondents rated themselves to have some ability. The fact that so many respondents rated low with well-developed ability suggest that there is serious lack of management capabilities regarding managing the organisation within the middle management level of policing. An organisation incapable of managing itself cannot have successes on other levels regarding its key responsibilities. Having this lack of management competencies in an organisation responsible of keeping society safe is worrying and should receive urgent attention in the organisation. In competencies such as operational and tactical planning (58%) and monitoring the extreme environment (40%) of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability. These are core competencies within a policing environment and these low scores on well-developed ability do not bode well for the organisation. Competencies such as business and finance acumen (37%) and global perspective (40%) also received low scores with respondents who indicated a well-developed ability in these competencies. These are all competencies that require more focus within the MMLP. In competencies such as global perspective (40%) organisational design (43%) and organisational savvy (43%) of respondents indicated that they had a well-developed ability. These, however, can be considered as competencies that are specialised and therefore not mandatory for all respondents and managers on a middle management level within a policing context.

- **Competencies in which respondents scored high on some ability**

When one compares the scores, it is alarming to note that a high percentage of respondents rated themselves with some ability in all categories. This can be interpreted as respondents being unsure about their own abilities and lacking confidence when executing functions that require these competencies. The lack of confidence in own ability could be a dangerous for the organisation as confident managers make better decisions. In the category knowing and managing the organisation, in nine out of 19 competencies respondents scored high on some ability. These competencies require further development in the MMLP as the abilities to manage resources and to make critical analytical decisions regarding important issues are important for all managers.

5.2.4 Police management competencies

In the last section of the questionnaire, the respondents were requested to rate their ability in terms of Kriel's in Ketel (2005:65) eight core competencies for managers in a safety and

security environment, such as the SAPS. The respondents' ratings in terms of these eight core competencies are as follows:

Analytic ability: The respondents rated themselves on their ability to obtain data from a variety of sources and to compare and cumulate this data in order to focus on what is relevant and to use this data to analyse and solve problems. The highest number of respondents, 59%, stated that they only had some ability. This score is not encouraging and when compared to the AMA results, it is clear that respondents gave themselves a lower rating with regard to analytic ability. Only 39% of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability. This indicates a clear gap in the MMLP that requires urgent attention from those whose responsibility and aim it is to develop managers in the SAPS.

Judgement: This is the ability to make the best choice out of various alternative solutions and to apply insight in order to reach logical conclusions. This competency is especially important within a policing context where officers are placed in situations where they should be able to make quick judgements in high-stress situations. Sixty-seven per cent of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability and 31% with some ability. These results seem to indicate that at least in terms of judgement; the MMLP does have a positive impact.

Confidence: This is the willingness to take decisions that result in actions and to accept responsibility. In this competency, the respondents scored high as 70% indicated that they had a well-developed ability and 27% indicated that they had some ability; only 3% indicated that they had no ability with regard to confidence. This seems to indicate that the MMLP achieves its purpose with regard to this competency.

Planning and organising: This is the ability to set clear goals and to create practical plans, to mobilise resources and to co-ordinate the necessary activities. Sixty-seven per cent of respondents indicated that they had a well-developed ability, 31% had some ability and 2% had no ability. Once again this is an encouraging response as within a policing context, managers are required to respond quickly and have the ability to mobilise resources when needed. This indicates that the MMLP is transferring the appropriate competencies in this regard.

Control: This is the ability to set procedures through which processes, tasks and/or activities of subordinates as well as the results of delegated instructions and projects can be monitored

and regulated. Fifty-seven per cent of respondents indicated that they had a well-developed ability, 38% that they had some ability and 5% that they had no ability. This competency needs to receive additional attention as the number of respondents with some ability is relatively high. This could mean that either the MMLP does not focus enough on control or that the respondents do not have a proper understanding of the course content dealing with this competency.

Leadership: This is the ability to get ideas accepted and to lead individuals and groups to the achievement of set goals. Seventy-five per cent of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability and 23% with some ability. Only 2% rated themselves with no ability. These results indicate that the MMLP has achieved its purpose with regard to this competency. This competency is important in the SAPS as its hierarchical organisational structure requires members to lead others. Lower-ranking officials receive instructions and guidance from senior officers, and these senior officers should be able to translate these instructions into acceptable ideas and set clear goals for the group to achieve. Failure or inability to master this competency can have catastrophic results

Drive: This is the ability to tackle and complete tasks with enthusiasm and direction in spite of problems that are experienced. Sixty-seven per cent of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability, 31% with some ability and 2% with no ability. There is still room for improvement on this competency as 31% of respondents rated themselves with only some ability and 2% with no ability. The MMLP has to focus on this competency as the SAPS needs a workforce that is driven and focused on executing service delivery plans and programmes effectively despite obstacles that may occur.

