**MANAGEMENT CAPACITY-BUILDING IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN
POLICE SERVICE AT STATION LEVEL**

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare hereby that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work and that it has not previously in its entirety or in part been submitted at any university for any degree.

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November 2005

ABSTRACT

The concern of the South African public with the ability of the police to do their work properly is highlighted by the media and the sensational opinions that are given by the various reporters. Researchers and academics in South Africa have voiced different points of view through research reports and publications; politicians have involved themselves in the debate through their statements and promises and the South African Police Service (SAPS) itself, through various reports and committees, is aware of the seemingly endless debate around police management competency. Within this milieu of policing, management and service delivery in the unique South African context, this research is focused on the management capacity of the officers at station level within the SAPS. The investigation of the management development opportunities that were provided and the effect that this could have on service delivery at station level in the SAPS was described.

The problem statement of this research was founded on the following: The SAPS is one of South Africa's largest organisations employing over 150 000 people nation-wide. Within this large public sector organisation, the station managers of each and every police station are given the responsibility of successfully understanding, managing and implementing all major national policies and strategies of crime prevention. These managers are expected to be competent in terms of a number of core areas of knowledge, a variety of skills, and a selection of appropriate attitudes. The people in this particular position of management are developed through a variety of internal (in-service training by the SAPS) and external (training by any other organisation) interventions that have, as their communal goal, the delivery of competent and able station managers.

The management development programmes that station managers underwent formed part of a wider transformation process in the SAPS during the time period from 1994 to 2004. The central focus of these transformation themes is to create real capacity to address crime. The

internal organisational change processes must be complemented by more effective processes to activate community resources – both as an important part of decision-making and in terms of shared responsibility for crime prevention. The implementation of this new paradigm of community policing requires the development of capacity to manage a set of interrelated processes at station level. This new paradigm involved a radical departure from the existing thinking and management styles within the SAPS.

It was therefore expected of the station manager to be able to drive this transformation process in order to properly address crime at each station. In order to build the management capacity of the station managers to support their efforts to drive the transformation process, a management capacity-building programme was designed to assist in the management of crime at local level. This programme became known as the Police Station Management Programme (PSMP). The PSMP was designed to build capacity in terms of the management dimensions of the job profile of the station managers.

The research problem broadly focuses on the perceived variation in the levels of managerial capacity of the current station managers in the SAPS. The goal of the research was to compile a comprehensive list of managerial competencies for these station managers through a combination of international best practice comparisons and local research. A comparison was then made of the current managerial competencies of station managers in the East Metropole of Cape Town SAPS (as a case study), in order to measure the perceived gap in management capacity and to analyse the effect that the SAPS management development processes, with particular reference to the PSMP, have on these station managers.

In conclusion, the data collected in this study has shown significant and consistent results that can inform and guide management development and its related management capacity-building initiatives in the SAPS. Those station managers that had completed the PSMP training intervention

consistently evaluated themselves as more able to implement the management competencies on the list of competencies. This shows that the provision of a specific training programme for a particular level of managers has a positive effect on their ability to perform. This is significant in that serious redesign and quality development needs to take place for future SAPS training interventions, particularly with a focus on outsourcing appropriate components of the management development process or developing and utilising management development strategies and products through the use of alternative delivery methodologies. This provides much scope for the SAPS to extend and develop their management development strategy and products through the use of alternative delivery methodologies.

OPSOMMING

Die Suid-Afrikaanse publiek se besorgdheid oor die polisie se vermoë om hulle werk behoorlik te doen, word deur die media en die sensasiewekkende menings wat deur verskeie verslaggewers gelug word, beklemtoon. Navorsers en akademici in Suid-Afrika het verskillende gesigspunte deur middel van navorsingsverslae en publikasies uitgespreek; politici het deur hulle verklarings en beloftes by die debat betrokke geraak en die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisiediens (SAPD) is self, as gevolg van verskeie verslae en komitees, bewus van die skynbaar eindelose debat oor die bevoegdheid van polisiebestuur. Teen hierdie agtergrond van polisiëring, bestuur en dienslewering in die unieke Suid-Afrikaanse opset, word daar in hierdie studie gefokus op die bestuurskapasiteit van die beamptes op stasievlak in die SAPD. Die ondersoek na die geleenthede vir bestuursontwikkeling waarvoor voorsiening gemaak is en die uitwerking wat dit op dienslewering op stasievlak in die SAPD kan hê, word beskryf.

Die probleemstelling van hierdie studie is op die volgende gebaseer: Die SAPD is een van Suid-Afrika se grootste organisasies met meer as 150 000 mense oor die hele land in diens. In hierdie groot openbaresektor-organisatie word die verantwoordelikheid van suksesvolle begrip, bestuur en implementering van alle belangrike nasionale beleide en strategieë ten opsigte van die voorkoming van misdaad aan die stasiebestuurders van elke polisiestasie toegesê. Daar word van hierdie bestuurders verwag om bevoeg te wees ten opsigte van 'n aantal kerngebiede van kennis, 'n verskeidenheid vaardighede, en 'n seleksie toepaslike gesindhede. Die mense in hierdie besondere bestuursposisie word deur 'n verskeidenheid interne (indiensopleiding deur die SAPD) en eksterne (opleiding deur enige ander organisasie) intervensies ontwikkel. Die gemeenskaplike doel van hierdie intervensies is die lewering van bevoegde en bekwame stasiebestuurders.

Gedurende die tydperk 1994 tot 2004 het die bestuursontwikkelingsprogramme wat stasiebestuurders ondergaan het,

deel uitgemaak van 'n groter transformasieproses in die SAPD. Die sentrale fokus van hierdie transformasietemas is die skep van werklike kapasiteit om misdaad te bekamp. Die interne organisatoriese veranderingsprosesse moet gekomplementeer word deur doeltreffender prosesse ten einde hulpbronne in die gemeenskap te aktiveer – as 'n belangrike deel van besluitneming, maar ook wat betref gedeelde verantwoordelikheid vir die voorkoming van misdaad. Die implementering van hierdie nuwe paradigma van gemeenskapspolisiëring vereis die ontwikkeling van kapasiteit ten einde 'n stel onderlingverwante prosesse op stasievlak te kan bestuur. Dié nuwe paradigma het 'n radikale afwyking van die bestaande denk- en bestuurstyle in die SAPD behels.

Daar is gevolglik van die stasiebestuurder verwag om daartoe in staat te wees om hierdie transformasieproses te bestuur ten einde misdaad op gepaste wyse by elke stasie die hoof te bied. Met die oogmerk om die bestuurskapasiteit van die stasiebestuurders te bou ter ondersteuning van hulle pogings om die transformasieproses te bestuur, is 'n kapasiteitsbouprogram vir bestuur ontwerp om op plaaslike vlak met die hantering van misdaad te help. Dié program het as die Polisiestasiebestuursprogram (PSBP) bekend geraak. Die PSBP is ontwerp om kapasiteit ten opsigte van die bestuursdimensies van die stasiebestuurders se werksprofiel te bou.

Die navorsingsprobleem van hierdie studie fokus breedweg op die variasie soos waargeneem op die vlakke van bestuurskapasiteit van die huidige stasiebestuurders in die SAPD. Die doel van die studie was om 'n omvattende lys bestuursbevoegdhede vir hierdie stasiebestuurders op te stel deur vergelykings van internasionale beste praktyk en plaaslike navorsing te kombineer. Daarna is 'n vergelyking gemaak van die huidige bestuursbevoegdhede van stasiebestuurders in die Oos-Metropool van Kaapstad SAPD (as 'n gevallestudie). Dit is gedoen ten einde die leemte wat in bestuurskapasiteit waargeneem is te meet en om die effek wat die SAPD se bestuursontwikkelingsprosesse, met besondere verwysing na die PSBP, op hierdie stasiebestuurders het, te ontleed.

Ten slotte het die data wat tydens hierdie studie ingesamel is, beduidende en konsekwente resultate getoon wat bestuursontwikkeling en die verwante kapasiteits-bou-inisiatiewe vir bestuur in die SAPD kan inspireer en lei. Daardie stasie- bestuurders wat die PSBP-opleidingsintervensie deurloop het, het hulleself konsekwent as bekwamer beskou om die bestuursvaardighede op die lys bevoegdhede te implementeer. Dit dui daarop dat die voorsiening van 'n spesifieke opleidingsprogram vir 'n besondere vlak bestuurders 'n positiewe effek het op hulle vermoë om te presteer. Dit is belangrik aangesien ernstige herontwerp en gehalte-ontwikkeling van toekomstige SAPD-opleidingsintervensies moet plaasvind, in die besonder met 'n fokus op die uitkontraktering van tersaaklike komponente van die bestuursontwikkelingsproses of die ontwikkeling en benutting van bestuurs- ontwikkelingstrategieë en produkte deur die gebruik van alternatiewe lewerings- metodologieë. Dit bied heelwat ruimte vir die SAPD om hulle bestuursontwikkeling-strategie en produkte deur die gebruik van alternatiewe leweringsmetodologieë uit te brei en te ontwikkel.

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It is here that these managers deal with the challenges of the community on the one hand, and on the other, the internal organisational hierarchy and culture, on a daily basis. These managers need support and capacity-building initiatives in a constant and accessible manner. That was my personal agenda and mission in completing this research.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 ORIENTATION

In every society there are markers that tell one a great deal about the society. In South Africa, one of the most significant markers has been the system of law and order. Here, policing traditionally has been done by force, brute force if necessary, in the service of the government (Marks, 1995:20). In transforming society as a whole, after the advent of democracy in 1994, a cornerstone was the initiation of the transformation of the police. During the past ten years, this transformation has taken different forms. Van Zyl (2002:50) describes the results of this process as follows: “In 1994 there were high hopes with new appointments in key positions (in SAPS) and a new approach in creating a Police Service rather than a Police Force. The first results should have been clearly visible by now (2002). Instead, we (SAPS) have run out of talent just when we needed it most. We (SAPS) tried to normalise and stabilise the crime situation, relying on traditional technology and by following traditional approaches. The playing fields have changed so much in this time period that we (SAPS) have actually lost ground. Now we blame our ever diminishing figures for our failure to perform.”

During the 1990's, the idea that the transformation of the South African Police Service (SAPS) was at all possible, did not appear to be realistic. Trust in the police by the black communities, at that time, was virtually non-existent. For decades preceding 1994, the maintenance of law and order in South Africa primarily entailed the suppression of any opposition to apartheid, the use of force and a perception of black areas as hostile territories. Low levels of arrest and prosecution of criminals in black townships fueled the perception that the police were unwilling or unable to render an effective service. The general conviction appeared to be that there was a vast difference in the level, intensity and promptness of police

investigations and arrests in black and white areas (Financial Mail 145 (4), 1997:29).

During this period and for these, and many other reasons, both deserved and sometimes undeserved, the police were, in the eyes of the majority of the population, the enemy, and there was widespread skepticism that they had the will or the power to become anything else. The police service, as most people perceived it, was and appears to still be in a powerless state. Common agreement was that it would seem naïve to expect it to turn into an efficient and effective organisation until well into the next decade, if at all. The Financial Mail 30 May 1997:28) is quoted as stating that the police were (in 1997) so disorganised that it was possible to make tangible improvements almost instantly, simply by applying basic managerial procedures at police stations and in the chains of command. Since 1997 the police have implemented various transformational improvements in their systems, structures and processes at all levels, which have lead to some perceived improvements in service delivery. In an independent study done on specific police stations in South Africa (Reynecke *et al*, 2000:7) it was evident that policing problems were generally caused less by a lack of human resources or equipment than by the virtual absence of modern management practices and training, poor accountability and outdated technology. It is observable that further improvements and organisational changes are necessary in the management levels of the SAPS.

An additional problem appears to be that there simply are not enough police to cope with the crime load – and that concerns the inadequate structure of the police service as much as the human resource shortage. The combined police service is approximately 150 000 strong, which in theory provides an internationally acceptable ratio of about one police officer for every 300 citizens (Van Zyl, 2002:50). This shows that theoretically there are enough members of the SAPS but that there are not proper structures in place.

Within this context of policing, the importance of the effectiveness and efficiency of the management at all levels within the organisation is clear.

Managers need to have both the technical training and ability in terms of policing, but also the capacity to manage in this rather unique and demanding environment. Operating at the “coal-face” of this delivery system within SAPS are the station managers. These police officers are the “CEOs” of the 1100 police stations in South Africa and carry the responsibility of actually delivering “policing” to the public. They are pressurised from above by politics, policies and bureaucratic procedures and are pressured from below by resource constraints, low morale, absenteeism and a demanding public that are now demanding better and more efficient services.

The concern of the South African public with the ability of the police to do their work properly is highlighted by the media and the sensational opinions that are given. Researchers and academics in South Africa have voiced different points of view through research reports and publications; politicians have involved themselves in the debate through statements and promises and the SAPS itself through their various reports and committees is aware of the seemingly endless debate around police management competency.

Within this milieu of policing, management and service delivery in the unique South African context, this research focuses on the management capacity of these officers at station level within SAPS. By investigating the management development opportunities that are provided the effect that this could possibly have on service delivery at station level in SAPS, will be described.

This chapter will define the research problem and place it into context through a description of the background to the problem. Research goals and objectives will be given. The proposed research methodology and methodological considerations will be described. The core concepts to be used throughout the research will be defined and an outline of the proposed chapters will be given.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

“A breakdown in management! A study finds bad management, not staff shortages, hobbles police!” (Financial Mail, 30 May 1997:42). “Whole communities have lost faith in the SAPS” (Citizen, 13 March 2002). “The SAPS as a department is “over-managed” and “under-led. Unfortunately this has become a deeply-embedded culture in the organisation” (Servamus, 2002:50). The SAPS is one of South Africa’s largest organisations employing over 150 000 members nation wide. Within this large public sector organisation, there is a particular level of managers who are given the responsibility of successfully understanding, managing and implementing all major national policies and strategies of crime prevention. They are the station managers of each and every police station in the country.

These managers are expected to be competent in terms of a number of core areas of knowledge, a variety of skills, and a selection of appropriate attitudes. The people in this particular position of management are developed through a variety of internal (in-service training by SAPS) and external (training by any other organisation) interventions that have as their communal goal the delivery of competent and able station managers.

The management development programmes that station managers underwent formed part of a wider transformation process in the SAPS during that time period (1994 - 2000). This transformation programme in the SAPS was based on three related themes (Klipin, 1996:1):

1. The shifting of resources to provide more capacity for community policing at street level;
2. Empowerment of lower-ranked SAPS members in order to provide for greater responsibility and better decision-making in the process of community crime prevention. This professionalisation of the police services is also supported by programmes to demilitarise the service and develop a more participative management style; and

3. The development of a style of policing based on problem-solving and inter-agency co-operation in order to better address the root causes of crime, rather than focusing resources on symptom management.

The central focus of these three transformation themes is to create real capacity to address crime. The internal organisational change processes must be complemented by more effective processes to activate community resources – both as an important part of decision-making, and in terms of shared responsibility for crime prevention. The implementation of this new paradigm of community policing requires the development of capacity to manage a set of interrelated processes at station level. This new paradigm involved a radical departure from the existing thinking and management styles within the SAPS.

It was therefore expected of the station manager to be able to drive this transformation process in order to properly address crime at each station. In order to build the management capacity of the station managers to support their efforts to drive the transformation process, a management capacity-building programme was designed to assist in the management of crime at local level (Klipin, 1996:3). This programme became known as the Police Station Management Programme (PSMP). The PSMP was designed in 1996 to build capacity in terms of the management dimensions of the job profile of the station managers.

The participants in this programme, of whom there were more than 1000 during the period of implementation (1996 – 2000), came from varying cultural backgrounds, education levels and management abilities. All participants were selected by the SAPS in terms of station priority and need. The participants were required to meet to the requirements of the course in terms of standards and evaluations.

The participants were not all of the same educational background or level of managerial ability. They came from 11 different policing organisations with differing training and development programmes. Languages and levels of

competence in these groups also differed, which caused a myriad of complex dynamics that had to be understood and managed by the facilitators of the PSMP.

This unique and challenging situation created an awareness amongst the participants and the facilitators of the PSMP that there were varying levels of management capacity amongst the station managers. This brought into question the relevancy of the detailed job profile as laid out by the SAPS for these station managers. It also brought into question the selection techniques used by the SAPS in appointing members to these positions of seniority.

The implementation of the PSMP was completed in 2002 and it remains an important initiative within the management development process within SAPS. Since 2002, no management development initiative of similar scope and impact has been available to station managers in the SAPS. It is observable that in this three-year period, the station managers in SAPS have been operating at station level with little or no management development support. In addition, there have been numerous new appointments of members to the position of station manager, yet no PSMP-related programme has been offered. The SAPS started to investigate the re-introduction of the PSMP as a management development intervention for these station managers in August 2003. With this in mind, this research will make use of the PSMP in terms of the value that it holds for an evaluative study.

1.3 RESEARCH GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

The research problem broadly focuses on the perceived variation in the levels of managerial capacity of the current station managers in the SAPS. The goal of the research is to compile a comprehensive list of managerial competencies for these station managers through a combination of international best practice comparisons and local research. A comparison will then be made between the current managerial competencies of station

managers in the East Metropole of Cape Town SAPS (as a case study), and this list, in order to measure the perceived gap in management capacity and to analyse the effect that the SAPS management development processes, with particular reference to the PSMP, have on these station managers.

The research objectives of this study are to establish:

1. What the management competencies of middle-level managers in the public service in general are;
2. What a generic management profile of a station manager in SAPS should look like;
3. What management development initiatives and support are available to station managers in the SAPS; and
4. Whether these management development initiatives in SAPS have had a positive effect on the ability of station managers (in the East Metropole of Cape Town) to manage their stations successfully.

It is the premise of the researcher that there are definite gaps in the management competencies and related management capacity of station managers in South Africa. It is also the premise of the researcher that the PSMP as a specific management development intervention for this level of management is a very useful and applicable management development tool within the SAPS to build management capacity as station level. In conjunction with this however, there may be certain management competency areas that have as yet, not been completely incorporated into these particular management development interventions and that should be built into the future management development programmes and structures of the SAPS.

1.4 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The dilemma facing the Management Development Division of the SAPS during 1994 was how to provide quality training to the thousands of police

managers having to deal with the transition from a police force to a police service. To further complicate matters, the old style of policing by force had to be replaced by community policing. In conjunction with this, many police forces established by the previous “independent” and self-governing homelands had to be consolidated into one service. Apart from the above, a rigorous Affirmative Action programme was launched to make the staffing of the SAPS representative of the total population. This transformation process is still in progress today.

The SAPS, like many other public sector organisations in this same period, was undergoing a major transition in terms of its nature and structure in order to adapt to its changing environment. One of the results of this period was that the station managers of the previous Police Force (SAP) and the ten other policing agencies, have had to be retrained and that new managers, appointed as a consequence of Affirmative Action (many of whom had not experienced management development interventions before, have had to receive management training within a relatively short period of time.

An overriding complicating factor was that, because of the various previous forces being incorporated into the new SAPS, a programme of down-sizing was instituted, which meant that one was never sure which station managers had decided to take severance packages on short notice. This meant that the scene, as far as station managers was concerned, was constantly changing regarding the persons occupying those positions. Currently, there are many new managers in the position as station manager who have not yet undergone any specific station management training.

Although the SAPS accepted the dire need of immediate training of all station managers, they had neither the trainers, the curricula nor the funds to embark on this mission. If one considers that in South Africa there are 1100 police stations where the management teams consist of the station manager and the reactive and the proactive heads, well over 3000 station managers urgently need to receive management training.