Tolerance of stress and pressure: This is the ability to work through negativity and work stress without disturbing work productivity. The SAPS is a high-stress environment. Sixty-six per cent of respondents indicated that they had a well-developed ability and 31% that they had some ability. This competency needs to be a focus area of any revisions of the MMLP as the high stress levels of SAPS members have a negative effect on service delivery and high absenteeism levels due to stress and stress-related illnesses can have a detrimental effect on the ability of the SAPS to perform its constitutionally mandated functions.

Stumpke (quoted in Ketel, 2005:66) also lists the following three types of police management skills.

Functional skills: The respondents did not specifically rate themselves on functional skills, but statements regarding functional skills were included in both the sections on AMA competencies and police management competencies. In the AMA competencies, respondents rated themselves on functional skills such as resilience and stress tolerance, action orientation, clarifying roles and responsibilities, written communication, oral communication, building teams, valuing diversity, influencing, networking, partnering, customer focus, resource management, operational and tactical planning, result orientation, business and finance acumen, critical and analytical thinking, strategic thinking and strategic planning. Even though it is encouraging to see that respondents rated themselves high on most of these competencies, scores below 50% for action orientation, business and finance acumen and influencing indicate a gap in the MMLP. Other functional competencies such as organisational design (43%), organisational savvy (43%), global perspective (40%), monitoring the extreme environment (40%) and developing top talent (46%) scored below 50% with respondents rating themselves to have a well-developed ability in these competencies. Competencies such as customer focus, operational and tactical planning, strategic thinking, and critical and analytical thinking also received low scores in the 60% range. Likewise, in the police management competencies, functional skills such as analytic ability, planning and organising, and tolerance of stress and pressure received scores in the mid 60%. The applied competencies control and judgement received scores in the 70% range, which is promising, but these competencies would need additional attention as they are of the utmost importance for any policing activities that need to be performed and should ideally be the key focus of any development programme.

People skills: The respondents rated themselves high on people skills in the AMA competency model. An average of 63.41% of respondents rated themselves with well-developed ability with regard to managing others, motivating others, empowering others, clarifying roles and responsibilities, and building trust and responsibility. In the police management competencies that rated people skills with regard to getting ideas accepted and leading individuals and groups, 75% of the respondents stated that they had a well-developed ability and 23% acknowledged some ability. This is a good indication of the success of the MMLP in transferring people skills to learners.

Conceptual skills: The sections on police management competencies as well as the AMA competency model focus extensively on various conceptual skills. In terms of the AMA competency model, competencies such as analytic ability, critical thinking, strategic planning,

strategic thinking, mastering competence, emotional intelligence, problem solving, decision-making, mental flexibility and agility focused on conceptual skills. The respondents rated themselves fairly high on these competencies. In the section regarding police management competencies, competencies received scores in the high 60% and 70% range. Even though these percentages were high, none of the competencies scored more than 80% and more focus needs to be placed on these areas in the MMLP.

5.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented an interpretation of the research results that were gathered through a questionnaire. The chapter started off by focusing on the biographical details in the first section of the questionnaire. The second section compared the results to Kirkpatrick's (1959) four-level typology for evaluating development interventions. Criticism regarding this evaluation technique was discussed, and motivation for the suitability of this evaluation technique for this research was provided. The research results were used to evaluate how well the development programme met the requirements set by Cartwright and Cooper (2008:293) for evaluating the effectiveness of development programmes. The results of the next section of the questionnaire, which focused on the AMA competency model, were discussed. The last section of the questionnaire, which focused on police management competencies, was then discussed, and the research results were compared with Stumpke's (quoted in Ketel, 2005:66) three police management skills.

Despite all the criticism levelled at the SAPS, many best practices were identified in this research. The research was done from an inside perspective by a police officer, and respondents were chosen from among actively serving police officers. The research results indicated various gaps in the development of managers, but this must not detract from the fact that many positive outcomes of the management development vehicle that was examined were highlighted by the respondents. The next chapter will focus on recommendations regarding changes to the MMLP as well as introducing a framework for police development from which a model for middle management development flowed.

CHAPTER 6

A NORMATIVE APPROACH TO SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE MIDDLE MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will focus on making recommendations regarding changes to the MMLP, pointing out the strengths and weaknesses of the current programme in place and providing a new perspective on the structure, specific focus areas and content of future middle management development programmes within the SAPS. The most important legislation that regulates development within the SAPS will be discussed. A framework for police development and a model for the development of middle managers in SAPS, which flows from this framework, will be introduced. These are presented as possible ways to integrate the fragmented development of middle managers that is currently in place. A discussion on literature with regard to needs analysis follows, and recommendations regarding needs analysis before the MMLP takes place will be made. A change in the structure of the MMLP and possible changes to programme content will be suggested. Key competencies for police middle managers will be identified by following the three phases that exist in designing a competency model according to Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:118). Through these phases key competencies are identified and listed.

6.2 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK UNDERPINNING POLICE DEVELOPMENT

This research focused on the legislation that underpins development in South Africa. In chapter 3 this legislative framework was discussed, and the extent to which the SAPS MMLP complies with these legislative guidelines will now be explained. The various articles of legislation are as follows:

- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.
- The South African Police Services Act (Act 68 of 1995).
- The South African Qualifications Authority Act (Act 58 of 1995).
- The Skills Development Act (Act 97 of 1998).
- The National Qualifications Framework Act (Act 67 of 2008).
- The Skills Development Levies Act (Act 9 of 1999).

- The National Skills Development Strategy (2012).
- The EDT policy of the SAPS.

The MMLP has as its primary goal the development of middle managers within the SAPS. This development is undertaken to allow the SAPS to meet its constitutional mandate of keeping the South African public safe. This development programme was instituted by the National Commissioner of the SAPS in meeting her responsibility in terms of Section 6 of the SAPS Act (68 of 1995) that states that the National Commissioner of the SAPS is tasked with the responsibility to ensure that development programmes are in place for all personnel in the SAPS (RSA, 1995a). The Skills Development Act (97 of 1998) places the responsibility on every employer to develop its employees (RSA, 1998). The SAPS meets this requirement by presenting a specific development programme, the MMLP, to address the development needs of middle managers. The National Qualifications Framework Act (67 of 2008) lays down specific guidelines for the accreditation of qualifications (RSA, 2008). The SAPS complies with this Act by using the different qualification authorities promulgated by this Act to certify and register its development programmes. The Skills Development Levies Act (9 of 1999) stipulates that all government departments must contribute to a SETA (RSA, 1999b). The SAPS contributes to SASSETA, which provides guidelines and oversees and verifies all assessments within the SAPS. The National Skills Development Strategy (RSA, 2012) stipulates that all employers must have an EDT policy in place to ensure development of all employees. The SAPS complies with this stipulation through the SAPS EDT policy to regulate development interventions.

Only an overview of the most important Acts, policies and guidelines that underpin development in the SAPS were discussed in this research. No specific statements regarding Acts and policies were included in the questionnaire and therefore the respondents did not comment on this aspect. When comparing the different pieces of legislation discussed with what is happening in practice no obvious deficits were apparent. The legislation discussed is well established and provides a comprehensive framework for development within the SAPS. There is no conflict between the different pieces of legislation, but the implementation of the different internal policies and procedures seem to encounter problems in the development implementation process. To address this in-congruency the researcher developed a framework for police development that allows for the different programs in place to interlock and build on each other to ensure continues development of police personnel.

6.3 FUTURE VIEW OF DEVELOPMENT WITHIN THE POLICING CONTEXT

The processes and structures with regard to police development that currently exist within the SAPS needs in-depth research and improvement of the programme content of all development programmes including the MMLP. Due to its complex nature, policing presents many challenges, and the development programmes should take these into consideration. Development of new ways of interpreting and linking existing development programmes and opportunities must be incorporated into the existing paradigm in order to cover a broader context and allow for a more professional approach to the development of police personnel. The researcher developed a framework for police development and a model for management development within a policing context that flows from this framework that might be relevant to the current development processes within policing in South Africa. Both the framework for police development and the model on management development are recommendations on how development can be integrated and would need further research to be developed into acceptable standards for modern-day policing.

6.3.1 Framework for police development

The framework for police development envisions an integration of the different development programmes currently in place. Development interventions are currently fractured and independent of one another, which leads to inefficient use of resources and ineffective transfer of learning to the workplace. A further problem that arises due to this fractured process is that funds allocated to development are mismanaged as development interventions take place more with the objective of spending allocated funds within the financial year, than for the development of a skilled and competent workforce. Development that is integrated will allow for police members to be developed in such a manner that one development programme builds on another and that long periods between development interventions are eliminated. This will lead to individuals being able to have a concrete development plan for their career within the SAPS. Academic studies undertaken by the individual police officer will then be in line with this development plan, linking together police development, academic study and career progression.