In order to enable its members to adapt and perform effectively in this changing environment, the SAPS instituted various “in-house” management training programmes, through which different ranks had to progress in order to gain the skills necessary to perform their respective tasks. One of the most important levels at which training of various types was (and is) needed, is at station level. The men and women operating at station level have to deal with front-line functions within the SAPS. The skills needed at this level vary from “in-service training” skills such as administrative skills and techniques, the training for which are provided regularly by the SAPS internal training division, to newer, more dynamic management skills that have been highlighted as necessary at the station level in the SAPS. This latter training was at the time (until 2000) provided in the form of the PSMP and implemented by outside service providers (universities).

The Management Development Division of the SAPS, in conjunction with six universities in South Africa - the process of which is explained later in this research – delivered a comprehensive training programme to these station managers from 1996 to 2001. This implementation of the PSMP was stopped by the SAPS in 2001 due to a lack of funds.

During the delivery of this training programme, the initial evidence of this research problem was observed by the facilitators and co-ordinating management team. In facilitating the various module components of this PSMP, it became increasingly evident in the class situation that the participants were of different managerial capacity levels. This was observed as participants worked in groups on similar problems and some seemingly struggled to maintain the expected level of understanding and effectiveness. The academic assignments and examinations given on each module component delivered polarised results as certain station managers coped with the volume and intensity of the work, whilst others, the majority, appeared to struggle in completing the same tasks.

As the focus of the PSMP is on management-related issues, skills, techniques and processes, the activities in the classes were experiential in nature and involved much practical work and application. The ability and possibility of station managers to share stories of success and failure in such activities allowed for a transfer of knowledge and the creation of a network of possible support for the station managers. Within these sessions and within the networks created, it was observable that certain station managers had prior management training and a well-developed management background. They were therefore better equipped to take advantage of the experiential activities and better able to understand the knowledge and techniques being transferred.

These and other discrepancies have been observed and appear to stem from the lack of management capacity of certain station managers. The reasons for this are varied and understandable; however, the research question remains important in order to better understand the process needed to fill this apparent gap in management capacity at the same level of management in the SAPS.

1.5 METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

“Human beings are by nature curious – they want to know more about things or objects to satisfy their curiosity” (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997: 1). The knowledge obtained by means of research can be used to improve decision-making, especially since decision-making in the public sector is based on verified data and not on intuition, tradition or mere gut feeling. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:2) (see also Cherns, *et al.*, 1972: 12; and Miller, 1991:3) explain that “knowing” is mainly based on faith. There are two approaches to “knowing” that are notable (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:3):

1. *The rationalistic method* which is based on human reason. Human beings have the ability to think logically, to reason and thus to discover laws, using pure, abstract intelligence.
2. *The empirical method* which is based on facts. Facts observed in nature are the only elements to rely on. Objectivity of the observation is emphasised and only what is observable constitutes knowledge.

The “scientific method” of research is seen by writers as a synthesis of the rationalistic and the empirical methods (Mouton, 1996:23; Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:23 and Huysamen, 1994:12). A “science” can be defined as a building of knowledge obtained by use of a particular methodology, the scientific approach (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:3). The scientific method of acquiring knowledge, also called scientific research, is a systematic investigation of a question, a phenomenon, or a problem using certain principles (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:3 and Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:2). The main assumptions of this scientific approach to research can be summarised as follows:

1. Science assumes the existence of natural and social laws. In other words, science presumes order and regularity in natural and social events.
2. Scientific research assumes that the laws of nature can be discovered by human beings because humans are also part of nature and are themselves subject to those laws.
3. Natural phenomena have natural causes. In other words, no supernatural powers are needed to grasp the cause of events and no unexplainable supernatural forces can explain the way nature functions.
4. Although knowledge is superior to ignorance, knowledge and truth in science are relative to the evidence, the methods and the theories employed.
5. Scientific statements must be distinguished from common-sense statements.

6. Scientific observation is systematic. All the possibilities are considered, one at a time in a logical sequence.

7. Scientific observation is objective when the description of reality does not reflect the subjective views of the researcher, but rather corresponds to the description of anyone examining the same reality.

(See also Burger, 1992:11; Mouton, 1996:17)

Within the above parameters, scientific research portrays certain properties. Kaplan (1963:24) describes scientific research as being empirical since the aim is to know reality. He states further that research is systematic and logical whilst also being replicable and transmittable. He concludes by explaining that research is reductive. To place this in context in terms of this study, the research will be empirical as each step is based on observations – be it during data collection or in the explanation of the results. The research is also systematic and logical in that it will be done in a certain logical order that will repeat itself. The research will also aim to be replicable and transmittable as anyone that is placed in the same situation at station level or in the PSMP can and will observe the same events. The research is reductive in that it reduces the reality of station level management to the PSMP in order to make certain generalisations regarding the management at this specific level.

Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:14) (see also Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:24 – 26) describe the steps in scientific research. The basis of reasoning behind such steps appears to be, also according to other social science writers (see also Mouton & Marais, 1988:2 – 4 and Huysamen, 1994: 23-24), that the best research results are based on careful planning of the whole process. A plan of action for research is given by Bless and Higson-Smith as:

1. Selection and formulation of the research problem;
2. Choice of research design;
3. Data collection;
4. Analysis of data;
5. Interpretation of results;

6. Conclusions and recommendations; and
7. Writing the research report.

In terms of this research, a similar process is followed within the parameters of the chosen case study (station managers operating in the East Metropole of Cape Town). The research problem was selected and formulated within the context of the PSMP. During the implementation of this programme (1996 – 2000), the potential research problem was discussed with other involved role-players such as university facilitators, station managers themselves and SAPS officials at Head Office especially those involved in management development and in-service training. The research design was done in collaboration with the management committee of the programme as well as the relevant academics at the School of Public Management and Planning of the University of Stellenbosch. Certain SAPS trainers at the Paarl Training College were also involved in this design. Data collection methods as explained below were planned in accordance with university and social research guidelines.

The source of this particular research problem is found in observations and experiences, theory and previous investigation. More than these however, it is also found in problems encountered by human beings in their relation to their work environments. Cherns *et al* (1972: 35) explain that in the identification of a research problem, one can distinguish three steps in narrowing the range of interest: the selection of a topic area, the selection of a general problem and the reduction of the general problem to one or more specific precise and well-defined questions. In terms of this study, the selected topic area is “management capacity” at station level in the SAPS. The general problem area appears to be the lack of certain core management competencies within this management level in the SAPS, while the specific questions around the management competencies and larger management capacity problem are listed in the problem statement.

Based on the above, a well-chosen problem should satisfy as many as possible of the following criteria (Bless & Higson-Smith: 1995:21):

1. Be timely;
2. Relate to practical problems;
3. Relate to a wide population;
4. Relate to an influential or critical population;
5. Fill a research gap;
6. Permit generalisations to broader principles of social interaction or general theory;
7. Sharpen the definition of an important concept or relationship;
8. Have many implications for a wide range of practical problems;
9. Create or improve an instrument for observing and analysing data;
and
10. Provide possibilities for a fruitful exploration with known techniques.

In terms of this particular research, the chosen problem area and techniques of research will comply with a majority of these established criteria in the following way:

1. The research is particularly timely as the SAPS is moving into a new arena of management development interventions and little or nothing is known of the effects and necessity of such interventions at particular levels of management;
2. The research relates to a practical problem of daily management of police stations throughout the country. Station managers face management problems, on a daily basis, that are of such a magnitude that often the “bad management” or lack of effective management leads to serious failures in crime prevention that have serious effects on the communities in each area;
3. The research relates to a relatively wide population as the sample of participants on the Joint Universities Public Management Educational Trust (JUPMET) Police Station Management Programme (PSMP) can be used to give guidance and support to other station managers who have not yet gone through the training intervention. The other more senior levels of management who have not had an intervention such as this can use important lessons and processes learnt to improve their

own management capacity. The audience can also be expanded to include international policing managers as similar research has not been done from this particular perspective;

4. These research results will relate to a population in that it will influence the views and decisions of the Management Development Division of the SAPS in terms of the support and capacity-building programmes provided to station managers. It will provide the Human Resources Division of the SAPS with critical information in terms of the selection criteria, performance appraisal system, promotion guidelines and training schedule for station managers. It will also include important information to the co-ordinators and facilitators of the JUPMET Police Station Management Programme in that the course structure, outcomes, and methods can be checked against, monitored and adapted, if necessary to the recommendations given. In addition it will provide station managers themselves with a sound understanding of their individual competencies and the expectations of the organisation (SAPS) and communities of the role they are to fulfill in their jobs;
5. The results of the study will attempt to fill a research gap in the social sciences in South Africa specifically, and internationally in terms of its particular perspective and process. As the management development interventions are relatively new and untested in terms of competencies of station managers, the research is unique and urgently needed to guide future actions;
6. As this research focuses on management development and the related management capacity and specific core competencies at station level (middle management), the results can easily be generalised into broad principles of effective management development and competency planning;
7. The definition given to management development in the SAPS and the understanding of the management competencies expected at station level will be clarified and "sharpened" in order to measure the current competency level and the support that is given in order to reach such levels;

8. The research will aim at having many implications for practical problems related to station level management, national organisational competency measurement and setting, management interventions and support systems available to station managers specifically, and other middle-level managers in the public sector;
9. This research will attempt to improve the understanding of competencies at middle-level management in the SAPS and, in so doing, also aim at offering an instrument for analysis of such competencies for potential station managers in the SAPS nation-wide. Simultaneously, the research has as a goal the creation of certain guidelines in terms of the PSMP and the core competencies that the programme needs to cover in order to be truly effective as a management development intervention; and
10. In the larger context, this research will be able to offer possibilities for interesting exploration into the sphere of management development in the public sector in general and the SAPS at station level in particular, by using known techniques of data collection and analysis.

Before going ahead with the research process, Mouton and Marais (1988:41) explain that a researcher should check whether the following more general criteria are satisfied: empirical testability; workability; critical mass; interest; theoretical value; and practical value.

In terms of this research, the results will be obtained through studying reality and observing empirical facts. The facts relate to the management competencies of station managers which either exist (have been developed and measured) or do not (lack in the person filling the position). The proposed study is manageable as it is linked to station managers in the Western Cape that have been sampled according to their appointment as a manager at station level within the East Metropole of Cape Town. The scope of the research is specific enough (East Metropole: Cape Town, Western Cape) to provide clear results while having the potential to be generalised to apply to the wider population of station managers in South Africa. There is a motivation on the part of the researcher to investigate this

issue as she is involved in the performance management of the target group and the training intervention (PSMP) as a facilitator and management team member. The researcher has also co-authored a book in the field of Police Management. The theoretical relevance of this research is evident in the utilisation of the outcomes for practitioners and academics alike as the advancement of knowledge in this field is important for any progress in terms of the general success and survival of appropriate training and development interventions within the SAPS. The practical value of the research has already been touched upon, but it is important to reiterate that the utilisation of the findings is for a wider audience and for a variety of purposes, most importantly the further development and activation of a sound management development policy and strategy for the SAPS.

A qualitative research methodology guides this research. Qualitative research methodologies are defined by Brynard and Hanekom (1997:29) as research which produces descriptive data – generally people’s own written or spoken words. Usually no numbers or counts are assigned to observations (See also Burger, 1992:35; Huysamen, 1994:47; Mouton, 1988:4 and Pfiffner, 1940:23 – 24). The qualitative nature of this study allows for the description and exploration of the management development process for station managers, as well as a participatory and evaluative approach to the PSMP as an intervention to build the capacity of these managers.

The type of research that this study falls into is a combination of three defined categories. Brynard and Hanekom (1997:27 – 42) (see also Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:45 – 55; and Mouton & Marais, 1988: 32 – 45) provide a clear explanation of the types of research that can be undertaken for different purposes. For the purpose of this study, the following will apply:

Exploratory and Descriptive Research is described as two interrelated types of research that complement each other in a study of a phenomenon. Exploratory research attempts to gain insight into a situation or

phenomenon usually due to a lack of information. This often appears to form the first part of any research. Descriptive research attempts to describe in detail a process or phenomenon after it has been thoroughly explored. Although both these types have different objectives and require different levels of understanding, they use the same data collection methods, namely observation, questionnaires and interviews. This research has to be exploratory in essence as little information is available on the current competencies of station managers. It is also descriptive as it attempts to describe the process surrounding the training programmes for station managers as interventions to develop the management capacity at station level.

Evaluation Research is described as assessing the design, implementation and usefulness of social interventions. This research is evaluative as it is diagnostic – it acts as a tool to help people identify neglected areas of need in particular training programmes. In particular, this research aims at identifying possible areas of the station manager's competency profile that are currently neglected by management development. It is also formative to a certain degree as the research aims, by implication, at comparing the original aims of the management development programmes with the programmes as they currently stand in order to furnish certain guidelines to adapt the programme contents to achieve the set aims. It is also evaluative in that it attempts to furnish evidence on the usefulness or applicability of the training programmes as management development tools to build the capacity of station managers.

Participative Research is distinguished from other types of research, by two important characteristics: the relationship between the people involved in the research, and the use of research as a tool for action and for increasing human knowledge. In this type of research, the people for whom the research is being done are actively involved in the process, from planning to identifying possible solutions. This research process is participative in that the people for whom the research is being done, the station managers, are relatively actively involved in certain parts of the process. Although they are

not part of the actual research design and planning in terms of the training programmes, they are actively involved in identifying gaps in management competencies in terms of their jobs.

Within the research design of this study, the focus of the research is conditions as defined by Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:64). Conditions, as opposed to orientations or actions as a focus of any research, are studied when a researcher wishes to explore the current state of the subject of the research (Mouton & Marais, 1988:122). In this research, the researcher wishes to explore the current competency profile of station managers in order to evaluate the relevance of the management development opportunities available to them and offer recommendations in terms of management development processes and its capacity-building ability at station level in the SAPS.

The unit of analysis in this research is the individual, as defined by Brynard and Hanekom (1997:34). The researcher wishes to investigate the conditions, orientations and actions of a group of station managers (See also Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:65).

With the above in mind, it becomes obvious that the research design will be quasi-experimental in nature. Mouton and Marais (1988:121) describe this as a relaxation of the requirements of pure experiments, while at the same time maintaining a higher level of control and rigour than is possible in pre-experimental designs. To be more specific, a *Contrasted Group Design* (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:77) will be applied in this research. This design is defined as one in which the goal of the researcher is to find groups that are dissimilar or contrasting in terms of a particular aspect. If the groups are dissimilar in terms of one aspect, and record a difference in terms of another aspect, it can be concluded that the differences in this aspect are due to the differences between the two groups.

1.6 CHAPTER OUTLINE

To provide a general overview of the research, the following chapters will evolve in order to describe and measure the possible affect of the PSMP as a specific management development intervention, on improving the management ability of station managers in the SAPS.

Chapter 1 introduces the reader to the South African police management environment and highlights various structural and procedural challenges in the policing system. These challenges relate in turn directly to the ability of the managers at the various police stations to apply certain basic managerial procedures and to use the resources at their disposal in creative and often non-bureaucratic ways. The chapter provides the focus of the research in terms of the problem statement and gives a brief background of the issues and an overview of the research methodology. It provides an introduction to the research and outlines the problem that is to be researched. It gives a descriptive background to the study and links the researcher's involvement in police management development and training interventions to the focus of the research. The research methodology is broken down into its various components and perspectives and a research methodology is provided. Lastly, the most frequently used concepts of this research are summarised, defined and put into a graphic representation of their respective linkage within this research process.

The following chapter (chapter 2) focuses on management competencies for public sector managers. Management competency is defined in general, a differentiation is made between public and private sector management competencies is made. A specific list of public sector management competencies is derived. Further to this list, specific police management competencies are described and a schedule of station management competencies is given. These competencies form the foundation of the measurement which takes place later in the research process.

Chapter 3 concentrates on management development as a tool for enhancing management competencies. It describes the theoretical base for the process of management development by looking at its various components. These include management capacity, management competency and the related knowledge, skills and aptitudes for middle-level managers. The implementation of a competency-based approach to management development will be explored and various competency models will be discussed. The role of training as a particular management development intervention is also explored in detail.

Chapter 4 will focus on the South African Police Service (SAPS) in terms of its history and current reality. Specific attention is given to the management development opportunities available to station managers. The current job profile and related management competencies of station managers will be explored. The current management development programme and its related components will be discussed in terms of their planned outputs and outcomes. The current management training programmes available to station managers in the SAPS will be scanned and introduced as the basis from which management capacity is developed for these station level managers.

Chapter 5 focuses on an evaluation of current management development processes in SAPS through the utilisation of a case study – the East Metropole of the SAPS in Cape Town. The data collection process and instrument is described. For this purpose a sample of station managers from the East Metropole in the Cape Town will be utilised. Within this sample, some of the station managers will have completed the PSMP while others will not have done so. The results of these two groups will be compared in order to ascertain the possible effect that the PSMP, as a management development training intervention, has had on improving policing in the Eastern Metropole. Lastly, the chapter will provide the research results and an in-depth analysis of these results for interpretation purposes

Chapter 6 provides the recommendations from this analysis and interpretation and forms the crux of the research process by providing valuable and useable suggestions to academics, trainers and practitioners in the field of police management, management development and public management. Chapter 7 will conclude the research process.

1.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined the research problem and research goals. A background to the research was given and the methodological considerations and process was explained. The core concepts to be used throughout this research have been highlighted and the outline of the proposed chapters is explained. Chapter 2 will focus on management competencies for the public sector and generate a list of theoretical competencies for public sector managers, police managers and station managers within the SAPS.

CHAPTER 2

MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES FOR PUBLIC SECTOR MANAGERS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter highlighted the importance, within the South African context, of the ability of managers to be able to manage the transformation process and the challenges involved in building the competency of such managers to be able to perform. The specific case of station level (middle-level) managers within the SAPS was put forward as the focus of this research. Through the introduction to this research, the research goals and objectives were made clear and the research process was outlined.

With chapter 1 as the foundation, this chapter (chapter 2) aims at exploring and describing the management competencies required for managers in general, and public sector managers specifically. Further to this, the research focus of this chapter includes the following:

1. Defining the term “competence” within the management context;
2. Comparing and listing various general competencies for managers at the middle management level;
3. Comparing and listing various competencies for public sector managers;
4. Comparing and listing various competencies for police managers; and
5. Deriving a list of management competencies for station level managers within the SAPS.

This overview, collection and comparison of management competencies as researched by various international and South African authors, both in the private and public sectors, will provide a basis for the investigation to be undertaken later in this research. This measurement will attempt to ascertain whether the current management development interventions for station level managers within the SAPS, are effective tools for improving

and developing the required competencies (as listed in this chapter) for successful service delivery at station level.

2.2 MANAGEMENT COMPETENCE DEFINED

Expanding management capability and management capacity is the key to managing successfully (Kochanski, 1997:41). In many, if not most organisations, employees become managers when they assume responsibility for managing people and other resources. Kochanski (1997:41) continues to explain that these managers are often observed making product, technical, process and financial decisions, and are not always focused on the human implications (management ability) of these decisions. Management that overlooks an organisation's management capacity and management capability risks not meeting its customer's needs and losing them to competitors. This explanation by Kochanski emphasises the importance of management competency as a requirement for organisational success.

The importance of understanding the impact of international competitiveness, the concept of world-class and the emerging world of work is that they (managers) require new management competencies to survive and succeed (Meyer, 1995:11). Competency is the outcome and the product of learning and in the changing world around us, the traditional paradigms of education and training seem inadequate to effectively provide the newly-required management competencies.

Competence or competency is essentially an abstract concept. It can be defined and measured only through behaviour or performance. Some of the varied usages of competency include (Weightman, 1995:23):

1. Core competencies of organisations;
2. Competency-based qualifications; and
3. Competencies for the assessment of potential and managerial development form the basis of the assessment.