Figure 6.1 illustrates a framework for the different stages of police development. This development will start with the Basic Police Development Programme whereby recruits are trained in the basics of policing. Thereafter, various functional and operational development courses will follow where police officers are trained in their specific field of speciality.

Academic study will form an important part of the development process as it provides a deeper understanding of legislative and other issues that influence the policing environment. This component is important not only for the individual member who undertakes academic studies but also for the organisation as a whole as it will develop a culture of learning throughout the organisation. The last phase of management development should build on the previous phases and develop management competencies that police managers will need within their specific fields. This will require a management development model that is policing specific, current and in line with management development in the private sector and globally.

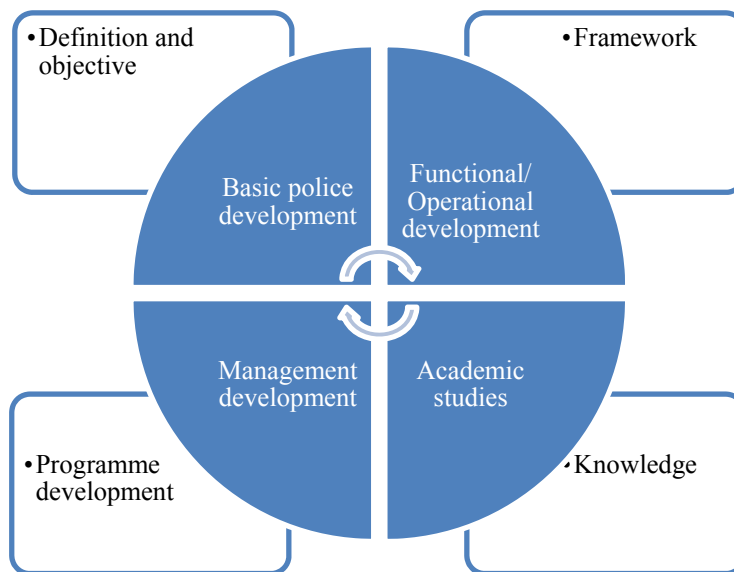


Figure 6.1: Framework for police development

6.3.2 Model for development of police middle managers

From the framework for police development, a model for the development of police middle managers flows. The last phase of the framework for police development provides for programme development of management development programmes that is specific and provides for certain sets of competencies that build on each other. Figure 6.2 presents a model for the development of police members and illustrates the four core requirements in the development of a competent police manager. It is imperative that the police manager first acquire basic functional policing skills in order to gain an understanding of the business of policing before being placed or promoted to a management level. This excludes those police personnel who are recruited specifically for their technical knowledge in a specific field (e.g. pilots, lawyers, mechanics and psychologists), also known as lateral entrants. The competent police middle manager must develop management competencies through a combination of academic studies and police-related management development. This will contribute to the

development of technical knowledge and conceptual skills that are important in the field of policing on a management level where high-stakes decisions are made, some of which might lead to loss of life.

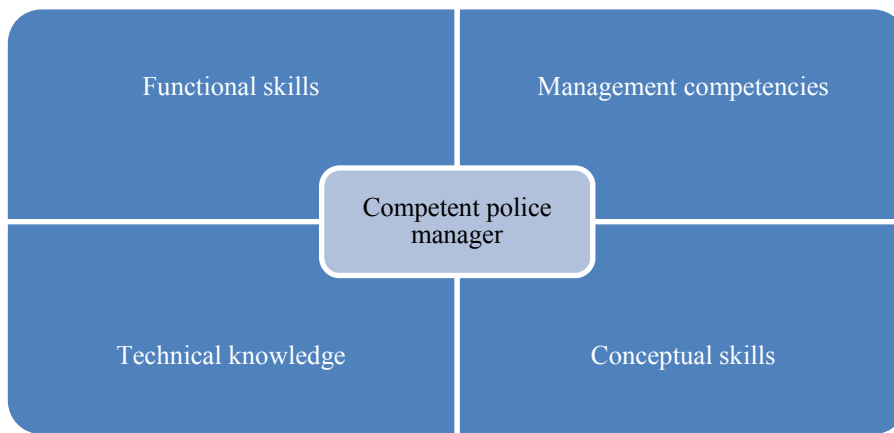


Figure 6.2: Model for development of police middle managers

The framework for police development and the model for development of police middle managers entail providing a new perspective to complement those management and development programmes, structures and processes already in place in the SAPS. The first step in this process should be assessing the specific needs for development, redesigning of programmes to allow for competency base development and the integration of all development programmes in such a manner that a cohesive development plan exist for each individual manager.