A working definition of competency, which can apply over various contexts or situations, is given by Meyer (1995:34) *Competency is the integration of knowledge, skill and value orientation, demonstrated to a defined standard in a specific context.* A competency is only useful if it can be measured or demonstrated and this, by definition, requires certain standards of performance and statements of the parameters or context in which performance is required.

It is also necessary to link the concept of competency to related terms and concepts. There are, in particular, two other concepts according to Birkett (1992:58) that are frequently used in conjunction with that of competency. Performance is often used, and particularly in the context of performance management as it is associated, and often confused with competence. Meyer (1995:36) explains that whilst competence is generally demonstrated by performance, performance is a broader concept and competence does not necessarily result in satisfactory performance. The following model illustrates this (Figure 1):

Figure 1: Competence vs. Performance (adapted from Meyer, 1996: 37)

It can therefore be said that competence is a necessary, but not a sufficient condition for performance. A competent individual will not perform to standard if he/she is not motivated and will be unable to perform if the opportunity to perform is frustrated. This model provides that basis for a useful performance analysis process.

The second concept that is often used interchangeably with competence is that of potential. Kolb (1984:123) explains that while performance, and by definition competence, is concerned with the present, potential has to do with the future. Identification of potential has to do with identifying the capability of a person to achieve a certain level of competence in the future. As a concept, it is concerned with measuring attributes that can predict future performance; however, and the considerable difficulties concerned with validity and measurement apply here.

Building on this notion of organisational competencies, Turner and Crawford (in Meyer, 1996:39) suggest that the base competencies are the underpinning competencies or elements that form the distinctive competence of the organisation and its managers. This implies that the superordinate competencies can be “unbundled” to identify the subordinate or elemental competencies in that organisation (See also Brown, 1993:25; Du Bois, 1993:45 – 46; Lei & Slocum, 1992:81; Rutherford, 1995:12 and Stewart & Hamlin, 1992:21). This framework is particularly important as it addresses many of the conceptual difficulties associated with an abstract concept such as competency.

Another useful and pragmatic model which also addresses the issues at a corporate or organisational level is that proposed by Cannon (1995:125 – 136). His framework (Figure 2) was developed in the context of management development, but could apply to all aspects of competence. The value of his framework lies in the use of competence as a strategic tool within an organisation and as a linchpin or an integrating mechanism for key human resource management processes. It places the management of competence, individual and organisational, squarely at the level of the manager – a fact which has serious implications for the roles of different stakeholders in the organisation and which is consistent with the emerging paradigm of learning. The framework suggested by Cannon (1995:125 – 136) focuses an organisation’s training and development activities on strategic competencies required by the organisation rather on than the provision of training courses.

Figure 2: Cannon's Framework (Adapted from Cannon 1995: 128)

A systems approach to learning assists in understanding how competencies link to learning processes. Terry (1996:41) explains that if one considers the typical systems model and applies it to learning, competence is clearly the output of the system (see also HSRC, 1995:3; and Weightman, 1995:42). If competence is the outcome of the system, then the inputs are the trainers, material, time and other resources necessary for the learning process. The feedback loop can then be used to represent the various levels of evaluation (refer to Figure 3).

Figure 3: A Systems Approach to Competencies (Terry, 1996: 41)

	FEEDBACK		
	INPUTS	PROCESSES	OUTPUTS
National Level	National budgets and resources	National institutions, policies and systems	National competencies
Organisational Level	Organisational training centres and budgets	All learning systems	Organisational strategic competencies
Individual Level	Time and expenses	Learning methods	Individual competencies

The importance of understanding this particular framework is that one has to start by defining the outputs of the learning system. Only by defining the outputs – the competencies – that are required by the system, can one logically design the most cost-effective process of learning.

The process of identifying and defining the outputs depends largely on the context and the purpose for which it is required. (Stewart & Hamlin, 1992:23) The term “acquisition” is used in most sources (See also Birkett, 1992:57; Brown, 1993: 34-36; Holmes & Joyce, 1993:39 and MacMillan *et al*, 1995: 251 – 257) rather than learning since, at an organisational level, it may be more appropriate to recruit new competencies or merge with, or acquire an entire organisation which is capable of providing the required competence. Assessment of competence is governed, at an individual level, by a number of principles such as those of validity and reliability. The question that also needs to be asked and answered, is whether organisational or individual performance has been achieved? A process to answer this question is seen below in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Competencies and Organisational Performance (Adapted from Terry, 1996: 42)

A framework developed by the University of the Witwatersrand (WITS) Business School and referred to by Terry (1996:43) suggests four

conceptual categories or approaches to competency and its linkages. It tries to provide a conceptual home for different approaches to competence and provides a linkage to external drivers of such processes. This framework is as follows (see Figure 5):

Figure 5: Conceptual Categories of Competencies (Adapted from Terry, 1996: 86)

CATEGORY	SUBCATEGORY	DRIVEN BY
National	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Core competence Capabilities 	National economic and development strategy
Organisational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Core competence Strategic capability 	Organisational strategy
Individual	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Vocational competence 	Individual career management
Occupational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Managerial competence 	Individual and organisational objectives
Individual	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Meta-competencies 	Personal motivation and ability

Within this framework, the components are described in the following way (Terry, 1996: 43 – 123):

National competencies are those clusters of competencies that have developed around strategic industries in a particular country. They are recognised nationally and internationally. They have life-cycles and are linked to economic policy. Clusters tend to grow around natural resources and these clusters are known for their expertise internationally thereby attracting more, related industries.

Organisational competencies have as a point of departure, organisational strategy and form the basis for strategic direction and organisational design. There are usually two related concepts with the competencies of an

organisation: organisational core competence and strategic competence or capability. Such unit standards include statements of the competency outcomes to be achieved. They are to be endorsed by the relevant National Standards Bodies (NSBs) and they should reflect an integration of knowledge, skill and value orientation.

Vocational competencies are competencies that exist in individuals within a specific industry or enterprise. In South Africa these competencies are being developed within each industry as unit standards. These unit standards form the basis of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) system.

Managerial competencies are based on the assumption that management is an integration of many other recognised professions. Many of the generic meta-competencies are therefore not unique to management. Consensus among the various authors shows that management focuses heavily on the people dimension which distinguishes management from professional or technical work. This notion is under the spotlight as new roles in multi-functional and self-managed teams are becoming the norm. The assumption is therefore made that the unique features of management are the integrating and influencing roles.

Meta-competencies refer to those individual competencies necessary to function in a modern economy and which are not linked to any particular occupation or profession. They reside with individuals and do not belong to any defined body of knowledge. They are difficult to assess and seldom function independently. There seems to be no universally accepted model or list of such competencies and they therefore require different definitions at different levels in different contexts. A need however exists in society for such competencies that are based on self-management or personal effectiveness.

With this framework of competency in mind, it is a known fact that competencies, as with many other aspects in organisations, are cyclical in

nature. Various writers (see Birkett, 1992:56; Cannon, 1995: 133; Holmes & Joyce, 1993: 51; Meyer, 1995: 35; Meyer, 1996: 42 and Weightman, 1995: 87) relate the relative value of competencies (at all levels) to life cycles of organisations. This is due to the fact that the value of most things changes over time as circumstances and demands change. In any organisation, the demand for certain competencies changes as contexts, supply, demand, market value, clients and other critical aspects in the organisation's life change. Dale & Iles (1996:122) suggest that competency life-cycles result in the following:

1. Emerging competencies, necessary to respond to emerging future orientated requirements;
2. Maturing competencies, the value of which is declining;
3. Transitional competencies, which emerge and decline as an organisation moves through its own life cycle; and
4. Core competencies, which are enduring in importance irrespective of changes in strategy.

The following diagram depicts these competencies as they are affected over time (Figure 6):

Figure 6: The Effect of Time on the Importance of Competency (Adapted from Terry, 1996: 43)

In summary, it is the ability to understand the demand for future competencies, to focus resources on acquiring these more quickly than competitors, and applying them, which will provide competitive advantage for an organisation. With this understanding of competencies, their classification and role for both individuals and organisations, it is necessary to look at what the general competencies for middle managers are, what the specific competencies for public sector managers are, and then extract those that are necessary for police management and specifically those that are essential for station level management.

2.3 GENERAL MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

Managers are often seen as being the key element when it comes to organisational success. When managers themselves are asked about the most important requirements for success in such positions, they typically emphasise personal and social attributes, whilst education, experience and job knowledge appear to be merely desirable (Snape *et al.* 1994:34). Various writers (see Redman & Mathews, 1997:246; Economides, 1994:26 and Van der Merwe, 1992: 113) suggest that this may be a result of the de-skilling in many managerial jobs, both technically and conceptually. Some go as far as to suggest that managers' jobs have even been socially re-skilled. Redman & Mathews (1997:247) specifically state that in the "culture-guided" organisation of the 1990's, managers are being recast as "evangelists", "shamans", "states-people" and "cheerleaders", rather than the appliers and interpreters of rules, disciplinarians and "backside-kickers".

Managers of business units or departments are being asked to lead the change, to master the unfamiliar and to mobilise efforts across organisational boundaries. Kassarian (1992:4) asks the question as to what are these new talents that are required and how this new type of leader/manager is to be identified and prepared. Given these realities, the middle manager now has to:

1. Recognise the need for enabling leaders who can lead a team towards a strategic focus and who can work across organisational boundaries;
2. Identify talent that has the potential to master the new agenda; and
3. Champion the processes that can develop managers who can lead change.

Middle management, according to Rautenbach (1992:28), may be defined as those employees who are neither responsible for executive decision-making nor can they be classified as supervisors. They are a very important group in any organisation, since they are most likely to replace senior management. Generally, middle management has more people reporting directly to them than top management, therefore their role in guiding and influencing employees is crucial.

Middle management is at the centre of both top management and the supervisor, and they should therefore be equipped to deal effectively with both these levels of management. The middle managers, as a link between top management and supervisory levels in the organisation, focus much of their attention on personnel issues in an attempt to create harmony, affectivity and efficiency in the organisation as a whole. (Stumpke, 1996:23) "People related issues and problems form a substantial part of their daily routine" (Procaccini, 1986:vii)

Stumpke (1996:24) goes on to explain that middle-level managers act simultaneously as "manager" and "supervisor". The term "manager" refers to their position in the hierarchy, while the term "supervisor" refers to their responsibility to synchronise the organisational goals and the needs of the personnel. As supervisor, they act as an agent of the top management and as a representative of the people they supervise. It is therefore in this one person that the interests of the organisation and of the individual employee lie! Procaccini (1986:viii) reiterates this in his book as he states that a middle manager is "a true linchpin between management and labour." The

success of middle managers centers on this role and by implication therefore on their ability to maintain a healthy balance between the goals of the organisation and the needs of the individual employees. The essential focus of middle-level management is therefore their ability to get things done effectively (operations), as well as maintaining linkages between top management and supervisors (See also Sayles, 1993:10 – 11).

The fact about emerging global competition is that most sources of competitive advantage have ever-shorter life spans. In this climate, the speed and efficacy with which middle managers, in particular, learn to lead change becomes critical. According to Bateman and Zeithaml (1991:21), skills are specific abilities that result from knowledge, information, practice and aptitude. Middle-level managers must possess certain specific skills in order to be successful. Kroon (1995:17) sets out three types of skills that managers in general should have. They are:

Functional skills: These are described as those skills necessary to understand management methods, processes and procedures. It also includes specialised knowledge within a certain field or discipline and the ability to use equipment and tools in that field.

People skills: Are defined as the ability to function effectively as a member of a group and to create co-operation between the management or work team. This ability is observed in the way that an individual recognises superiors, subordinates and colleagues for what they are.

Conceptual skills: These skills are defined as the ability to observe an organisation in its totality. This includes an understanding of the interdependence of various functions in an organisation and how change in one part affects the whole. Conceptual skills also include the ability to integrate and apply the interests, activities and resources of an organisation in order to achieve organisational goals.

These three skills are essential for effective management (Stumpke, 1996:25). The relative importance however, depends on the specific posts that the managers hold. This is illustrated by Kroon (1995:17) in the following table:

Table 1: Effective Management Skills (adapted from Kroon 1995:17)

MANAGEMENT LEVEL	% OF SKILLS		
	Technical (functional) skills	People skills	Conceptual skills
TOP MANAGEMENT	8%	42%	50%
MIDDLE MANAGEMENT	22%	50%	28%
LOWER MANAGEMENT	42%	50%	8%

This table shows that successful middle-level managers are largely capable in all three skill areas. It is important that they have a large degree of technical skill. It is evident that the further up the hierarchy one progresses, the less functional activities (technical skills) one needs and the more management activities (conceptual skills) one must master.

Van Heerden (1986:5) explains that in addition to the above skills that are needed, a sound knowledge of the following, through an intensive study by the manager, is required:

1. Basic organisational and administrative principles;
2. Personnel management (such as motivation, morale development, placement and attitudes);
3. Planning of functional strategies;

4. Communication (internal and external);
5. Decision-making; and
6. Co-ordination.

Individual managers also have differing management abilities (management knowledge, skills and aptitudes). Schilbach (1983:527) is of the opinion that these management abilities cannot easily be improved. He suggests that one should rather focus on management expertise. In other words, further development of specific management knowledge and skills. This training will be added to by focused exposure to real management situations with the emphasis on the obtainment of necessary management experience. The question of course is then, can management skills be learnt? Such skills are too important and too complicated to just be learnt during in-service training. Experts seem to agree that technical (functional) skills can be learnt rather easily and that interpersonal skills can be learnt through a degree of practice (See Rautenbach, 1992:28; Bateman & Zeithaml, 1991:121; Cronje, 1994:40 and Floyd & Woodridge, 1992: 56 – 57). Conceptual skills are however more problematic.

Robbins (1996:9) states that in order to become competent at any skill, a person needs to understand it both conceptually and behaviourally; have opportunities to practice it; get feedback on how well he/she is performing the skill; and use the skill often enough so that it becomes integrated into his/her behavioural repertoire. This has as an implication, the requirement that any management development programme should offer the managers the opportunity to expand and develop their knowledge, skills and aptitudes so that they are in a position to complete their management tasks (conceptual skills) in terms of the demands of their position in an organisation.

Lado and Wilson (1994:703) state that a stream of strategy research has emerged that generally posits that organisational resources and capabilities that are rare, valuable, non-substitutable, and imperfectly imitable, form the basis of an organisation's competitive advantage. They go further to

explain that human resource systems can contribute to this sustained competitive advantage through facilitating the development of competencies that are firm, produce complex social relationships, are embedded in an organisation's history and culture, and generate tacit organisational knowledge. The resources and capabilities that create this have been labeled as follows:

1. Distinctive competence;
2. Core competence;
3. Firm-specific competence; and
4. Organisational competence.

Lado and Wilson (1994:703) continue to describe the organisational competencies as comprising:

1. Managerial competence;
2. Input-based competence;
3. Transformational competence; and
4. Output-based competence.

Within the managerial competency component, two specific competencies for managers are highlighted, they are:

1. The unique capabilities of the organisation's managers to articulate a strategic vision, communicate the vision throughout the organisation and empower organisational members to realise that vision; and
2. The unique ability to enact a beneficial organisational environment.

Two of the better known sets of competencies that were developed are by Dulewicz (1994) and Hunt & Wallace (1997) in Bhatta (2001:196). Dulewicz listed 10 skills that capable managers would be expected to exhibit, including strategic vision; adaptability; interpersonal sensitivity; and business acumen. Hunt & Wallace identified five competency clusters: personnel management; strategic and change management; leadership and team building; problem solving and administrative and operations management.

Based upon the work of Boyatzis (1982), as described above, various other researchers have followed his model of competency assessment (see Bhatta, 2001:196; Edwards & Gregory, 1998:45; Hondeghem & Vandermeulen, 2000: 78; Horton, 2000:11 MacMillan & Venkataraman, 1995:22 and Noordegraaf, 2000:56 and Virtanen, 2000:18). Many of these researchers, practitioners and academics have used Boyatzis' model to research competencies within their own countries, at various levels of management and in various sectors.

The competency clusters as described originally by Boyatzis, have been linked to specific levels of management by authors such as Cronje (1994:67) and MacMillan & Venkataraman (1995:23). Table 2 below describes these competencies as linked to entry-level, middle-level and executive-level managers in organisations in general.

Table 2: Management Level Competencies (adapted from MacMillan & Venkataraman, 1995:23)

Entry-level Managers	Middle-level Managers	Executive-level Managers
1. Goal and action management cluster		
Diagnostic use of concepts Efficiency orientation Proactivity	Concern with impact Diagnostic use of concepts Efficiency orientation Proactivity	Concern with impact Diagnostic use of concepts Efficiency orientation Proactivity
2. Leadership Cluster		
	Conceptualisation Logical thought Self-confidence Use of oral presentations	Conceptualisation Self-confidence Use of oral presentation
3. Human Resource Management Cluster		
	Accurate self-assessment Managing group process Positive regard Use of socialised power	
4. Directing Subordinates Cluster		
Developing others		

Spontaneity Use of unilateral power		
5. Other Competencies Cluster		
Accurate self-assessment Self-control Stamina and adaptability Use of socialised power	Developing others Perceptual objectivity Spontaneity Stamina and adaptability	Developing others Managing group process Perceptual objectivity

Taking these competency clusters further into the analysis process, other authors linked them to the generic management functions of planning, organising, controlling, motivating and co-ordinating (adapted from Boyatzis, 1982:236. See also Dror, 1997:23; Edwards & Gregory, 1998:45; Holmes & Joyce, 1993:34). This is illustrated below.

Table 3: Management Functions and Competency Links (adapted from Boyatzis, 1982:236)

Function	Tasks	Link	Cluster
Planning	1. Determining the goals of the organisation 2. Establishing plans of action 3. Determining how the plan should be implemented 4. Communicating this to others		Competencies in the goal and action management cluster Competencies in the leadership cluster
Organising	1. Determining what people and resources are needed to accomplish the plan 2. Determining how these people and resources should be structured to do it 3. Establishing the standards of performance 4. Communicating to others		Competencies in the goal and action management cluster Competencies in the leadership cluster Competencies in the HRM cluster

Controlling	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Monitoring performance of individuals and groups 2. Providing feedback to individuals and groups 3. Rewarding or disciplining based on performance 		<p>Competencies in the goal and action management cluster</p> <p>Competencies in the directing subordinates and HRM cluster</p>
Motivating	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Building commitment, identity, pride, and spirit in the organisation 2. Stimulating an interest in work 3. Developing capability in subordinates 		<p>Competencies in the HRM and leadership clusters</p> <p>Competencies in the directing subordinates cluster</p>
Coordinating	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Stimulating cooperation among department, divisions, and other work groups 2. Negotiating resolution of conflicts and differences 3. Representing the organisation to outside groups 		<p>Competencies in the HRM and focus on others clusters</p> <p>Competencies in the leadership cluster</p>

From the above analysis of general management competencies, it is clear that these general competencies can differ slightly between levels of management within any organisational environment, and within each of the management functions of a particular manager as required by the organisation. In general, Boyatzis' (1982:236) competency clusters with their related competency areas form a sound base from which the following section can attempt to differentiate between general management competencies and public sector management competencies.

2.4 PUBLIC SECTOR MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

The transferability of private sector management practices to the public sector has been subjected to critical debate (Redman & Mathews, 1997:245). The outcomes of such debates are some major implications for managers' jobs, careers, skills development, training and particularly their personal management style. One could almost say that a completely "new breed" of public sector manager is needed. Redman *et al* (1997:245) add that this future "rounded" public sector manager will need many of the skills and attributes traditionally associated with the private sector manager.

The search for the modern public sector manager is well under way. Literature on "new managerialism" promises success to those who can acquire new and different skills from their predecessors. A common message is for managers to become more entrepreneurial and market-minded. The attributes of enterprising managers such as self-motivation, innovation, initiative, creativity, energy and dynamism are prominent amongst recruiters (Redman *et al*, 1997:253).

Kassarjian explains that the patterns of adaptation to changing contexts of managers fall into four categories (1992:6):

1. Political infighter;
2. Loyal soldier;
3. Opportunistic entrepreneur; and
4. Enabling leader.

These various modes of managers provide a description of the general management competencies needed in different types of organisational environments. In South Africa's current public sector environment, middle managers in particular are faced with the challenge of moving towards the "enabling leader" role and thus moving out of their current comfort zones within their organisational context. This will demand new skills and attitudes of these managers and as such it will demand that public sector

organisations develop new management development programmes in order to empower their current managers to be able to fulfill these new roles.

Van der Merwe agrees with the above change of focus towards the “enabling leader”, as he warns of the following misconceptions about public sector management (1992:112):

1. Management is controlling and supervising routine functions;
2. Financial management constitutes the core of management;
3. “Sound management” equates with adherence to official policies regarding the control of money and personnel;
4. Management consists of a set of universal policies or rules, equally relevant to every organisation;
5. Management is something that heads of departments delegate to their chief financial and/or personnel officers, so that they can get on with the “real” work of the department;
6. Management is business administration;
7. Management is a collection of prescriptions designed to help people engaged in routine, repetitive work; and
8. Management means reducing the size of the public service.

He continues to illustrate the complicated nature of management by stating that there is no simple technique or recipe for assessing good management and performance in the public sector (1992:113). Numerous factors have to be taken into account, including the environment in which governmental institutions operate in order to attempt to measure their performance and thereby assess the outcomes of the processes of governance.

Van der Merwe (1992:123) refers to the management environment in the public sector. This very complex nature of the public sector management environment makes it clear that the results of policies, activities and programmes in the public sector are quite often very difficult to observe or quantify, which makes it even more difficult to evaluate or judge the performance of departments or managers within these departments.

Van der Merwe (1992:117) expands on the above by explaining that what makes individual departments perform within this complex and very demanding environment in which they as managers operate, is their personnel and not their sophisticated strategic plans, programmes, equipment and techniques. What makes these individual managers perform is the exercise of leadership from the top down, and the ability of departmental leaders at all levels to instill fundamental philosophical principles of responsible and ethical behaviour, to motivate and channel individual and group efforts, to communicate objectives and to promote an understanding of the department's role and purpose among all the personnel (See also Kassarian, 1992:27; Rautenbach, 1992:28; and Redman & Mathews, 1997:255).

To link the argument of public sector context allowing for alternative management competencies, Boyatzis' (1982:211) competency framework, as described in section 2.3 above, has been used to illustrate this difference in context and competency requirements between the private and public sectors. This is illustrated in Table 4 below:

Table 4: Differences Between Management Competencies in the Public and Private Sectors (adapted from Boyatzis, 1982:211)

PUBLIC SECTOR MANAGERS	PRIVATE SECTOR MANAGERS
<i>1. Goal and action management cluster</i>	
Concern with impact Diagnostic use of concepts Efficiency orientation Proactivity	Concern with impact Diagnostic use of concepts Efficiency orientation Proactivity
<i>2. Leadership cluster</i>	
Self-confidence Use of oral presentations	Conceptualisation Use of oral presentations
<i>3. Human resource management cluster</i>	
Managing group process Use of socialised power	Managing group process Use of socialised power

4. Directing subordinates cluster	
Use of unilateral power Spontaneity	
5. Focus on others cluster	
Stamina and adaptability	Perceptual objectivity Self-control Stamina and adaptability

What this differentiation between private and public sector management competencies illustrates is that in areas such as “goal and action management” and “human resource management”, there is little difference in the competencies required of either manager, while in the remaining areas of competence (leadership, directing subordinates and focus on others clusters) there is a clear difference in what is required of the public sector manager.

Bhatta (2001:197) takes these competency clusters as described by Boyatzis (above) and explains that governments in general have argued for the usage of competencies in the public sector by building on what currently exists in the private sector and enhancing it by incorporating environment-specific characteristics, such as political awareness, to suit existing conditions. Based on a case study of Dutch public managers, Noordegraaf (2000) made an attempt to contextualise the competencies of managers in the public sector by bundling the competencies related to professionalism into three strands: interpretive, institutional and textual. Bhatta (2001:197) agrees with these three strands but argues that they are based on actual rather than normative competencies in public managers.

An alternative method of comparing competencies available in the public sector is to analyse the competencies used in various countries. Bhatta (2001:194), made an analysis of five countries (United States of America; New Zealand, Australia, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom) while authors such as Hondeghem & Vandermeulen (2000:324) researched competencies for management in the Flemish and Dutch civil services.

Horton (2000:354) completed an alternative study involving competency management in the British civil service.

A summary of the results of such a comparison is illustrated below by Bhatta (2001:203):

Table 5: Comparison of Competencies across Countries (adapted from Bhatta, 2001:203)

	EMPHASIS ON COMPETENCY					
COMPETENCY	<i>Degree of prevalence</i>	<i>USA</i>	<i>New Zealand</i>	<i>Australia</i>	<i>Dutch</i>	<i>UK</i>
Team orientation	78%	▲▲▲				
Communication	65%	▲▲▲	▲▲▲	▲▲▲	▲▲▲	
Customer focus	65%	▲▲▲				
People management	58%	▲	▲▲▲	▲▲		
Results orientation	58%	▲▲▲	▲▲▲	▲▲▲	▲▲	▲▲▲
Problem-solving	55%	▲▲▲		▲▲	▲▲▲	
Planning & Organising	48%	▲		▲▲	▲▲▲	
Leadership	43%	▲▲	▲▲	▲▲	▲▲	▲▲▲
Business awareness	38%	▲▲▲	▲▲		▲▲	
Decision-making	35%	▲▲▲	▲	▲		
Technical skills	35%	▲▲▲	▲▲	▲▲		

- ▲ Scant emphasis
- ▲▲ Secondary (implied) emphasis
- ▲▲▲ Primary (specified) emphasis

The implication of this comparison of competencies across countries indicates that only two of the competency areas are prevalent in all countries, they are “results orientation” and “leadership”. In contrast, the

competency which is more prevalent in the organisations used in Bhatta's study, "team orientation" at 78%, is only strong in the USA. This is a curious result because work processes in the public sector have for some time tended to be oriented towards project work teams. In summary, this type of comparison indicates to the reader that management competencies, and the relative emphasis placed on management competencies, is very dependant on the context of the country in which they are being applied. This possible effect will be highlighted in sections 2.5 and 2.6 below which focus on the South African context of police management.

An alternative and important competency framework for the managers in the public sector was developed by Virtanen (2000:333). He bases his framework on the influence that New Public Management has had on the role and functioning of public managers in the last decade.

Virtanen's (2000:335) research and framework of competencies for public managers, is based on an analysis of previous research done on competency lists for public managers. He summarises various lists of previously researched competencies into the following 55 competencies for public managers: (see also Boyatzis (1982 items 1-11); Mintzberg (1975 items 12 - 22); Katz (1974 items 22-24); and Hart & Quinn (1992 items 6, 25, 27, 29).

Table 6: Competencies for Public Sector Managers (adapted from Virtanen, 2000:335)

1. Conceptualisation	23. Interpersonal skills	38. Influence decisions as lower levels
2. Managing group process	24. Understand whole organisation as a system	39. Make trade decisions and allocate resources
3. Concern with impact	25. Vision setter – basic purpose and direction	40. Building contextual competencies
4. Diagnostic use of concepts	26. Communicate where organisation will be in 20 years	41. Leadership
5. Efficiency orientation	27. Create values and trust	42. Human resource management
6. Proactivity		43. Promote creativity,
7. Self-confidence		
8. Perceptual objectivity		
9. Stamina and adaptability		

10. Building and maintaining a power base	to achieve vision	learning & innovation
11. Presenting ideas	28. Study emerging trends	44. Skills of remote management
12. Figurehead	29. Transfer intellectual output to service	45. Use of information technology as a transformative force
13. Leader – formal authority	30. Motivator	46. Managing complexity
14. Liaison with external & internal contacts	31. Emphasise organisation's values	47. Communication
15. Monitor	32. Create sense of excitement	48. Decision-making
16. Disseminator of information	33. Analyser – evaluate projects	49. Financial management
17. Spokesperson externally	34. Integrate conflicting perspectives	50. Management skills
18. Entrepreneurial	35. Questions staff	51. Technical background & experience
19. Disturbance handler	36. Task master – contribute knowledge	52. Credibility
20. Resource allocator	37. Focus on results	53. Autonomy
21. Negotiator – conflict resolver		54. Openness / trust
22. Use analytical techniques		55. Empathy and understanding

Virtanen (2000:335) explains that in today's public management environment, the qualifications that are expected of a manager are predominantly related to the doctrine of the New Public Management. These qualifications challenge the traditional competencies of public managers. He provides a framework of five competency areas to describe these competencies that are required of the "new" public manager. They are:

1. Task competence;
2. Professional competence in subject area;
3. Professional competence in administration;
4. Political competence; and
5. Ethical competence.

Task competence is the most concrete of the five areas. The criterion of task competence is performance. Goals and means are given in the public sector, and the task just has to be completed. The value competence is motivation (why?), while the instrumental competence here is abilities (how?). All other competence areas have impacts on social reality through

the interface of behaviour structured by this task competence. Without task competence “nothing happens”.

Professional competence of a public manager is two-fold. The manager has to be competent either in the substantive field of the line organisation or in the specific task field in the technostructure of the organisation. This professional competence is the competence in subject area. The value competence here is the control of the policy object as a societal phenomenon while the instrumental competence would be the know-how of the policy object of the particular field. The second component of this professional competence area states that the public manager needs to be competent in administration, as distinguished from policy and politics. Administration is understood here as the execution of a policy given by politicians. The value competence here is control of the policy programme, while the instrumental competence is the know-how of co-operation. The criterion of professional competence would be development in know-how of the following: policy object, policy programme and know-how of co-operation. Without professional competence there is no long-term quality improvement, although good task competence may lead to high productivity occasionally (Virtanen, 2000:335).

The logo of the University of Jyväskylä is centered in the background of the text. It features a shield with various heraldic symbols, including a cross and a crown, and is surrounded by a decorative border. Below the shield is a banner with the Latin motto "Pectus roboret cultus recti".

Political competence has to do with values and power. The ideology and interests of a public manager set the value competencies. They have effects on the creation and authorisation of the goals and means of a public policy. The instrumental competence is possession of power. This is derived from the power of the office and official authority, but it has to be maintained in day-to-day practice in order that it gives an opportunity to make real decisions. The criterion of political competence is legitimacy – acceptance by those who the constitution declares to have the sovereignty.

Ethical competence refers to conforming to moral values and moral norms that prevail in a culture. The value competence is morality (administrative morality). Ethical competence refers then to ethics proper that is not based on what is generally accepted but what is right. The instrumental

competence is argumentation, a process of reasoning in terms of ethics. The criterion of ethical competence is justification. Without ethical competence, public managers do use their political, professional or task competencies in the right way. The structure of these five competencies is illustrated below (Virtanen, 2000:337):

Table 7: Structure of Competencies (adapted from Virtanen, 2000:337)

Criterion of competence	Contingencies of public service	Value competence	Instrumental competence
Task Competence Performance	Given goals & means Use of instruments	Motivation	Abilities
Professional competence in subject area Development of the policy object	Known selection of means, implicit goals Formation of instruments out of resources	Control of the policy object	Know-how of the policy object
Professional competence in administration Development of policy execution	Specification of the policy goal Allocation of the resources	Control of the policy programme	Know-how of co-operation
Political competence Legitimacy	Creation & authorisation of the goal Creation & detachment of resources for goal	Ideology, interests	Possession of power
Ethical competence Justification	Acceptability of the goal Acceptability of the resources and their instrumentalisation	Morality	Argumentation

Comprehensive as many of the above-mentioned sets of public sector management competencies appear, they do not measure up to what Dror (1997:7) asserts are the attributes of the super-professional delta-type senior civil servant. Dror argues further in his research that the alpha-type senior civil servant gets his/her rank based on ascribed status (such as birth), the beta-type servant from the purchase of government positions, and the gamma-type from the professional merit-based system. The delta-type civil servant focuses on higher-order tasks, with managerial functions

being tended to by upgraded gamma-type officials. Dror (1997:11-18) describes the clusters of necessary knowledge and skills as going beyond the gamma-type and moving towards a super-professionalism which includes amongst others:

1. Deep understanding of social processes;
2. Understanding of institutions and their dynamics;
3. Familiarity with main policy issues with a focus on long-range perspectives;
4. Knowledge of decision-making realities; and
5. Possession of a good measure of value philosophy and ethical reasoning.

Taking these various sets of competency standards into account, Bhatta (2001:204) concludes by admitting that notions of competencies and competency frameworks are embedded with weaknesses. Often the emphasis is placed on competency “gaps” rather than on the competencies themselves. Other researchers including Dror (1997:22); Hondeghem & Vandermeulen (2000:342) and Horton (2000:354) agree that competency developers should be more aware of the implications of why managers are not able to develop themselves. Boyatzis (1982:143) argues that the “boiled frog” syndrome (that is not perceiving very gradual change) has stifled opportunities for managers in the public sector to develop themselves.

Specific leadership competencies for public sector managers have been researched by Bacon (1999:2). He purports that in both private and public sectors there is widespread recognition that leadership is a key ingredient (competency) in the recipe for creating an effective, responsive and value-creating organisation (Bacon, 1999:2). He argues in his paper that the public sector in particular has also developed an awareness of the critical importance of leadership in reshaping government to meet the needs of the 21st century. The challenge facing the public sector is how it can develop and nurture leaders given the unique constraints it faces in managing its human resources. These constraints include tight limits on executive and

managerial compensation, civil service hiring and career path structures, and the restrictions that political leaders may impose on the career service in selecting and grooming future leadership candidates. The remainder of Bacon's paper (1999:2) focuses on the practical steps that public sector organisations can take to develop and nurture future leaders from among those already in the civil service.

An interesting view is portrayed by Mintzberg (2000:123) on how to "model" the public manager for today's public sector environment. In particular, he and his colleagues Zussman and Smith (2000: 123) reveal that individuals with the traditional management skills such as finance, budgeting, resource allocation, cost control and risk management are actually in abundance in the market place. They describe the challenge as being rather to instill in these traditional managers the human element of management – teaching people to truly behave like managers. This challenge is further explained as developing new public management competencies such as leadership, communication, strategy, vision, ethical standards, accountability, citizen engagement, integrity and character.

With all of the various frameworks (as described in this section) that describe public sector management competencies, there is a clear recognition of the unique context of the public management environment. Through the various comparative and investigative studies that have been completed on competency assessments in the public sector, it is clear that there are slight variations in competencies per country and for the various levels of management within any given public sector organisation. For the purposes of this study, the framework of Virtanen (2000:337) will be used as a basis. His framework clusters competencies listed by various authors, into five areas namely:

1. Task competence;
2. Professional competence in subject area;
3. Professional competence in administration;
4. Political competence; and
5. Ethical competence.

The following section will define the competencies required for police management in general as part of the broader public management environment.

2.5 POLICE MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

Taking the fundamental public sector management competencies as outlined and categorised by Virtanen (2000:337) into account, the focus of this study must shift to police management-specific management competencies. The research focus needs to highlight which of all these general public management competencies are specifically required in a police management context.

General police management competencies are discussed by various authors (see Stumpke, 1996:23; Bradley *et al*, 1986:35; Fox *et al*, 1991:143; Lynch, 1978:32; and Reiner, 1998:12) and in most cases relate easily to general management competencies as described in the previous sections. In particular, the main categories of competency for police managers centre on the following:

-
1. Planning;
 2. Organising;
 3. Execution; and
 4. Outcomes.

It is important to explain at this point that management competencies are often confused with or used interchangeably with the concept of management functions. Management functions are generally used by authors to describe areas of responsibility of managers. Within each of these areas of responsibility, various management competencies, that are each very specific to the context of the job, are needed by the manager in order to fulfill the management function. It is then possible to have competencies listed for a particular manager that are also classifications for

a set of management functions. An example of this would be planning or organising as described above as police management competencies.

These management competencies are described below in relation to various police management and leadership competencies as set out by Reiner (1998: 14):

Table 8: Police Management and Leadership Competencies (adapted from Reiner, 1998:14)

CATEGORY	POLICE MANAGEMENT COMPETENCY	POLICE LEADERSHIP COMPETENCY
Planning	Planning and budgeting Setting goals Emphasis on shorter time frame Elimination of risks Emphasis on detail	Establishing direction as well as planning Creating short & long term vision Emphasis on the bigger picture Entrepreneurial strategies Take calculated risks Define the task
Organising	Organising and staffing Allocating resources Strong emphasis on specialization Staffing and matching people's needs	Aligning people accordingly Motivate people to enhance change Make resources available Emphasis on empowerment Understanding individual needs, team needs and the task at hand Communicating Risk-taking
Executing	Controlling and problem-solving Decision making Enforces compliance to rules Emphasis on containment Reactive Focus on administrative activities and is directive	Motivate and inspire others Emphasis on coping with change Focus on integration Emphasis on expansion Enthusiasm, integrity, fairness, humility, self-confidence Team builder Uses various styles Is accepted by followers Proactive and provides an example
Outcomes	Emphasis on predictability Produce constant results Does the right thing (effective) Strong management / bureaucratic culture Ordered planning system Managerial hierarchy	Emphasis on expansion Produce change Does things right (efficiency) Leadership style various according to culture Evaluating approach Superior performance

Based on the above description, Reynecke *et al* (2000:9) extend this list of competencies in a case study that was completed within the SAPS to determine the management competencies of the South African Narcotic Bureau (SANB). This case study project was known as the Operational

Management Competency Development Programme. Twelve management competencies formed the basis of their research. These management competencies are depicted below:

Table 9: Police Management Competencies (adapted from Reynecke, 2000:9)

STYLE	ADMINISTRATIVE “Managing your job / Task handling”	COMMUNICATION “Relating to others / People handling”	SUPERVISORY “Building the team / People handling”	COGNITIVE “Thinking clearly and analytically / Task handling”
Management style	Time management and prioritising	Listening and organising	Appraising people and performance	Identifying and solving problems
Interpersonal style	Setting goals and standards	Giving clear information	Disciplining and counseling	Making decisions and weighing risks
Communication style	Planning and scheduling work	Getting unbiased information	Training, coaching and delegating	Thinking clearly and analytically

Another perspective on the management competency profile of police managers comes from the work of Kriel (1992:12 – 13) in which he researches the management dimensions required for a Prison Governor as an operational middle-level manager within the security context. His work within the context of correctional services in South Africa can be compared to that of the police manager. His work identifies fourteen management dimensions:

Table 10: Management Dimensions for Middle Managers (adapted from the work of Kriel, 1992:13)

MANAGEMENT DIMENSIONS FOR MIDDLE MANAGERS		
Analytical ability	Delegation	Initiative
Judgment	Sensitivity	Tolerance for pressure & stress
Assertiveness	Leadership	Written communication
Planning & organising	Drive	Presentation
Control	Impact	

From the above, and taking the issues of cost-effectiveness of management development activities into account, Kriel (1992:12) further developed his management competencies and reduced the original fourteen to a set of eight critical management competencies. They are:

1. Analytical ability: The ability to obtain data from a variety of sources and to be able to compare and correlate this data in order to focus on what is relevant and to use this data to analyse and solve problems;
2. Judgment: The ability to make the best choice out of various alternative solutions, to apply insight in order reach logical conclusions;
3. Confidence: The willingness to take decisions to continue to actions, and to accept responsibility;
4. Planning and organising: The ability to set clear goals and to create practical plans, to mobilise resources and to coordinate the necessary activities;
5. Control: The ability to set procedures through which processes, tasks and/or activities of subordinates can be monitored and regulated, and to monitor the results of delegated instructions or projects;
6. Leadership: The ability to get ideas accepted and to lead individuals and groups to the achievement of set goals;
7. Drive: The ability to tackle and complete a task with enthusiasm and direction in spite of problems that are experienced; and
8. Tolerance of stress and pressure: The ability to work through negativity and work stress without disturbing work productivity.