6.3.3 Training needs assessment

When one looks at the processes followed when participants are chosen to attend the MMLP, it is clear that no needs assessment is done and that the only criteria are that participants must be on specific rank levels. This may cause problems as participants with different levels of expertise and experience are all placed together in the same programme and no evaluation of whether they actually need the development intervention takes place. No needs assessment is done to establish in which areas participants need development. This may lead to participants being bored by dealing with outcomes that they have already achieved prior to attending the development programme. Participants may also not be familiar with the concepts presented and the jargon used as it may be their first experience of any management programme. The SAPS needs to invest in carrying out a proper needs analysis before embarking on development programmes that seem to be aimed at pursuing training targets for specific financial years

instead of development with the aim of transferring competencies that will yield results by creating a safe and secure environment for all citizens in South Africa, as stipulated in the Constitution of the RSA (RSA, 1996). Three different methods of uncovering training needs within the organisation are listed by Cascio and Aguinis (2011:351):

- **Organisational analysis**

Cascio and Aguinis (2011:351) explain organisational analysis as the ability to link strategic workforce planning considerations with training needs assessment results. This can be done by the Division HRD of the SAPS by analysing inspection, audit and parliamentary portfolio committee reports to pinpoint inefficient organisational units to determine whether training will address identified performance problems. According to Cascio and Aguinis (2011:351), the most important question during organisational analysis is whether the training will produce changes in employee behaviour that will contribute to the organisation's goals. The results of the questionnaire in section two, which flowed from Kirkpatrick's (1959) four levels typology, indicated that the respondents was of the opinion that they gained better insight into their own management style, the management of resources, and understanding and implementing legislation, policies and strategic plans better as a result of the MMLP. It is clear from these results that a development programme such as the MMLP does have a positive impact on productivity and the transfer of competencies needed within a policing environment.

A final objective is to estimate the extent to which transfer of learning takes place within the organisation. Eighty-seven per cent of respondents in section two, statement 12 of the questionnaire agreed that it was easy to apply the learned competencies at their workplace. A further 92% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they were able to change their behaviour when dealing with work and personnel problems as a result of the MMLP. This means that an environment conducive to the transfer of learned competencies exists and that senior management within the SAPS should exploit this by providing more support and creating a learning environment within the SAPS to strengthen the existing structures. This workplace learning and assessment process is already encapsulated in the SAPS Assessment Strategy (2012) in which it is stated that assessment can be done in various ways, one of which includes the use of real-life situations to allow the learner to practise learned competencies. The SAPS Assessment Strategy (2012) states that all training presented should link the skills being taught with theory and practice. Another way of exploiting this existing development opportunity is to apply the development programme in such a manner that on-site workplace

assessment forms an integral part of the development intervention. This will uncover more problem areas, which may indicate a need for further development.

- **Operational analysis**

According to Grobler and Warnich (2006:305), operational analysis has to do with how a job should be performed and the required level of performance. By developing the MMLP in such a way that practical application of competencies learned are being evaluated and constitutes at least a component of the learning programme, proper operational analysis can be done and learners will be able to practically apply their skills to the accurate performance of specific functions. This will also assist in the development of higher-level analytical abilities as learners will be able to analyse why specific functions are performed and evaluate different options to reach appropriate end results. Cascio and Aguinis (2011:351) explain that operational analysis requires a careful examination of the work to be performed after training. It involves the following:

- A systematic collection of information that describes how work is done: This analysis could form part of the development interventions assessment criteria and will help in developing competencies with regard to collecting information to assist in planning, analysing and decision-making.
- Determination of performance standards for work: When restructuring of the MMLP is considered, it is imperative that the programme be developed in such a way that different specialisation areas are created to ensure that each specialisation in the SAPS is catered for. This will prevent generalisation and ensure that competencies are transferred to the appropriate people. This will also help managers to understand their own performance standards and set performance standards for their subordinates when they return to their normal functions. This is an important competency that all managers need to develop.
- How tasks are to be performed to meet the standards: Analysis should be done of how tasks should be performed to meet the performance standards. The development programme should focus on how these tasks should be performed to meet the performance standards. This could be applied during workplace learning, and the learners will be able to practically implement and practise learned competencies.
- The competencies necessary for effective task performance: Competency Task Analysis (CTA) is the appropriate tool to use as it focuses explicitly on identifying the mental aspects of the task performance, which include activities such as decision-

making, problem solving, pattern recognition and situational assessment, activities that are not directly observable. CTA is important for complex jobs such as those of police managers who need to be able to manage in a dynamic and complex environment with high-stakes outcomes. To incorporate CTA into the MMLP, the programme needs to be expanded so that a second phase can be incorporated whereby the different specialisations, such as Support Services (Human Resource Management, Supply Chain Management and Financial Management), Operational Management, Station Management, Detective Services, Forensic Services and so forth, receive development focused on the unique competencies required by their field of specialisation.