These eight critical competencies for managers in security environments (such as correctional services and the SAPS) are used to develop managers and to ensure that they have the necessary knowledge, skills and aptitudes (competencies) to successfully fill their posts as managers. In addition, Kriel (1992:13) states that these eight competencies can also be used in the identification of potential managers, as well as for competency

evaluation and promotion, while modules in these management dimensions can be developed for the training of such managers.

Stumpke (1996:23) takes the ideas collected by Kriel and other authors on police management and explains that the SAPS is a labour intensive organisation in which managers, especially middle managers, need to focus their attention on human resource opportunities in an attempt to improve harmony, efficiency and effectiveness. People-related issues form a substantial part of the police manager's daily routine. Noting that any competency is made up of knowledge, skills and aptitude, Stumpke (1996:25) differentiates between three types of police management skills:

1. Functional skills;
2. People management skills; and
3. Conceptual skills.

These three areas of skill, combined with the relevant knowledge and aptitude for the job, will combine to build the required management competency in the SAPS.

These three areas of skill for police managers are essential for effective management anywhere in the SAPS, but the relative importance is largely dependant on the specific post that the manager fills. The following diagram (Kroon, 1995:17) illustrates this point for the various levels of management within SAPS:

Table 11: Importance of Management Skills at Various Levels in SAPS
(adapted from Kroon in Stumpke, 1996:25)

MANAGEMENT LEVELS	MANAGEMENT SKILLS		
	Technical	People	Conceptual
Top	8%	42%	50%
Middle	22%	50%	28%
Low	42%	50%	8%

Stumpke describes the relationships between the management levels, the rank and the post levels within SAPS as follows:

Table 12: Relations between Management Level and Rank in SAPS
(adapted from Stumpke, 1996:27)

Rank Linkage	Management Level	Post Level
Commissioner Deputy Commissioner Director	Top Management	Commissioner Director General Chief Director
Deputy Director Senior Superintendent	Senior Management	Deputy Commissioner Provincial Commissioner
Superintendent Captain	Middle-level Management	Commanders Area Commanders Station Managers
Inspector Sergeant	Junior/Supervisory Management	Branch Commanders Sections Heads CSS Commander Shift Commanders
Constable	None	Member

In his research, Stumpke (1996: 22 – 25) did not include the extension of these listed management skills into the perspective of management competencies. The skills that he described, and as highlighted above, are only a component of the complete management development process in the SAPS.

In order to attempt to put these management skills into the context of management competencies, the various perspectives on police management functions, skills and competencies are collected in the table below as a complete set of competencies from which to work.

Table 13: Police Management Competencies (adapted from Reiner, 1998:14; Reynecke *et al*, 2000:9 and Kriel, 1998:12)

Competency Category	POLICE MANAGEMENT COMPETENCY	
Planning	Planning and scheduling Setting goals and standards Budgetary planning Ability to manage on shorter time frame Risk management Giving attention to detail	Establishing direction as well as planning Setting short- & long-term vision Ability to focus on bigger picture Entrepreneurial strategist Define the task Analytical ability Conceptual ability
Organising	Ability to co-ordinate activities Allocating resources Strong ability to specialise	Aligning people to strategy Motivate people to enhance change Make resources available

	Staffing and matching people's needs Time management Ability to prioritize Listening and organizing Thinking clearly and analytically	Emphasis on empowerment Understanding individual needs, team needs and the task at hand Communicating Risk-taking
Executing	Identify and solve problems Decision-making Ability to enforce compliance to rules Emphasis on containment Reactive and proactive focus Administrative ability Give clear information Discipline and counsel staff Clear judgment	Motivate and inspire others Emphasis on coping with change Focus on integration Emphasis on expansion Enthusiasm, integrity, fairness, humility, self-confidence Team-builder Train and coach staff Delegation
Control & Evaluation	Produce constant results Do the right thing (effective) Develop ordered systems Understand and work in managerial hierarchy Obtain unbiased information Appraise people and performance	Emphasis on expansion Produce change Do things right (efficiency) Leadership style various according to culture Evaluating approach Superior performance

From the above frameworks of police management competencies, it is clear that there are many generic competencies from the private sector and from the various public sector competency frameworks as discussed previously in this chapter, that relate directly to the context and competency demands of the SAPS. From this generic profile of police management competencies, the challenging context of the station manager needs analysis. The following section analyses the competencies as required for the post of station manager within the SAPS.

2.6 STATION LEVEL MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

Within the context of this research process, generic management competencies for managers in public sector contexts have been discussed, specific police management competencies have been compared and analysed. The specific management competencies of station level managers in the SAPS will now be highlighted. In order to understand the management competencies of a station manager within the SAPS, it is important to understand the organisational structure of the SAPS within which the station manager operates. Illustrated below are the levels at which the managers operate within SAPS:

Figure 7: Levels of Operation in SAPS

From the above it is clear that the station manager operates at a level between the community and the “Head Office” level which starts with the Area Management. As such, the station manager operates in an organisational environment that is highly pressured from both above (Area level) and below (the community). This is a unique and challenging environment in which to manage.

Station managers in the SAPS have a specific position within the organisational structure and as such have specific roles and responsibilities to fulfill. The structure of the management team at a police station is illustrated below:

Figure 8: Structure of the Management Team at Station Level

According to the job description of a Station Commissioner (SAPS Job Description, 2003:1-15) the station post with the title of “Station Commissioner” (station manager) begins at the post level/rank level of Captain and can go up to the post level/rank of Director, depending on the size and grading of the particular station. In terms of the position in the hierarchy, the station manager is directly accountable to the Area Commissioner. The purpose of the post of station manager is to ensure a safe and secure environment in the station’s area. The specific functions of the post, according to the SAPS job description, are to:

1. Establish and maintain a crime prevention and detective service;
2. Develop and implement an operational plan for the station;
3. Institutionalisation of the vision, mission and values of the SAPS;
4. The management of all police resources (physical/human) at station level;
5. Establishment of and participation with Community Police Forums in terms of section 221(1) and (2) of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) and the Police Service Act (Act 68 of 1995); and
6. Institutionalisation of Community Policing in the station area.

The station post with the title of “Assistant Station Commissioner” (Assistant station manager) starts with the post level/rant of Captain and extending the post level/rank of Superintendent, depending on the size and grading of the particular station (SAPS Job Description, 2003:1-15). In terms of the position in the hierarchy, the assistant station manager is directly accountable to the station manager. The purpose of the post of assistant station manager is to assist the station manager in ensuring a safe and secure environment in the station’s area. The specific functions of the post, according to the SAPS job description, are to:

1. Operational Function: Ensure that crime prevention and crime investigation takes place at the station;
2. Support Function: To ensure that the resources of the station are managed properly (human / physical); and

3. Community Police Forums: Ensure that a Community Police Forum is established in terms of sections 22(1) and (2) of the Constitution, 1996 and the Police Service Act, 1995.

A description of the requirements (internal SAPS advertisement) to apply for the position of station manager is the following, “Applicants must have proven managerial experience in the field of the post, fluency in at least two of the official languages, of which one must be English and a valid code 08 driver’s license. A recognised degree or equivalent qualification which is applicable to the post in question will be a recommendation. Applications must display competency in the following core functions: Develop community-based policing; effective and efficient prevention, investigation, combating and management of crime within the service area of the station; manage all police resources at station level, including human resources, logistical and financial resources and administrative services; evaluation of service delivery by personnel of the station; serve on the Management Board of the Area to develop strategies for all the above; management of Policing Priorities and Objectives at station level; and take responsibility and be accountable for the implementation of the Service Delivery Improvement Programme (SDIP).”

The key performance areas for the position of station manager, as contained in the official job description, include the following:

1. Ensure a safe, secure, peaceful and stable environment for the citizens of the station’s area;
2. Manage the provision of policing services in the police station area including operational response, satellite police station and patrolling;
3. Manage the formulation and development of community policing services;
4. Manage and control all physical and human resources on the station;
5. Effective management of crime intelligence, investigation of crime and data integrity; and

6. Execute overall management of buildings and premises.

It is important to note here that according to the PEP (Performance Enhancement Process of SAPS) documentation for the position of station manager, the position of station manager within the SAPS has two sets of customers to whom he/she must deliver the above services:

1. Primary customers: Community of the station area; and
2. Secondary customers: SAPS Management (Area level and above).

In order to deliver to both sets of customers, a comprehensive performance enhancement process and plan is created and managed for each station manager. This performance plan documents each key performance area and lists various performance indicators against which the incumbent's performance will be measured. This is attached as Annexure 1 for review.

With the above-mentioned job description of the station manager in mind, a learning needs analysis was completed by "Convergent Ideas" in 2000, a research company commissioned by SAPS to determine training needs of station managers. In particular, the following learning needs (competency areas) were identified by Convergent Ideas as essential for station managers:

1. Problem solving and lateral thinking skills;
2. Essential management skills (including delegation and performance management);
3. Manager as coach skills (developing and supporting staff);
4. People Management skills;
5. Communication skills;
6. Conflict Management skills;
7. Leadership skills;
8. Organisational Development skills;
9. Judgment ability;
10. Procedure administration (adapting and addressing);
11. Information processing and recall;
12. Planning and problem-solving;

13. Financial management;
14. Planning and anticipating; and
15. Self-management (stress, time and work management).

These learning needs link directly to the competencies required of the person filling the position of station manager and need to be addressed and enhanced by the various management development programmes available to these managers.

According to Senior Superintendent Johan Bean (Provincial Training Head: Northern Cape) in addition to the above competency areas of the station manager, a more recent (2001 onwards) specific emphasis has been placed on the competency of performance management within the station environment. This is a relatively new area of competence for the station manager and refers to both organisational and individual performance management processes. In particular, the “Performance Enhancement Programme” (PEP) has been established and requires the station manager to link effectiveness, efficiency, productivity, resource utilisation and quality in the measurement of each individual member at the station. This PEP programme requires of the station manager to measure individual performance of members based on five core elements, namely:

1. Determine the vision, mission and values of the station (in alignment with the SAPS);
2. Develop strategy that is client (internal and external) focused;
3. Develop objectives to meet member/community needs;
4. Communicate the vision, mission, values and objectives to members; and
5. Develop individual performance measurements that align the members to each activity and project at the station.

Part of this process requires of the station manager to now take over specific human resource management responsibilities related to performance management. One of these is the completion of a job description for each member at the station (a guide is provided for the

manager). Included in this new format job description is an area entitled “key performance areas of the post” and entails the linkage of station level objectives to individual areas of performance. Key performance indicators are then set, in conjunction with the member, for each of these key performance areas. These indicators need to be monitored and measured regularly throughout the year (quarterly) in order to arrive at an annual final measurement.

In addition to this PEP process, the station manager is also required to implement a new system of “Performance Charting” which relates directly to organisational performance management. The current “SDIP” (Service Delivery Improvement Programme) has been linked to system of indicator measurement at national level. This new method of “Performance Charting” has been piloted by the SAPS in the Eastern Cape Province and is now in the process of being implemented in the other provinces. As such, not all station managers are yet aware of, or trained in, this system of organisational performance management. According to Director Wynand Viljoen (Provincial Head of Management Services: Western Cape), this system has been initiated in a key station in the Western Cape (2002/2003). This new system will require of station managers to:

1. Understand the concept of and processes involved in organisational performance management;
2. Be able to link the current SDIP format of planning to the new Performance Chart methodology;
3. Be able to set organisational key performance areas;
4. To link these areas to pre-set national indicators;
5. Measure the progress of the station, through computer technology, on a weekly basis; and
6. Be able to translate these measurements into meaningful reports and adjustments within the SAPS systems.

Both of the above-mentioned performance related programmes that are currently being implemented within the SAPS, will have implications as to the management competencies required of station managers, and need to

be included in their job descriptions, performance contracts and management development programmes.

In summary, the researcher has combined the various competencies profiles (manager, public sector manager, police manager and station manager), job profile information, competency areas and learning needs as discussed in this chapter, in order to compile a comprehensive station management competency profile for stations managers within the SAPS.

In this table, the competency category is representative of the management function of the station manager and the station management competency is a list of specific, related and supporting management competencies that make up the competency category.

Table 14: Station Management Competencies (compiled by the researcher)

Competency Category	STATION MANAGEMENT COMPETENCY	
Planning	Ability to develop an operational plan for the station Ability to plan & schedule community participation Ability to set clear & measurable goals & standards Ability to budget for station Ability to manage on shorter time frame (under pressure) Ability to manage risks Ability to focus on detail	Ability to establishing direction (drive) Ability to set short- & long-term vision for station Ability to focus on bigger picture Ability to be entrepreneurial and strategic Ability to define the task Ability to be analytical Ability to think conceptually Ability to solve problems and think laterally
Organising	Ability to co-ordinate activities Ability to allocating resources Strong ability to specialise (focus) Ability to institutionalise community policing in station area Ability to match people's needs to tasks at station level Time management Ability to prioritise Ability to listen and organise	Ability to align people to strategy Ability to motivate people to enhance change Ability to make resources available Ability to empower others Ability to understand individual needs, team needs and the task at hand Well-developed communication ability Ability to delegate effectively Procedural & administrative skills Information processing skills
Executing	Ability to implement the operation plan of the station	Ability to motivate and inspire others Ability to cope with change

	Ability to establish & maintain a crime prevention and detective service at the station Ability to institutionalise the vision and mission of SAPS at station level Ability to establish a community police forum at station Ability to identify and solve problems Well-developed decision making skills Ability to enforce compliance of rules Administrative ability	Ability to integrate activities Ability to be enthusiastic Ability to show integrity, fairness, humility, and self-confidence Team-building skills Ability to train and coach staff Ability to manage conflict Strong leadership skills Self-discipline and self-management skills Discipline and counsel staff Clear judgment skills
Control & Evaluation	Ability to produce constant results Ability to be effective (do the right things) Ability to develop ordered systems Ability to understand and work in managerial hierarchy Ability to obtain unbiased information Ability to appraise people and performance	Performance management skills at individual and station level Ability to produce change Ability to be efficient (do things right) Ability to be a transformational Leader Ability to maintain an evaluative approach Sound judgment ability

This comprehensive set of competencies for station managers within the SAPS is divided into four management competency categories as adapted from Reiner (1998:14) and complemented with the generic public sector management competencies as analysed by Virtanen (2000:337). Specific SAPS documentation related to the position of station manager was then blended into the framework to provide a comprehensive list of competencies for public sector, middle managers in the SAPS. With this comprehensive framework of station level management competencies from which to work, the current profile of station managers within the SAPS and the related management development interventions that are available can be compared and the possible impact of such management development interventions can then be measured.

2.7 CONCLUSION

Through a combination of various knowledge, skill and aptitude comparisons, this chapter has described, compared and tabled various management competencies. Firstly, general management competencies for middle managers were discussed and aligned to organisational context

and personal ability. Then, specific competencies for public sector managers were tabled by comparing the models and surveys of both international and local researchers. Specific police management competencies were then derived from the context of the middle manager within a policing environment as part of the public sector. Lastly, a comparable list of station level management competencies were collated from the above lists and by taking the specific environment of the station manager, within the SAPS, into account.

With this final derived list of management competencies for station managers, the way forward for this research is opened as the current station managers within the SAPS can now be measured against these in order to determine the possible effect of management development programmes within SAPS in developing and improving the ability of the station manager to perform.

Before this research can measure the possible effect of management development programmes, these programmes need to be reviewed, defined and compared in order to ascertain their particular utility and possible impact on management performance. The following chapter will do just this. Chapter 3 will focus on defining, describing and comparing management development as a process and a tool to enhance management competence. Specific reference will be made in chapter 3 to management development models and processes. The role of management capacity within middle management will be explained and the competency-based approach to management will be described. Lastly, training as a possible management development intervention will be linked to the competency of managers.

CHAPTER 3

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT AS A TOOL FOR ENHANCING MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the various required management competencies for public sector managers. The context of public sector management, specifically at middle-level, provided the foundation for the comparison of competency lists of various authors, into a list of public sector management competencies. Further to this, a list of police management competencies was derived from studying and collating a variety of literature and various models. Finally, a list of station level management competencies was provided so as to form the basis for the evaluation of current management competencies of middle-level managers in the SAPS. This chapter will expand on the issue of competencies in terms of their role in the process of management development. Specifically, the research objectives of this chapter are to:

1. Define and explain the purpose and processes involved in management development;
2. Explore and compare various models of management development in both the private and public sectors;
3. Define and contextualise management capacity as a both a component of, and output of, the process of management development;
4. Clarify competency-based approaches to management development; and
5. Clarify the role of training as a tool for effective management development.

From the information presented and collated in this chapter, a link can be made to the current reality of the SAPS in terms of its current management development structure and processes in order to measure the possible impact of management development programmes on building on and improving the competency of station level managers in the SAPS.

3.2 MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

Executives frequently say, “Show me the business case for the efforts of management practices that put people first on organisational performance. And by the way, don’t just give me anecdotes specifically selected to make some point. Show me the evidence” (Pfeffer, 1998:31). It is therefore very important to recognise at the outset that effective management is not the sole basis for competitive success and service delivery, nor, obviously, does variation in management practices by itself account for all the variations in organisational performance, even in situations where it is important. Under some conditions, however, managing people effectively becomes relatively more important in understanding variations in organisational performance.

MacDuffie (1995:199) points out that innovative human resource practices are likely to contribute to improved economic performance only when three conditions are met: when employees possess knowledge and skills that managers lack; when employees are motivated to apply this skill and knowledge through discretionary effort; and when the organisation’s business strategy can only be achieved when employees contribute such discretionary effort. It is understandable that the amount of discretionary effort that people contribute is in itself affected by the management practices they experience; obtaining discretionary effort is customarily important; and the people typically have some knowledge or skills needed by the organisation (Pfeffer, 1998:32). These conditions help us to understand when effective people management will be a more or less important determinant of organisational performance.

In order therefore to effectively build the capacity of managers to manage, which would have a direct influence on the organisational performance, it is essential that managers are developed properly through an organisational programme of training and support. Innovative human resource practices, as mentioned above, will go a long way in providing an environment in

which employees, and especially the managers amongst them, are motivated and able to release their knowledge, skills and aptitudes into the organisational environment to once again increase the organisation's overall performance.

Dale & Iles (1996:52) tell us further that "newish" initiatives are being taken which are aimed at creating a cadre of professional managers, but that these initiatives involve more than the application of a set of managerial principles and techniques. Effective initiatives for managers involve skills that can be acquired, developed and practiced. The ways in which management skills are assessed and potential identified therefore become even more critical. The risk of making bad appointments is now too great. Slimmed-down organisations needing to achieve high levels of performance, the authors explain, cannot afford to carry passengers (Dale & Iles, 1996:53) (See also Franzen & Hardaker, 1994:34 and Margerison, 1991:12).

Management development programmes are therefore essential in order to alleviate "bad management" problems experienced by organisations. What then, is management development?

Management development at the personal level is defined by Margerison (1991:3) as "a process by which you and the others gain the skills and abilities to manage yourself and others". Management development is therefore a personal responsibility. At the organisational level, Margerison (1991:3) describes management development as a process involving all the issues listed on the continuum above, but that it entails more than just those issues. Management development at the organisational level is a way of doing business. It is almost a way of life in which challenges are faced each day and confronted as learning opportunities rather than just a necessity for paying costs and raising revenue. Management development is therefore the way business is conducted, and not something separate to be done when there is not other important work. In short, Margerison (1991:3) tells us that management development is a learning process

applied to all aspects of work from recruitment and selection, through to delivery of the service or product.

It becomes evident now that management development is real work, and not a preparation for work. Management development therefore is an integrated approach to improving individual, team and organisational performance. It is not just a training course, a compensation system or a good performance review system.

Management development, like all aspects of management, requires careful planning. It deals with the whole issue of what managing is about, and covers everything from recruitment and selection to self-development as shown by Margerison (1991:2) below:

Figure 9: What Managing is All About (adapted from Margerison, 1992:2)

The manager's task, according to Parry (1997:122), is to achieve results in a planned, systematic way. This can only be done if those managers feel confident and are trained to do the job across the continuum.

Dale & Iles (1996:61) combine the above to explain that management development is the basis of all effective management. One needs to look at business objectives and recruit people who can do the job. Once they have employed them, one should induct and train them effectively so that they are competent. One must then manage them on a day to day basis so they are motivated and able to do the job effectively. In addition, Reyna & Sims

(1995:53) state that the process needs to be put into timetables so that it is not conducted on an ad hoc basis.

All managers, according to Boydell & Pedler (1981:57), need to have management development at the centre of their agenda. The authors continue by providing key factors that can be identified when the manager discovers that he/she and the organisation are off-track and not working:

1. There are low energy levels and little direction among senior managers;
2. There is not a shared vision of the mission and the objectives of the organisation;
3. The emphasis is all about solving today's problems rather than preparing for tomorrow;
4. There is no concentration between training and business goals;
5. There is low concern with individual development;
6. There are no systems to review performance and other ways and means of improvement; and
7. The culture is more concerned with using people rather than developing them.

These are all common syndromes associated with organisations that may be running hard and playing hard, but not caring too much that they exhaust the players in the process, and there is not yet any development to bring in a second or third team of players. Margerison (1991:33) explains that in order to avoid the above, any management development programme should start by involving the managers themselves and discussing their own needs and how they can best be satisfied. Increasingly, managers are looking for development opportunities as an integral part of their job. It is therefore vital that management development is seen as an integral part of work, rather than something that is added on.

In the public as well as private sectors, managers are asked to participate in many kinds of management development training. The emphasis of this

training according to Reyna & Sims (1995:53), is particularly pronounced when one simply looks at the number of training advertisements which pass through a typical human resource management department. Because of direct and indirect training costs, employee retention and quality of training issues, public sector agencies should be seriously concerned with the effectiveness and success of such management development training initiatives.

Too much training may actually impede rather than invigorate robust organisational health. Training which has a clear purpose and both short and long-term deliverables is important for all organisations. Economic constraints and internal budgetary controls on training during financial stress, increase the emphasis organisations must make on implementing management development training which meets their needs.

Many public sector organisations have implemented the use of employee development plans for all categories of employees. The impetus for the implementation of individual development plans is difficult to pinpoint because they have been used for a variety of purposes (Kochanski, 1997:41). Employee development plans can be viewed, according to Reyna & Sims (1995:53), as yet another tool to facilitate career development and enhance the quality of training. These authors continue by explaining that similar plans for management development include career development systems, individual counseling, management workshops, career information centers, career ladders, assessment and testing centers, skills inventories, job rotation and mentoring,

Despite the increased frequency of management development efforts, many do not include a process of needs assessment (Reyna & Sims, 1995:54). With this in mind, these authors present a framework that public sector organisations can avail themselves of in order to increase both the effectiveness and success of their management development efforts. This framework is what is commonly known as individual management

development plans (IMDP). The benefits of such an approach appear to be many, and include the following (Kochanski, 1997:41 – 42):

1. Developing a manager's capabilities is consistent with human resource policy of promoting and developing managers from within. Management development is important in the career-development system.
2. IMDPs enable a manager to acquire the knowledge, skills and abilities needed for promotion to higher-level positions. It eases the transition from an employee's present job to one involving greater career responsibilities.
3. IMDPs assist in employee retention and morale development. Those public sector organisations which fail to provide such individualised development efforts often lose their most promising employees. Frustrated with the lack of opportunity, achievement-oriented employees often seek employment with other agencies outside of government that provide more incentive with individual development and training for career advancement.
4. IMDP efforts can increase an employee's level of commitment to the organisation and improve perceptions that the organisation is a good place to work. By developing and promoting trained employees, public sector organisations create a competent, motivated and satisfied work force.
5. Rather than the traditional training given in management development programmes, IMDPs provide the employer and employee with a systemic long-term plan for employee development.

With the above benefits of management development programmes in mind, it becomes clear that organisations need to take their strategic role and outcomes into account through policy and practice. A commitment to employee development at all levels of government has been expressed in public policy documents and resource allocations. Thus, acquiring state-of-

the-art training and development for government personnel is a shared concern by many leaders in the public sector. There is then, an expectation that the development of such executive systems of management, can contribute significantly to increased efficiency and effectiveness in government.

An emerging focus of training and development programmes in government, concerns a previously neglected level of management – the first-line manager or supervisor. Training and development programmes designed to teach basic supervisory and management skills to these new managers have become institutionalised in many public sector organisations (Kochanski, 1997:41 – 42). Besides developing new attitudes about the management role and leadership skills, special supervisory job knowledge skills are stressed.

Reyna & Sims (1995:57 - 60) describe the management development programmes at various governmental levels in the United States of America. In particular, it can be noted that training and development has received increased attention, but is not yet compulsory for managers to participate. In fact there are no penalties for non-compliance as it is felt that public pressure will ensure participation. Training appears to be widely accepted by officials and compliance is not expected to be a problem. The general goals of such management development training are described by Wiseman (1989:89-98) as:

1. To improve internal governmental operations such as purchasing administration, personnel administration, budgeting and labour utilisation;
2. To create an awareness of innovation in management and service delivery techniques and to eliminate resistance to adoption of some of this innovation;
3. To foster a climate for interchange of ideas with similar units of government;

4. To create an awareness of the organisation's role in governmental operations at other levels and of the opportunities available from interaction with these other levels; and
5. To produce an awareness of the linkage between increased professionalism and the ability to deliver more and better constituent services.

These programmes are based on experiential learning and work to ensure an effective, efficient and responsive local government organisation by improving the performance of managers to develop with the organisation as it changes and grows. It also strives to improve overall competence and encourage supervisory growth to prepare these individuals for increasing responsibility so that management succession planning can occur. Reyna & Sims (1995:58) comment that the intent of most management training and development programmes at the local government level is to aid agencies and its employees in "bringing about constructive change in the organisation's current operation" so that it can increase the level of productivity and thereby enhance its responsiveness to the needs and demands of its employees and citizenry.

A more formalised and standardised approach at developing and selecting management personnel has evolved as this process to develop and select managers is critical to government's response to these challenges. The process suggested by Reyna & Sims (1995:59 – 60) is unique for several reasons:

1. It is tailored and based on an analysis of an actual manager's job;
2. It provides managerial candidates with information about the expectations of the manager's job;
3. It provides managerial candidates with a developmental assessment of their own skills and abilities;
4. It serves as a tool where managerial candidates can compare their expectations with their host agencies expectations for a manager; and

5. It documents an individualised management development plan for each managerial candidate.

The IMDP is therefore a systematic process designed to solicit and identify potential managers within the public sector. It is a process where a managerial candidate makes a commitment towards acquiring the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities to become a manager. And, it is a process where the organisation makes a commitment towards providing the candidate with a means of identifying and developing his/her skills.

Reyna & Sims (1995:59) state that a key ingredient of the IMDP is the standardisation of events. This means that every managerial candidate must participate in the same kinds of activities as every other candidate to be considered for a managerial position. Continual training and development efforts offer a wide variety of opportunities to government employees, including increasing commitment of staff to professionalism, its role in the decision-making process and its understanding of the political environment (Reyna & Sims, 1995:53). Within this evolving emphasis on developing the manager and enhancing his/her ability to perform, the question must be asked: “What then is this ‘thing’ called management capacity and how do you develop it within the relevant organisational context?”

3.3 MANAGEMENT CAPACITY

Different organisational design characteristics are emerging which impact on the role and functioning of the manager. Birkett (1992:58 - 59) and other writers (see also Boyatzis, 1982: 37 – 62; Cannon, 1995:125 – 136; and HSRC, 1995:37) explain that there are various approaches to understanding how the role of the manager and the management capacity that he/she needs is to be understood in term of today's global organisational culture. Within each of the approaches which will follow, there are certain important competencies to master which are necessary in

order for the organisation, the manager and the individual to master to remain successful.

One approach, as described by Terry (1996:101), involves the core work force, the casual work force and the specialists that support the core. In this approach, managers are not simply concerned with the management of full-time employees, but have to contend with a variety of working and contractual arrangements. See Figure 10 below.

Figure 10: Work Force Division according to Terry (1996:101)

In terms of the inverted pyramid approach as explained by Weightman (1995:42 – 45), the role of management becomes one of providing or facilitating the conditions necessary to enable empowered operators to function effectively and provide quality products and services to customers (see Figure 11 below).

Figure 11: The Inverted Pyramid Approach by Weightman (1995: 42)

Another approach to understanding the management capacity that is needed in organisations today, is the self-directed, high-performance team approach. This approach is described by many writers (see Cannon, 1995:48; Holmes & Joyce, 1993:47; Lado & Wilson, 1994: 721 and Stalk et al, 1992:28) as a move away from the traditional hierarchical structures to organisations in which the centrality of the manager shifts according to the necessity of teams. The manager is described in the following positions:

1. The manager has full responsibility;
2. The manager is in a central role;
3. The manager is in a sharing role; and
4. The manager is in an advisory support role.

In each of the above possible situations, the manager in any organisation will have to demonstrate certain important competencies in order to successfully portray the position that he/she is taking on. Terry (1996:105) continues with this thought as he states that “the actual process of management is contextual, and therefore different competencies will be required in different contexts.”

Brown (1993:25-36) continues to describe management capacity as “an underlying characteristic of a manager that if used effectively, leads to

effective managerial behavior.” His research at the American Management Association (AMA) delivered the following five clusters combining to form management capacity:

1. Goal and action management;
2. Leadership;
3. Human resource management;
4. Directing subordinates; and
5. Focus on others.

The AMA also proposes a series of steps that they suggest will enable organisations to build capacity in their management in terms of the clusters listed above (Brown, 1993:37 and Terry, 1996:110). These steps include:

1. Recognition: Awareness of the competence when one sees it.
2. Understanding: Discovering how the competence levels link to managerial performance.
3. Assessment: Measurement to determine the degree of command of competence.
4. Experimentation: Exploring new behaviours.
5. Practice: Using the competence in the work setting.
6. Application: Consistent use of the competence on the job in ways which are appropriate to the context.

Brown (1993:34 – 36) and Terry (1996:110 – 112) (see also Cannon, 1995:133 – 135 and Weightman, 1995:112-114) continue to explain a further approach to instilling a management capacity on the organisation at the required levels. This approach is based on the American Assembly of Collegiate School of Business (AACSB). This approach groups competency into two broad categories: (1) content and (2) skills and personal characteristics. They explain that in order to have full management capacity at any level of management in the organisation, both these categories need to be developed through a comprehensive management development programme.

This approach supports the view held by many writers that management is multi-functional and is concerned with the orchestration of many professions. Successful management is underpinned by a variety of individual expertise, skills and aptitudes that are not always easily measured of which most apply to personal effectiveness in a modern economic system and not only to management.

Management capacity is therefore made up of a variety of individual competencies that form part of the core competencies of the organisation, taking into consideration the unique context and industry of that particular organisation (Terry, 1996:112). These individual competencies can be characterised as vocational or managerial; either way, they need to be measurable in order to build them into the capacity of each individual manager.

In the final analysis, whichever method is chosen or adapted to approach managerial capacity, its usefulness will depend on the ability of individuals and organisations to apply it to meet their own goals and strategies. For managers at any level to achieve organisation goals and to understand and drive strategy, they must have the ability or capacity to deliver in each focus area of their position. This capacity to be able to utilise one's own competencies for the benefit of the individual and the organisation, must be taught to managers through a variety of experiential techniques that create the opportunity for them to practice, fail, practice, fail and practice again until they master each necessary core competency.

3.4 IMPLEMENTING A COMPETENCY-BASED APPROACH TO MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

Many South African companies, parastatal and public sector organisations are questioning the ability of their current management to lead them effectively through the 21st century. Competency-based management (CBM), according to Kochanski (1997:41), is an approach that reduces complexity, adds capacity and increases overall capability. CBM involves

identifying the competencies that distinguish high performers from average performers. It condenses core competencies from the complex web of roles, responsibilities, goals, skills, knowledge, and abilities that determine an employee's effectiveness. The competencies form the foundation for selection, learning, rewards, and other aspects of employee management. CBM also supports such imperatives as speed-to-market, customer satisfaction, flexibility and employee's control of their careers and personal lives

Most managers do not appear to have the time or mandate to be responsible to develop their employees (Kochanski, 1997:42). It does not help the situation then, when well-meaning administrators ask managers to fill out appraisal and development forms. The thinking is therefore that employees are bound to be effective if they're assessed and trained properly and if their job responsibilities and skills are clearly documented.

This then would appear to require a huge control centre, rigid job descriptions and would be counter to the reality of constant change within organisations and the need therefore for greater flexibility and less hierarchy. Instead, it can be said that organisations need broad roles that encourage fewer boundaries. Instead of narrow skills, employees should strive for broad skills that increase their flexibility and speed and that lessen the need for managers to coordinate work.

The answer, according to Kochanski (1997:42), is not to hire more people and work harder. That strains the organisation with already stretched capacity. But even in chaos, Kochanski (1997:42) continues, there are patterns of order, though they're sometimes hard to see. Such patterns are evident through the repeated actions of the most effective employees. CBM can shed light on orderly patterns in the behaviour and development of employees.

On the surface, CBM looks much like traditional people management with programmes for hiring, evaluating, developing and evaluating employees.

According to Quinn (1998:33) CBM differs from other management approaches in that it involves these elements:

1. A carefully defined strategic direction for the overall capacity of an organisation;
2. Clearly articulated descriptions of the individual competencies that distinguish high performance; and
3. Simplified management and Human Resource Development (HRD) programmes aimed at reinforcing the identified competencies.

CBM provides a simple, explainable, high-leverage, employee-controlled way to improve performance. It also requires less maintenance than traditional approaches because the competencies stand up longer than practices grounded in the details of current organisational priorities. CBM can also spur strategic change (See Kochanski, 1997:44 and Quin, 1988: 34 and Talbot, 1995:16).

In order to link this CBM approach to HRD functions within any organisation, there are various tools that can be utilised. Kochanski (1997:43) suggests the following:

1. Descriptions of competencies in different levels of detail, including the use of audio and video versions;
2. Assessment and feedback tools, including self-assessment, management appraisal and 360 feedback;
3. Guides for creating development plans;
4. Development ideas mapped to the competencies;
5. Career-planning guides;
6. Action-learning programmes;
7. Training mapped to the competencies;
8. A competency-based pay structure; and
9. Recruitment and selection systems.

An organisation can therefore develop its own tools by adapting current tools to fit the model of competency management that they choose to use.

To facilitate the culture change, the tools should be accessible to all employees.

Particular problems that could be experienced when implementing a system of CBM in an organisation are listed and discussed by various authors (see Herbst, 1998:31; Kochanski, 1997:44 and Dalton, 1997:47). They include:

1. Managers won't use it: Some managers retain power and control over employees by using their own factors (or biases) to evaluate employees.
2. Managers overuse it: Managers could become tyrannical in their use of competencies, especially to evaluate employees.
3. People made it up: A frequent occurrence in organisations is that managers get together and just make up a list of competencies. This appears to expedite the process, but is often rather a way of ensuring one's own input into a model. This is inconsistent with the shift away from management control and bias.
4. People fear the competencies: Competencies are often seen as being used to justify decisions to fire, demote, reprimand, transfer or promote certain people. This causes fear in employees. It is better to start using the model to provide non-threatening feedback or support to employees for their own training and development.
5. The models proliferate: There is such a thing as too many models. One CBM is often not enough, but one for each job is too much. Many organisations drive themselves towards too many models because of the differentiation between job categories.
6. The models are used for development only: If competencies are used for development only, they are not likely to stick. They should eventually be linked to selection, pay and promotion in order to become part of the entire people-management system.
7. The computer does it: It is relatively easy to create and implement a CBM system in which multirater competency evaluation are distributed and tabulated through a computer-networked environment. This is not, however, how competency improvement occurs. Real improvement needs management, judgment, face-to-

face feedback and coaching. Computers play a part in housing the system and tools, but they can not replace people talking to people.

The following model (Figure 12) (Meyer, 1996:116 – 123) suggests a broad process for evaluating an organisation's current managerial capacity and ensuring that the necessary competencies are acquired to meet the demands of organisational strategy:

Figure 12: Evaluating an Organisation's Managerial Capacity (Adapted from Meyer, 1996: 116)

Each of the steps in this model is explained in sequence:

Understanding the business environment:

This requires an outward-looking and future orientation in order to be able to anticipate the kinds of issues with which the organisation's management will need to deal:

1. Economic;
2. Technological;
3. Socio-political; and

4. Legislative.

Understanding organisational realities:

An understanding of design issues, organisational culture, available systems and other similar issues must be articulated since competencies need to be consistent with these features of any organisation. This is a particularly important step to ensure the success of the rest of the model, and the author notes that in reality, these organisational realities are seldom articulated or clearly understood.

Define leadership roles and challenges:

It is expected that from the above analysis it would be possible to distill the leadership roles and challenges which are of importance to the organisation in particular.

Define a competency framework and prioritise:

This step requires the development of a competency model or framework which incorporates priorities – that is the design of what is required in the broader organisation. The purpose of such a framework will provide a commonly understood logic on which to hang important competencies. In prioritisation, the organisation is able to focus on core strategic competencies and is able to manage the learning or acquisition process better.

Define competencies at each level:

It is important that the competencies are understood by each level of management. One of the most difficult aspects is to create or design workable definitions of such competencies, especially for the higher level management positions.

Assess current incumbents:

The central purpose of having managerial competencies is to ensure that the correct caliber of managers is available at the right time and hence the process is fundamentally integrated with selection, succession planning and

development. As this issue is sensitive and complex, the methodologies used to assess managerial competence or potential, need to be utilised effectively. There are three main methodologies that are used: supervisor assessment, assessment centers, and psychometric tests.

Establish learning contracts

Once the required management competence has been attained, one of two options remains. The preferable option seems to be the creation of a learning contract. A learning contract has two components: it clearly specifies the learning needs, and secondly, it would specify the learning strategies to be used over time. The key to the successful implementation of this contract is the feedback and review system with which it is associated.

Redeploy staff

Once the required management competency is attained, redeploying staff internally or externally in the organisation is important. Internal redeployment is usually very positive and provides new opportunities for development. External redeployment is usually painful to the person concerned and the organisation. The key is to be decisive and not delay the decision.

Institute learning

Once decisions have been made with regard to learning contracts and redeployment, implementation of the learning must happen. This is necessary at both an individual and organisational level.

This model provides a basis for assessing the management competency in any organisation and allows for the process surrounding the assessment of competencies to be followed thoroughly to avoid misunderstandings and bad decision-making. This model will be reviewed later in terms of the SAPS and their management development process for Station Managers.

A competency model is therefore more than just a wish list. It must involve a methodology that demonstrates the validity of the model's standards. The litmus test is whether the people who have the competencies are better managers than people who do not. A competency model must also identify and validate the behaviours that imply the existence of underlying motives, traits, and attitudes. What many writers confirm though, is that most of the current activity going on under the banner of competency modeling is really only list-making.