- **Individual analysis**

Individual analysis should be done before the development intervention to determine the level of competence of each individual who will attend the development programme. This will help in assessing how well each employee actually performs his/her job, relative to the standards required by the job. Using Individual analysis the development program will then be able to set pre-requisite entry requirements where different development programs must be undergone by the manager before being allowed entry into the MMLP. Individual analysis will determine which development programme the individual needs to attend to meet the entrance requirement for the MMLP. This will then determine whether development provided through attending the MMLP can fill the gap between actual job performance and the standards as set out through job specifications (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011:351). The incorporation of CTA will have a twofold advantage: firstly it will determine which employees are currently in need of development and secondly it will help to identify which competencies (skills, knowledge and attitudes or abilities) need to be gained or strengthened.

6.3.5 Recommendations regarding current structure and curriculum of MMLP

The results from the research indicated certain gaps in the course content of the current MMLP. Chapters such as Resource Management need to be restructured and expanded to incorporate wider subject coverage. In the current content an overview of many important aspects is provided, and the SAPS need to look into developing these into separate modules that will cover the subject matter more extensively. Resource Management is one of the main objectives of the SAPS in its annual planning, and a huge portion of its annual budget is spent on updating and replacing physical resources that are not managed in the appropriate manner. The current overview of many facets of Resource Management is not comprehensive enough for a middle

manager who, in certain instances, is responsible for the management of a whole unit, station or section with various physical and human resources allocated to that section, unit or station.

Risk Management should be taken out of the Resource Management module and presented as an independent and more comprehensive module as this subject needs urgent attention due to losses and mismanagement of government resources. Risk Management cover various environments and a comprehensive Risk Management module must be developed. This will enable middle managers to work out strategies to minimize risk within both the operational and support services environments. To enable the SAPS to respond to the various risks it faces on a daily basis, the course content of the Risk Management module must be broad and comprehensive enough that middle managers are able to apply different techniques, methods and processes learned when faced with everyday risks within their various working environments. These competencies should be practiced over a period of time and assessed in a practical manner to allow participants to demonstrate their level of mastery of these competencies.

Subjects such as financial management should be broadened to include budget management, practical application such as introduction of POLFIN (the SAPS's electronic financial management system), including content regarding the management of subsistence and travel allowances and claims, financial expenditure approvals and management reports regarding audit trails on POLFIN. This is currently lacking in the MMLP, and managers have to rely mostly on the expertise of clerks to carry out these functions on POLFIN. The current financial management module presented in the MMLP basically provides skills regarding resource management, and it is recommended that the simulation board game be included in a Resource Management module and not be part of the Financial Management module. The SAPS currently provides various short development programmes such as POLFIN, budget management and financial accounting courses that are fractured and separate from each other. The recommendation here is to incorporate all these courses into one Financial Management module and provide accreditation towards a professional qualification.

Modules such as Personal Mastery, Interpersonal Leadership and Professional Leadership should be combined and presented as one module, perhaps a Leadership module or a Self-Management module through which competencies such as personal mastery and knowing and managing yourself and others are acquired. The research findings on the AMA competency

model found that in the category ‘Knowing and Managing Self’ the respondents scored themselves below seventy per cent on all 10 competencies in this category. This indicates a development opportunity as respondents was not confident in competencies such as Emotional intelligence, Self confidence, Self development, Building Trust and Personal Accountability, Resilience and Stress tolerance, Action orientation, Time management, Critical and analytical thinking, Mental flexibility and agility, and Creative thinking. In combining and expanding this module the SAPS can focus on specific key competencies that are important for police middle managers. The lack of competent managers is negatively affecting the SAPS and this module can be used to develop the necessary competencies that is lacking within the SAPS. By incorporating a component where there is practical application of competencies learned the participants will become more confident in using these competencies and will be able to apply it in practice.

Supply chain management is a complex and vast field within the SAPS, and specialisation within the supply chain management environment is lacking within the SAPS. This should also be a separate module and not be grouped with other modules as specialised competencies are needed by those who perform these functions. The management, procurement, transport and storage, and allocation of government resources operate in a highly specialised and legislated environment, and it is not wise to fit this module into a two-day session. Each of these different components of Supply Chain Management is specialised in nature and require different management competencies. The procurement component of Supply Chain Management is highly regulated and requires competencies such as financial acumen in which only 46% of respondents scored themselves with a well-developed ability in financial acumen. The legislation governing the procurement component of Supply Chain Management within government also constantly changes and legislation must be updated continuously and included in the course material. The SAPS will be addressing this by developing a Supply Chain Management module that is comprehensive and teach competencies that will enable middle managers to effectively manage the Supply Chain processes at their place of work. Developing an understanding of the Supply Chain Management environment within policing is critical for all middle managers. This will ensure that resources allocated will be used in an effective and efficient manner and losses, mismanagement and damages will be minimised. The module should ideally be presented over a longer period of time and should lead to a professional qualification.