There are many alternatives available to management development specialists in organisations to teach managers the various competencies that are required of their respective positions. Alternatives listed include:

1. Management development programmes;
2. Employee development plans;
3. Training interventions;
4. Mentorship programmes;
5. Coaching clinics;
6. Observation (on-the-job learning); and
7. Formal education.

Depending on the context of the managers needed both the competency development process and the type of method used to teach them can differ. Within the context of this research, training as a tool of teaching management competencies will be focused on as it dominates the organisation under discussion.

Having looked at various competency-based approaches and models to management development, it is clear that in order to develop any level of management within an organisation, public- or private-sector related, it is imperative to first analyse completely the type of management competencies that are needed at that particular level. Only once this is done, can the various knowledge, skills and aptitudes be broken down into smaller areas for personal development. This is both an individual and an organisational development process and has to be continuous, not ad hoc, in application. The development of these competencies within the

management cadre cannot only be done through training programmes, but must also be approached through other on-the-job and more experiential approaches.

3.5 TRAINING AS A MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION

Modern organisations face dramatic new challenges, which require high levels of performance. These organisations, both public and private, are expected to pursue multiple goals simultaneously, relating to several stakeholders, managing scarce resources and adapting to change (Mohrman & Cummings, 1989:35).

Public management, according to Paddock (1997:441), is experiencing re-invention, re-engineering, downsizing, cutback management, and close public and legislative scrutiny. In this world where change is the norm rather than the exception, public managers are becoming coaches rather than controllers, supporters rather than supervisors, communicators rather than commanders. These new roles require targeted, supported management training.

Management training programmes are becoming tools of strategic deployment, transmitting and supporting new management styles, technology and work force systems. So critical is this “new” management in this changed environment, that training programmes cannot be mediocre. Training programmes must be monitored and scrutinised to ensure that they are of the highest quality.

If organisational readiness and support are lacking, training makes little or no difference, certainly not for long, except to increase the frustration of the best participants and to stimulate them to leave for situations where competence is valued more (Lynton & Pareek, 1990:xi). If organisations hope to usefully equip present and future managers to lead the organisations efficiently and effectively, a great deal of effort needs to be

put into ensuring that management development processes are appropriate and cost-effective. (Klipin, 2001:57).

Paddock states that the training of public employees is rarely popular (1997:441). Training budgets are often the first to suffer under fiscal constraint and cutback. To meet and respond to skepticism, management training programmes must be meticulously developed, tested and evaluated. The application of benchmarking, or the identification of best practices, to training programmes is one way to assure that those programmes are of the highest quality.

Within this discussion of training as a management development intervention, there are various terms, which are often used interchangeably, but require some clarity. The three key terms commonly discussed in relation to management development are “education”, “development” and “training”. Talbot (1995:7) provides a useful definition of each of these terms:

-
1. Education: Activities which aim at developing the knowledge, skills, moral values and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than knowledge and skills relating to only a limited field of activity.
 2. Development: The growth or realisation of a person's ability, through conscious or unconscious learning. Development programmes usually include elements of planned study and experience, and are frequently supported by a coaching or counseling facility.
 3. Training: A planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behaviours through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities.

These definitions, according to Talbot (1995:7) clearly make a distinction between “education” and “training” relating to the narrowness or breadth of focus of the process. However, the definition of “development” seems to potentially embrace both.

Hooper (1960:176) suggests three levels of management “training”:

1. General training in principles and science of management;
2. Practical training relating to specific business; and
3. Training to develop the “whole person” to enable managers to practice the art, as well as the science of management.

These broadly correspond to the definitions given above of education, development and training. However, there is clearly a great deal of overlap between these three definitions and it is virtually impossible to draw exact lines between them.

Engelbrecht *et al* (1996:12) suggest further distinction between these terms and offer a more South African interpretation to their application in terms of management training:

1. Education: Aims at preparing people for promotion, transfer or other anticipated future progress. It may also be used to give a person new insights or to upgrade skills prior to technological or other changes in the job, occupation, industry or organisation.
2. Training: Focuses on the short term. It is directed at furnishing necessary knowledge or skill for carrying out present work duties efficiently and effectively. They comment that training may be an effective solution when people do not know what to do or how to do it.
3. Development: Is seen to be concerned with preparing the employees so that they can move with the organisation as it develops, changes and grows. It intends to prepare people for positions or equip them with skills and experience needed for future positions.

Table 15 attempts to summarise these definitions to clarify the difference between these terms, and is adapted from Buckley & Caple (1992:14):

Table 15: Definition of Terms: Education, Training and Development
(adapted from Buckley & Caple: 1990:14)

	TRAINING	EDUCATION	DEVELOPMENT
DURATION	Short term	Intermediate term	Long term
PROCESS	More mechanistic, emphasises uniform and predictable responses	More organic, bringing about less predictable changes	More organic
EFFECT	Specific Predictable Uniformity within limits set by individual differences	General Less predictable Increase variability of individual differences	General Non-predictable Variable
PRECISION	Job-orientated	Person-orientated	Individual development

To focus more specifically on training as a management development intervention, various authors write about the importance of it in increasing an organisation's future performance and success. In particular, Certo (1983:240) writes that training is the process of developing activities in human resources, which will ultimately enable them to be more productive and thus contribute more to organisational goal attainment. Training increases the productivity of individuals in their jobs by influencing behaviour.

According to Robbins (1980:27) training is the process of learning through a sequence of programmed behaviour patterns. It enables a person to solve a repetitive problem. Training is the application of knowledge. It gives people an awareness of the rules and procedures to guide their behaviour. Training involves learning specific, detailed and routine skills and techniques. Warren (1979:8) writes that the purpose of training is to change behaviour. The change of behaviour through training can be divided into a change in knowledge, skills and attitude. Gibson *et al* (1982:75) write that the development of skills and attitudes requires training programmes of a continuing nature. These programmes are designed to improve the

participant's knowledge, skills and attitudes towards their jobs and the organisation.

With these definitions of training in mind, it is important to highlight the role that training plays within management development. Talbot (1995:9) shows this diagrammatically by combining the views of various authors. He explains that through all the definitions given by the various authors, management development as a process embraces all three previously discussed terms of Education, Training and Development. Management development is seen as an integrative term embracing all aspects of management learning. Management education is seen as focusing on knowledge and management training focuses on skills. Seen diagrammatically as follows:

Figure 13: Management Development Defined (adapted from Talbot, 1995: 9)

Within this sphere of management training, Huysamen (1995:34) promotes the notion that instead of falling into the trap of trying to modify and expand the traditional training and development systems within an organisation, the training personnel should rather undergo a fundamental role change and

become navigators of the organisation instead of reactive followers. In the new system they should focus and concentrate on the following building blocks of management training programmes:

1. Employee skills and knowledge development – derived from the performance needs of the organisations;
2. Performance system development – derived from the performance requirements of the employees; and
3. Attitude development – linked to the real agenda and internal and external business environment.

Traditional trainers are often lost in the theory and remain far removed from reality. As a result they complicate training issues and lose sight of the basics of performance improvement. The training and development mission, strategy, systems and operations must consequently be changed to accommodate the real survival agenda or the organisation will stay in a reactive mode, incapable of determining its own future.

Continuous learning is the responsibility of each individual (King *et al*, 2001:ix). However, organisations have the responsibility to help individuals assess their skills and knowledge so they can define their development needs and provide them with access to learning opportunities that meet their unique and changing needs. Organisations have traditionally provided learning opportunities through on-the-job learning or appropriate training programmes. King *et al* (2001:ix) continue by emphasising that in the 21st century, learning needs of employees will need to be met in a variety of alternative ways. High-tech alternatives such as CD-Rom, the internet and computer-based self-learning will need to be included.

Training needs to be seen as a competitive advantage for any organisation, and as such management development programmes need to be carefully and purposefully packaged to include the most appropriate learning methodology for the particular level of employee and/or manager. A good management development programme should consist, according to Sandwith (1993:43), of a comprehensive framework that delineates a

distinct hierarchy of competencies (knowledge, skills and aptitudes) needed by the various levels of management in the organisations.

Sandwith (1993:52 – 55) provides various alternative activities that could make up such a comprehensive management development programme for an organisation (see also Klipin, 2001:34 and Paddock, 1997:442):

Table 16: Management Development Intervention Options:

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION OPTIONS	
<div style="display: flex; align-items: center; justify-content: center;"> <div style="text-align: center; margin-right: 10px;"> <p>General</p> <p>↑</p> <p>↓</p> <p>Specific</p> </div> </div>	Senior Management Development Programme
	Supervisory Management Development Programme
	General Training (Skills Development) Programme
	Vocational Training Programme
	Self-help Programme
	Specialised Training
	Specialised Workshops
	Learning Assignments
	Specific Work-related Seminars
	Specialised Conferences
	Coaching and Mentorship Programme

From the above alternative teaching options within a management development programme, the organisation should select the most appropriate method for the learning outcomes that are desired. In most cases, management training programmes are selected as the most appropriate option. For the purposes of this research, the training option will be explored further.

In a study done by Paddock (1997:446) on setting benchmarks for management training, several key areas within which any organisation should benchmark itself were set. These include:

1. Oversight and Leadership of the programme;

2. Stability of administrative and financial support;
3. Consistent management philosophy;
4. Administrative control;
5. Selection and support of participants;
6. Accessibility;
7. Preparation for and application of classroom learning;
8. Quality of programme delivery;
9. Evaluation of participants; and
10. Ongoing programme evaluation.

These ten benchmarks for management training were developed based on government-level training programmes and can be applied at any level of governmental as a system for continuous programme improvement, enhanced participant learning and improved organisational performance (Paddock, 1997:441).

With these benchmarks in mind, what then makes the difference between high quality management training programmes and poor quality management training programmes? From a study on large, medium and small organisations, both public and private, Margerison (1991:100) states that a high quality management training programme must include the following:

1. Senior management must be involved from the start;
2. Steering committees, involving key political players are a key to acceptability;
3. Sound research on the needs is never wasted if you involve the managers in the process;
4. Programme design must relate to the needs and again involve managers in testing and development;
5. The implementation must be top class and relevant to real work;
6. The faculty and advisers must be top supportive people, able to facilitate on real world problems and opportunities;
7. The learning approach should be participative and based on learning by doing, supplemented by information sessions; and

8. Emphasis must be placed on getting results and transferring the learning to the job.

Management training, as it fits into the larger process of management development, forms an integral part of building the capacity of managers to achieve performance success within the organisation. Management training programmes are often so frequent and so broad in focus, that the average manager having to attend these programmes becomes disillusioned and overburdened by all the new knowledge and skills, to actually make the time to attempt to apply these back in the real work environment. Management training programmes, with their direct link to both management education and management experience, cannot afford to continue along this vein. By following the various suggested guides to improving both the relevance and applicability of the training given, managers will begin to experience the advantages of the complete process of management development.

3.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the concept and process of management development has been explored and analysed. Within this process, the concept of management capacity is understood and linked to both the motivation of the individual and the opportunities provided by the organisation. These three aspects are necessary for the manager to be able to apply the knowledge, skills and aptitudes learnt over time. Management capacity was then extended into the exploration of management competencies. Competence was analysed in terms of its measurement (potential and performance-related) and in terms of its categories for countries (national level), organisations and individuals. Within the framework of competency and competency assessment, various approaches and models were outlined and compared in order to facilitate the understanding of how a competency-based approach to management development could be implemented. This approach to management development is proposed in future chapters and

compared to the current state of affairs within the SAPS in the Western Cape with regard to station level management development programmes.

The following chapter will focus on the processes of management development within the SAPS and the particular case of the station manager as point of focus. A historical overview will be completed after which further detail will be provided as to the current management development programmes within the SAPS and how these interventions attempt to affect management capacity and the related ability to apply the knowledge, skills and aptitudes learnt over time, within the police station context (middle management level).

CHAPTER 4

MANAGEMENT CAPACITY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE: HISTORY AND CURRENT REALITY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter (chapter 3) focused on management development as a tool for enhancing management competencies. It provides a theoretical base from which a comparison can be made. Management development was defined and explained as a multidimensional and continuous process within any organisation. Further to this, management capacity was placed into context within the management development processes and a competency-based approach to management development was described. Lastly, training as a specific management development intervention was discussed. In this chapter (chapter 4), the theoretical base provided by chapter 3 will be expanded within the context of the SAPS. The historical (since 1994) and current management development policy, structures and interventions of the SAPS will be documented and analysed. The specific research objectives of chapter 4 are to:

1. Document the history of management development policy, structure and practice in the SAPS since 1994;
2. Explore the various management development initiatives and reports of the SAPS during this time;
3. Describe the linkage between external (to SAPS) partners and funds that have made certain management development processes and research reports possible within the SAPS;
4. Document the main management development interventions and their outcomes, that have taken place within the SAPS since 1994; and
5. Investigate and document the opinions of various key role-players in the management development arena within SAPS.

This chapter aims at documenting some of the main changes with a focus on management development initiatives and training interventions for

station managers within the SAPS. The chapter has as a point of departure the fact, according to Brewer (1994:1), that “.....policing in modern South Africa is a product of its past, contemporary policing needs to be put into a historical context.....”. An overview of this historical context is given in the following section and a link to the current reality of SAPS is provided. Management development in SAPS and management training are described. The chapter concludes by linking the past, the present and possible future management development needs of the SAPS station managers in order to create the framework for chapter 5.

4.2 BACKGROUND TO MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT WITHIN THE SAPS

During this first decade of the 21st century, the austere realities of managing public resources will become increasingly obvious. No longer will government agencies be able to afford the generous spending policies of the past. Accountability and performance measures will become a real part of government's vocabulary. The era of spending policies is quickly coming to an end and the introduction of modern management methods will no longer be a luxury that only a few agencies can afford. It will become an economic necessity, as the competition for resources will be increasingly intense and will require a commitment to sound fiscal policies.

Needless to say, the police, long recognised as a vital public service, have been the subject of critical and serious scrutiny during the past decade. The researcher has observed that crime has continued to climb, services have declined, and police managers have been ill-equipped to develop programmes that adequately address the most fundamental concepts of efficiency and effectiveness. Understandably, the working milieu of the police environment appears to hamper the career development of police managers. The concepts and practices of strategic planning, cost-benefit analysis and the proven business methods of managing public resources are not clearly recognisable in the actions of most police managers (Pagano & Dintino, 1982:26). Regretfully the management of police resources can

be characterised as unimaginative, short-sighted, and crisis-orientated, with little understanding of the need to develop programmes that create incentive patterns which ensure the organisation's most costly resources – its personnel – are properly motivated and utilised in a cost-effective manner.

One must however be cognisant of the factors which have produced this situation. In as much as the police, like other members of society, are victims of their environment, it is important that we recognise that the failings in police management are not necessarily deficiencies in human character or intelligence. Rather, they are responses to environmental pressures and constraints, which have needlessly retarded the professionalism of policing in South Africa.

If police managers in SAPS are to harness the collective energies of their personnel, they must develop programmes and create challenges, continuously encouraging dialogue and ultimately provide rewards consistent with the level of achievement attained. It is not enough to reward someone for merely working hard; today they must also work smart. It is the task of the police manager to provide the environment conducive to ensuring acceptable levels of performance, recognising that productivity is directly related to the ability of management to continuously challenge the individual. Ironically, according to Pagano & Dintino (1982:26), the police function appears to be organised to do the exact opposite. This appears to be the case in SAPS today.

The way that the police are organised can be explained as follows. The universal characteristic which distinguishes the police from virtually all other public institutions (with the exception of the armed forces) is the paramilitary structure of the police environment. While benefits of such a structure are clear under stressful or dangerous conditions, the majority of police work is service-oriented, with less than 1% of the average police officer's time devoted to handling menacing situations (Reynecke *et al*, 2000:16). It is observable that SAPS operates in this manner.

Therefore, while an organisational structure based on a rigid and definable chain of command is desirable in some instances, this structural arrangement may prove counterproductive in the real world of policing today. As an example, an unintended consequence of this structural arrangement has been an institutionalised hierarchical ladder, which forces good police officers to often become poor managers (Pagano & Dintino, 1982:26). It is this exact observation that stands at the core of this research within SAPS. Moreover, because of the minimum effort and money allocated to management training in many police departments (see Klipin, 2001:35), the criteria for promotional ascendancy often has little to do with the managerial competency and skill of the individual but are more than likely to be related to factors which place a high value on maintaining existing practices regardless of their inefficiency or ineffectiveness, seniority and the ability to avoid risks at the expense of accomplishing meaningful reform (see also Marks, 1995:22 and Pagano & Dintino, 1982:28). This practice is apparent in SAPS today.

As one ascends this hierarchical ladder, managerial competency skill and expertise are arbitrarily ascribed often to the detriment of sound management practices. A by-product of this system has been to discourage and stifle innovation, initiative and productivity (Klipin, 2001:36). This rather unique police working environment has been influenced by various factors that all affect the management of police resources. Pagano & Dintino (1982:28 – 30) list these as being:

1. The police environment:

The uniqueness of police environment is to a large extent its ambiguity. The individual police officer is constantly negotiating and renegotiating reality void of any precise set of rules or definitive guidelines. The capacity of the police officer to continuously and effectively cope with uncertainty is a characteristic, which distinguishes policing from other occupations. Similarly, the police manager is part of an environment, although guided by a series of

precise rules and regulations, is also left to his/her own wits. The police manager is placed in the delicate position of ensuring productivity regardless of how external factors influence motivation. Unfortunately, the debilitating effects of these factors often undermine the ability of the manager to prudently and deliberately allocate the agency's resources in a cost-effective manner.

2. Police recruitment and training:

According to authors like Reynecke *et al* (2000:10) and Marks (1995:22), the lack of relevant standards consistent with the skills needed to perform the multidimensional tasks of a police officer, administrator and manager, has deprived law enforcement of a professional class of police executives. The manner in which the police are recruited and selected, explain Pagano & Dintino (1982:29), has not changed over the past 200 years. Most law enforcement agencies have sought to develop the technical skills and physical prowess of its "recruits" and there has been little effort devoted to developing communicative skills, logical reasoning ability, or decision-making qualities of the police officer as he/she enters a career in supervision and management. These authors elaborate further that although these initial recruitment and selection processes are designed for the specific purpose of transforming the "civilian" into a "police officer", an unintended consequence has been to artificially constrain the available pool of eligible candidates for rewarding careers in police management.

3. Police socialisation:

Transforming the "civilian" into a "police officer" is a subtle and long-term process, which ultimately affects the personality, hence the managerial skills of the police executive (Pagano & Dintino (1982:28). Fundamentally, police are socialised to be suspicious and reactive, to look for situations which are out of the ordinary. The unintended consequence of this early learning process has in effect created a dysfunctional managerial style – one which, in effect has endangered the necessary and desirable dialogue between employee and employer. The employee who critically questions or

challenges the existing policies or accepted methods of operation is often perceived as disloyal, a threat to the authority of the manager or is branded as what Marks (1995:22) calls “deviant”.

4. Civil service:

The introduction of civil service into the police was a reaction, according to Pagano & Dintino (1982:29), to the corrupt political patronage practices that existed in many police departments during the 1980s and early 1990s. It was believed that a system of reward predicated upon merit as opposed to loyalty, would upgrade the quality of policing in general. Unfortunately, the simplistic notion that civil service is good whereas political patronage is inherently corrupt has, in many respects, institutionalised a lethargic, complacent and passive mode of police management. Incentive patterns which encourage personal initiative and innovation are virtually nonexistent and the most mediocre standards of productivity are often permitted to underscore the professional enhancement of both the individual and the organisation. (See also Klipin, 2001:34).