The same can be said of modules such as Service Delivery and Project Management. Attempting to cover these subjects within a few days does not provide a proper understanding of the subject matter. It is recommended that the SAPS invest more resources into proper development of the MMLP to such a extent that the programme is presented over a one year period, with learners attending block programmes on different subjects for short periods of time. The current five week period can be change into one week block programmes every three months and an additional two weeks added for formal assessment periods. This will enable middle managers to apply the competencies learned in their workplace and practically witness the outcomes of the programme. The five weeks that are currently spent away from work at a time will also be eliminated, and time can be spent more wisely. Competencies learned and practised over time will also become more easily entrenched, and a learning organisation culture will be developed.

The initial changes to the programme will impact on the costs, but the SAPS will gain in the long term by developing quality middle managers who will know how to best use resources and eliminate costly mistakes. Other cost saving measures can be built into the programme such as examination centres at strategic points within each province. This will eliminate the need to travel long distances and save on cost of providing food and accommodation. The current agreement with UNISA that the SAPS entered into in 2013 at the SAPS Paarl Management and Leadership Academy can be expanded and the changes to the course content can be aligned with the curriculum development of a university-accredited programme.

6.3.6 Priorities and core competencies that require more attention in Middle Management Development

The research provides guidelines on competencies required by middle managers within a policing context. It started off by providing key competencies needed by middle managers within a policing environment such as the SAPS. The researcher follows the following three phases that exist in designing a competency model according to Coetzee and Schreuder (2010:118):

- **Competency identification**

In chapter 2 different competencies were identified and discussed. A questionnaire was developed based on the AMA competency model and police management competencies and respondents were required to compare these competencies with competencies learned during the MMLP. The results of this comparison were presented in chapter 5. The different

competencies that are needed by middle managers within the SAPS were listed and compared to those competencies taught in the MMLP. This was done to enable identification of key competencies for police middle managers. The results indicated gaps in development of certain competencies and changes to the programme were suggested to allow for the development of those competencies that are deemed important for managers in a middle management position in the SAPS.

- **Competency definition**

Definitions were provided in the literature review chapter in terms of Boyatzis' competency cluster model and the definition by Zacharias and Tagonon in Coetzee & Schreuder, (2010:116) that states that competency is the sum total of observable and demonstrated skills, knowledge and behaviours that lead to superior performance. The applied competencies as defined by the Assessment Strategy of the SAPS (2012) were discussed and compared to competency models. The research found that these applied competencies compared well with other models discussed.

- **Competency profiling**

The research started out by listing different competencies needed by middle managers in chapter 2. These were then compared with police management competencies. The conclusion were drawn that competencies needed by middle managers in other sectors compared well with competencies needed by police middle managers. A questionnaire was developed listing a combination of competencies as set out in the AMA competency model and police management competencies according to Kriel's (quoted in Ketel, 2005:65) eight core competencies. A table with the competencies where the respondents scored themselves below 60% with a well-developed ability according to the different categories of the AMA competencies were compiled in order to extract the competencies that need further attention in a revised version of the MMLP. Table 6.1 indicates these AMA competencies in which respondents did not rate themselves high on well-developed abilities.

Table 6.1: Comparison of the MMLP with competencies in the AMA management development competency model

COMPETENCY	EVALUATION OF ABILITY	
AMA COMPETENCY	Some ability	Well-developed ability
MANAGING YOURSELF		
Action orientation	58%	40%
Flexibility and agility	45%	52%

Resilience and stress tolerance	42%	53%
MANAGING THE OTHERS		
Influencing	51%	46%
Valuing diversity	50%	50%
Developing top talent	49%	46%
Partnering	45%	55%
MANAGING THE ORGANISATION		
Business and finance acumen	58%	37%
Monitoring the extreme environment	57%	40%
Global perspective	55%	40%
Organisational savvy	52%	43%
Organisational design	52%	43%
Driving innovation	48%	48%
Operational and tactical planning	39%	58%
Mastering competency	39%	58%
Strategic planning	34%	59%

A further analysis was done on Kriel's eight core competencies in Ketel (2005:65) for managers in a safety and security environment, such as the SAPS. From these eight core competencies only two, namely confidence and leadership scored within the seventy percentile range. All other competencies received scores below 70% in well-developed ability. One main area of concern was that only 39% of respondents scored themselves with a well-developed ability on analytic ability. This does not correspond with the results from the AMA competency model where 64% of respondents rated themselves with a well-developed ability in critical and analytical thinking and 63% with well-developed ability on strategic thinking. Fifty seven per cent of respondents rated themselves with well-developed ability on competencies regarding control and scores of 67% and 66% respectively was received for the rest of the competencies in the eight core police management competencies.

After comparing all the competencies that received the lowest scores in both the AMA competency model and the core police management competencies, certain competencies were identified as key competencies for police middle managers. These competencies are as follows; strategic thinking, strategic planning, critical and analytical thinking, operational and tactical planning, resilience and stress tolerance, action orientation, mental flexibility and agility, valuing diversity, partnering, influencing, developing top talent, mentoring the extreme environment, business and finance acumen as well as all eight of Kriel's (in Ketel, 2005:65)

core competencies. Competencies such as driving innovation, mastering competence, global perspective, organisational savvy, and organisational design also received low scores but was not included as key competencies for middle managers, as these competencies is needed mostly by more senior managers who is responsible for the development of policies, procedures and strategic plans for the organisation as a whole. A combination of the competencies in the AMA management development competency model and the police management competencies according to Kriel’s (in Ketel, 2005:65) eight core competencies is presented in Table 6.2 to illustrate these key competencies and how they link () together to identify the key competencies for the development of police managers.

Table 6.2: Key competencies for police middle managers

AMA COMPETENCY	POLICE MANAGEMENT COMPETENCY
Strategic thinking	←→Leadership
Strategic planning	←→Planning and organising
Critical and Analytical thinking	←→Analytical ability
Operational and tactical planning	←→Judgement
Resilience and stress tolerance	←→Tolerance of stress and pressure
Mental flexibility and agility	←→Confidence
Action orientation	←→Drive
Mentoring the extreme environment	←→Control
Business and finance acumen	
Valuing diversity	
Partnering	
Influencing	
Developing top talent	

The competencies in Table 6.2 were identified as key competencies for the development of police middle managers. On revision of the content of the MMLP, these competencies should have a bigger focus and should be included as key competencies within the development programme for police middle managers. A lack of these competencies on any level in the SAPS must be addressed as a matter of urgency. These competencies must therefore receive priority attention when developing, expanding or revisiting the content and structure of the MMLP. An integral part of daily policing activities involves these competencies, and managers who are unsure about their own ability have a greater chance of failure than those who are confident in their abilities. Where high-stakes outcomes are part of the daily activities, middle managers

must be able to make the right decisions at the right time. Planning operations to address crime, attending to natural disasters, dealing with labour unrest and strikes and managing employees and specialised physical resources worth millions of rand on a daily basis all require these competencies. Middle managers who lack these abilities or are unsure of their own abilities might make decisions that are costly in terms of resources and loss of life.

6.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter explained the normative approach to development of police middle managers. The legislative content that regulates development within the SAPS in South Africa was explained. A framework for the development of police members were suggested that provides for the holistic integration of the whole development cycle that starts since joining the SAPS and ends with management development. From this framework a model was developed that suggest changes to the structure and content of management development programmes within the SAPS. The literature on needs assessment were compared with the research results and recommendations were made regarding future selection processes that should be use when selecting participants for management development. A review of the content of the current MMLP was suggested and changes to the structure and content were recommended. Further recommendations were made regarding competency requirements for middle managers. Literature discussed in chapter 2 of this research regarding competency definition, competency identification and competency profiling were compared with research results in order to identify key competencies for police middle managers to be included in future middle management development programs. The different competencies that scored low on well-developed ability in the questionnaire were identified and listed in a table. From this comparison a list of key competencies for police middle managers were developed.

In the rationale for this research, the researcher quoted Ketel (2005) and Van Beek (2003) who both had made bleak predictions about the future of management development in the SAPS. The research results presented an opposing view and found that major strides had been made in the development sphere of the SAPS as a whole and the SAPS Division HRD and management development programmes in particular. The problems and gaps identified in the research of Ketel (2005) and Van Beek (2003) were merely evidence of the transformational journey that the SAPS had been undergoing since the democratisation of South Africa. These transformations included major changes in the SAPS's core values, existing paradigms and operating environment as well as technological changes, major legislative changes and several

changes to its organisational structure. It is the view of the researcher that despite the gaps and development opportunities identified, the SAPS is heading in a positive direction in terms of providing management development to its employees.

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