5. Police unions:

Pagano & Dintino (1982:29) state that few issues evoke as much indignation from police managers as the role of unions and how they apparently infringe upon the managerial prerogatives of the police manager. Whether true or not it is management’s obligation to negotiate conflict. Unfortunately, the confrontational methods that are generally characteristic of police management/labour relations have underscored the fundamental principles of participatory management.

6. Police politics:

Both Klipin (2001:42) and Carstens (1998:44) agree with the idea that perhaps the most sensitive issue with respect to managing a police organisation is its relationship to the political structure. In as much as the police are a political entity, responsive to its policies and dependant upon its power, the police manager is at times required to implement policies which may only result in immediate and symbolic returns. Conversely, the political system is often the initiator of

change and experimentation, since elected officials are responsive to public opinion. The professional police manager must recognise that the system is organised to provide for the “give and take” which is necessary for the process of experimentation, change and reform. Therefore the manager’s ability to manage change is directly dependent upon a capacity to incorporate political initiatives into police policies, carefully balancing the needs of the organisation with the often conflicting desires of the community.

7. Career advancement:

Pagano & Dintino (1982:30) state that what is often labeled as “career development” in any police department is often merely a euphemism for “promotional advancement”. In as much as the career paths for police officers are seriously constrained, most police officers do not enter management positions until mid-life or later. This is when the vitality of an individual is usually in its waning stages, particularly in the light of early retirement provisions in many police agencies. The opposite has also developed in the recent past in large police organisations, particularly in South Africa, where the policy of affirmative action dominates career advancement decision-making. In this scenario, it is possible to have young and often inexperienced officers promoted to management positions without necessarily having the management capacity at that stage of their career.

Inevitably, the issues, which are outlined above affect the quality of police management. While it is naïve to suggest that the institutional dilemmas confronting the police will be rectified in the next decade, it is appropriate that police management begins to recognise that management professionals, budget specialists, information system managers and the like should be utilised in the management of police resources. However, there remains a significant role for the career police officer to play in this process. Toward this goal, structural reforms must occur if a professional mode of management is to replace many of the antiquated practices of the past.

4.3 HISTORICAL CONTEXT

The socio-political change in South Africa necessitated a new vision for the police in South Africa – a vision that included the creation of a safe and secure environment for all the people of the nation. According to Fivaz (1996:1), “The South African Police Service is thus undergoing a process of fundamental change which is the direct outcome of the socio-political transformation in the country.” An analysis of the constitutional requirements of policing in South Africa enhances the need for change. According to Van Beek (2003:103) changes linked to this vision included changing the nature and style of policing, the police culture, structures and management style. It also included policies and practices within the police that have remnants of re-invention and reorganisation commonly used in business in the eighties and early nineties.

This section will describe and analyse the changes that have taken place in the SAPS in three era’s as they are relevant to the processes of management development as focused on in this research. These three eras are:

1. Pre-1994
2. 1994 – 1999: The next five years
3. 1999 – 2004: The past five years

4.3.1 Pre-1994:

In 1913 the South African Police (SAP) was formed by the amalgamation and unification of independent rural and city police forces from all over the Union of South Africa (a member of the British Commonwealth). From 1948 onward, the ideology of apartheid was actively enforced within the Union of South Africa. Brewster (1994:285) explains that with the establishment of independence on 31 May 1961, the Republic of South Africa accepted this ideology as government policy, which again divided the police force into separate forces. This separation was done in accordance with the independent states and self-governing areas within the Republic. The

result was eleven independent and separate police forces. Brewster (1994:286) observes that these apartheid forces were financially dependent on the South African government. These 11 so-called independent and separate police forces remained operational until 1994.

Before 1994 and the amalgamation of these 11 independent and separate police forces, the Consultative Business Movement National Team completed research on the challenges of legitimacy and credibility in the public sector in general, with specific reference to the SAPS (1993: 51-52). Their research indicated six main impediments present in the whole of the South African public sector, including the police, affecting the improvement of legitimacy and credibility:

1. A hierarchical organisational structure that inhibits creativity and productivity;
2. An autocratic management style that fosters an attitude of survival rather than one of initiative amongst employees;
3. Attitudes and value systems that are based on discrimination and perceptions thereby creating distrust;
4. Organisations are filled with fear of the unknown and therefore struggle to embrace change;
5. Low levels of communication and constant information retention lead to limited transparency; and
6. There is a serious lack in the level and quality of training and education.

Van Beek (2003:104) explains that the identification of these six impediments was aimed at helping the police transform from a force to a service. These impediments also applied to the informal policing structures outside the official police. Such informal structures included the Self-Defence Units (SDU) and the Self-Protection Units (SPU) which were unlegislated policing structures operating in the townships. They were, according to Shaw (1995:41), symptomatic of the lack of trust in official policing structures and created the problem for the new South Africa of a militarised black youth. Van Beek (2003:104) explains that another aspect

to consider was the white-dominated legislated police force (SAP) with the main purpose of fighting “The Black Danger”. The SAP was the epitome of Calvinist Christian Nationalism and Afrikanerdom dominated by events (such as parade ceremonies, inspiring speeches, and the publication of essays in the police journal). African police members took their cue from the actions of their white commanders with no respect for human rights (Van Beek, 2003:104).

Van Beek (2003:104) states that unification was on the agenda once again after the first democratic election in South Africa during April 1994. On the 27 April 1994, the Interim Constitution (Act 200 of 1993) came into effect. The Interim Constitution spearheaded the democratisation of South Africa as well as the amalgamation of the 11 police forces. After the amalgamation of the 11 different policing agencies in South Africa, the SAPS was formed in 1994 under the new government of South Africa. In line with the Apartheid policy of separate development, South Africa before 1994 had a number of “homelands” that were nominally independent of, although funded by, the South African government. Each homeland had its own police service in addition to the South Africa Police (SAP) force. In addition, a number of local or “municipal” police agencies had been created to police township residents during the height of political unrest in the country in the 1970s and 1980s. All of these agencies were amalgamated to form one united police service, SAPS, in 1994 (see Klipin, 2001:2 and Reynecke, 2000:5).

4.3.2 1994 - 1999: The next five years

South Africa, as well as the police underwent extremely complex changes in 1994 – change, that according to Brewer (1994:321 – 322) all started with the historical speech by South Africa’s former president, Mr FW De Klerk, during the opening of Parliament in February 1990. In his speech – Manifesto for a new South Africa – he initiated the move away from a securocratic South Africa, and by implication the police, to a democratic South Africa.

According to the new Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) the role of a unified police service for South Africa is to uphold the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa; implement the policy of the government of National Unity as far as safety and security are concerned; prevent, combat and investigate crime; maintain public order; protect and secure the inhabitants of South Africa; and to uphold and enforce the law.

According to Van Beek (2003:104), in order to realise the above, the basic public governance principles of the separation of powers, checks and balances and division of authority must be present. This can be achieved, continues Van Beek (2003:104), by realising that two things needed to happen in the various police forces in South Africa:

1. Firstly they needed to be amalgamated into one police force (recreating that which existed in 1913) or what is known today as the South African Police Service (SAPS); and
2. Secondly, and far more challenging, the SAPS needed and still needs to enhance its legitimacy and credibility.

From this heritage, it can be concluded that the police in South Africa were and still are a microcosm of South Africa, faced with the incorporation of various ideologies and managing the change that springs from such incorporations (Shaw, 1995:40 and Van Beek, 2003:105). These impediments can, to some extent, be overcome by the physical restructuring of the SAPS, the Bill of Rights that forms that backbone of the Interim Constitution, as well as the Constitution and affirmative action programmes to address equality issues.

Van Beek (2003:106) describes 1994 as a painful year for most police personnel: the police did not change from a control functionary of one specific political philosophy of a single political party, to protecting the democratic values of the Interim Constitution, in one day. Giving life to this police credo of "Servamus et Servimus" (We protect and We serve) is a long process. Van Beek (2003:106) continues with his description by explaining that this was a physically painful year because most police

officers worked from the beginning of March 1994 until the end of May 1994 without a break in order to facilitate the first democratic elections in South Africa. They had the task of taking South Africa through a peaceful transition and were often paying for it with their own blood. It was emotionally painful because of all the changes and the uncertainty that went hand-in-hand with such change. The role of the police was being redefined on a daily basis: age-old procedures and Standing Orders provided little or no operational direction. Operational police members were caught between the unacceptable old and the undefined new. Coming from a culture of “do as you are told”, confused police members were left not knowing what to do and receiving no clear instruction on what to do differently either. When the ministry finally gave some directional indication, it came in the form of a draft policy document, generally known as the Green Paper.

The Green Paper can be referred to, according to Van Beek (2003:106), as the principled document because it primarily petitions principles of what should be the philosophy behind policing in South Africa as well as managing the SAPS. This was done in contrast to the traditional pre-1994 documents which prescribed both the “how” to do and the “what” to do. According to the Draft White Paper on Safety and Security (1998:2) all initiatives in the post-1994 period were aimed at “.....rehabilitating the police to ensure they became protectors of our communities; and secondly, to mobilize out people to participate in the provision of safety and security”.

The 13 principles in the Green Paper are:

1. Democratic control over the police service;
2. Accountability of the police service;
3. Community consultation and involvement;
4. Police service and community development;
5. Quality of service;
6. A changing police style;
7. A professional policing approach;
8. A national police service;
9. Changing the nature of the police organisation;
10. Acknowledge the role of the police unions;

11. Cost-effective policing;
12. Equality; and
13. Minimum use of force.

The practical implementation of these principles, according to Van Beek (2003:107), impacted on the structure of the SAPS. This significant restructuring of the police, according to Murray (1998:1), took place in order to achieve three goals of transformation for that period (post-1994). These were:

1. To build a service as a legitimate one in the eyes of the South African public that had been increasingly alienated from the police through the course of the apartheid years;
2. To adapt the style of policing to make it appropriate for an emerging democracy; and
3. To align South African policing with international trends.

As a result of the tradition of violence in the former police agencies that were amalgamated into the SAPS and the fact that police in general were totally discredited, the “new” SAPS was under extremely strict political control in the form of the Secretariat. Brogden and Shearing (1993:41 – 42), directly link police violence to traditional structural issues. These issues are linked to rules and policies formally governing the police (coming from top management and politicians) as well as the normative expectations of the rank and file members given these rules and policies. In order to comprehend this influence, it is important also to look at the culture of the SAPS and how that culture influenced the new structure of the SAPS.

Brewer (1994:271) stated that to “shoot first and ask questions later”, was the general police approach. This encapsulates the organisational culture of the SAP until 1994. In order to change this attitude, structural change had to be made in order to break up the many negative alliances and undemocratic structures like the former security branch and riot control unit. According to the official report, “Change Management in the South African Police Service: Towards a Learning Organisation for the Police Service”

(Van Beek, 2003: 109), one of the ultimate challenges within the transformation of the police from a force (linked to oppression and a police state) to a service (linked to transparency and a human rights culture) is to change organisational structure, culture, attitude and behavior. There was a need for the SAPS to move away from a closed organisation towards a more open service provider. Management had to rethink their autocratic ways and substitute these with democratic management in order to enhance transparency. The police needed to be demilitarised with greater public control and accountability.

This all implied, according to Van Beek (2003:109), moving away from a police role and power approach towards a police duty and personal approach, accommodating a multitude of cultures rather than cloning one monoculture. It also implied shifting the police role from combating crime to a police duty to prevent and manage crime. The SAPS also needed to be more community-orientated. In order to do this, the SAPS needed to become more people-focused by investing in and developing its members.

4.3.3 1999 - 2004: The past five years

The SAPS underwent significant structural changes in the mid-nineties. The result of these changes is evaluated against the fact that the SAPS can in any terms be viewed as a large organisation with roughly between 147 000 and 150 000 members functioning within an extremely complex organisational structure (Van Beek, 2003:107). The structure of SAPS was (and still appears to be) top-heavy on both operational and management levels. On the operational level this is illustrated by the fact that there were at the time when Van Beek (2003) wrote, 61 127 sergeants (the second rank/organisational level of the SAPS) and 9 234 inspectors (the third rank/organisational level of the SAPS) compared to only 18 178 constables (the first rank/organisational level of the SAPS) (Van Beek, 2003:107). On the managerial level, top-heaviness is reflected in the fact that there are in the first instance, 12 623 officers (junior to top management) and in the second instance, that there are seven managerial levels (ranks) compared

to only three operational levels/ranks (Van Beek, 2003:107). Apart from its trained members, the SAPS has approximately 15 000 civilian employees.

Apart from the manner in which the SAPS personnel are structured on an organisational level, the organisation is divided into nine provincial components and one national head office. Section 205(1) of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996), states that South Africa has a single national police service. According to Fivaz (1996:4) this stipulation required that head office (national level) develops policies, sets standards and provides a common focus, while the provinces are responsible for operational implementation, execution and institutionalised quality service delivery and a community focus. The SAPS has a national component with a National Commissioner, a Chief Executive Officer and four Deputy National Commissioners supported by the Divisional Commissioners responsible for crime prevention and response services, detective services, human resource management, management services and support services. On provincial level the national divisions each has a head representative and is overseen by a Provincial Commissioner. The National Commissioner, his Deputies and Divisional Commissioners as well as the nine Provincial Commissioners are generally referred to as the management forum of the SAPS (Van Beek, 2003:108).

Civilian control over the SAPS is provided for in Section 208 of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) and manifests itself in the form of the Secretary for Safety and Security. The Secretariat functions under the Ministry of Safety and Security (on national level) and forms one of three structural legs of the Ministry (the National Commissioner and the Chief Executive Officer are the other two legs). They scrutinise the actions of the SAPS and also control the Independent Complaints Commission, which investigates police action. These structures are also repeated on provincial level under the auspices of the Member of the Executive Council (MEC) or provincial “minister” for Safety and Security.

Van Beek (2003:108) states that the SAPS is a large, relatively young, national organisation with complexity in its structure due to its hierarchical differentiation that is top-heavy on both the operational and managerial levels. This complexity is increased by provisional divisionalisation and the geographical size of South Africa, as well as the pressure placed on the SAPS to be representative of the population of the country. The following section analyses this shift in the SAPS from 1994 – 2004 in terms of its approach towards the management development of its members.

4.4 MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT IN THE SAPS

This section aims to describe and analyse the processes of management development in the SAPS as they occurred and evolved from 1994 – 2004.

4.4.1 Pre-1994:

Implicit in the need to develop managerial capacity, was the call to transform training and development approaches for police officers. Before the SAPS was created (in 1994), management development for all eleven former policing agencies was provided by the SAP (Klipin, 2001:2). This ensured that the apartheid policing style was adhered to by all agencies. The management style used by all eleven agencies was “very militaristic, bureaucratic, authoritarian and non-participatory” (Carstens & Burger, 1999:1). Training of all managers took place within this context.

Murray (1998:27 – 28) aptly describes management development in the pre-1994 period in the SAPS when he states, “the traditional approach to police management assumed that there should be a clear distinction between officers (‘gentlemen’) and non-commissioned officers (‘the men’). This approach created the distinction by ensuring that all officers command a certain body of knowledge which is not readily accessible to the rest of the personnel in the organisation.” In a transforming organisation that claims to support the values of shared knowledge, teamwork and participation in problem-solving and management, this legacy contradicts the concept of

management development (see also Cawthra, 1994:56 and Marais, 1992:2).

4.4.2 1994 – 1999: The first five years of transition

In 1996, the then National Commissioner of the SAPS, George Fivaz, pointed out that the SAPS made use of various strategic transformation themes of which two are relevant to this research (1996:18). First of all there was a need to transform the SAPS into a professional and effective organisation as far as service delivery was concerned. The second theme was related to transformation – to develop a person-centred human resource management system. In terms of training its members, the SAPS was committed to (Fivaz, 1996:23):

- Human rights education;
- Leadership development;
- Basic project management; and
- In-service and field training.

Veldsman (1995:36) commented that this approach of the SAPS reminds one of a once-off fix. The reasons for this are explained further by Van Beek (2003:110) where he states that even though these training themes were priorities on paper, they never received the necessary budgetary backing, thereby only remaining lip-service on the side of top management. According to Divisional Commissioner Botha (in Van Beek 2003:110), top management viewed human resources development and training as part of the transformation process, but never made it a financial priority. Training became a priority because of the Multinational Implementation Team (MIT) who, on request of the SA government, investigated training in the SAPS. Van Beek (2003:210) explains that the MIT were a multidisciplinary team consisting of practitioners from various countries including Kenya, the Netherlands, USA, Zimbabwe and Ireland as well as some local academics and practitioners. They only had an advisory function. Even though they gave useful advice on training and management development priorities, they had no control function and were therefore powerless to effect the implementation of their own recommendations.

Through this conscious shift in style away from militaristic policing to the more community-friendly style of policing since 1994, came an emphasis on professionalisation of police officers, as Carstens and Burger (1998:1) state: “The transformation of the South African socio-political landscape since the early 1990’s did not only emphasise the shortcomings of the traditional policing approach employed by the former eleven policing agencies, but also created enormous organisational challenges for the new SAPS. One of the challenges that is pivotal to successful policing of post-apartheid South Africa centers on the building of healthy managerial capacity at all levels in the SAPS in order to provide safety and security as public goods to all the citizens of South Africa.”

Van Beek (2003:111) continues by expanding further on this evolution in the SAPS management development approach by stating that as late as in 1998, some members of the top management spearheaded by Commissioner Chetty (Head of Training), insisted on the reinstatement of an ‘officer’s course’ consistent with the previously explained traditional approach. Contrary to “Chettyism” (the name given to this regressive line of thought by some of the facilitators involved in management development in SAPS at that time) (Van Beek, 2003:111), most people linked to management development in the SAPS, supported the report: “Training in the South African Police Service: A report of an Investigation Submitted by the International Training Committee, December 1994”, which concluded that “Management courses should be delivered in an environment conducive to critical reflection and debate, which is distinct from the normal police environment.” It is further recommended that such courses be conducted together with other public managers (from different sectors of the public service) and specifically with managers from the criminal justice system (1994:12). In this report, it is also stated that training should be a lifelong experience, therefore bridging the gap between training in the narrow sense and development (1994:4). Director Viljoen, the Head of Management Services in the Western Cape, agreed strongly with this view (2003 interview). Divisional Commissioner Botha commented on this in his

interview with Van Beek (Van Beek, 2003:111) by saying that in his brief, when appointed as the Acting Head: Management Development of the SAPS on 1 June 1995, it was made clear that he had to rethink management development on three levels:

- Content;
- Context; and
- Methodology.

This implied both a new direction for management development as well as new principles concerning the delivery of management development programmes. The result was that management development in the SAPS was based on the contingency and situation management models influenced by the open systems approach (see also Cawthra, 1994:102).

This open systems approach to management development is defined by Roberg and Kuykendall (1990:48) as one in which managers develop “solutions contingent upon problem variables with an emphasis on systematic and objective analysis of problems confronting the organization.” This indicates that managers must be able to think for themselves. This idea is in line with the broad concept of personal development and as such should enhance the management of change in the SAPS. However, Tabor *et al*, (1998:3-4) in their report to the Danish government, “Research Project on Management Development in the South African Police Service”, pointed to the fact that management development in the police was still short-term and demand-driven and lacks day-to-day management. These factors place a shadow on the positivism linked to the new direction taken by management development in the SAPS.

Against this background, Van Beek (2003:112) explains that the ministry stopped all management development in 1995 in order to provide some time for a rethink of management development along the lines of content, context and methodology. An attempt was made by some staff within the SAPS to continue with the “old” officers course, thereby contradicting the ministerial directive. This attempt was stopped by an “internal revolution” at the hands of a small group of pro-change facilitators in the SAPS together

with Dutch advisors supported by individuals in the ministry. During this period it also became clear that there was limited initiative, apathy, frustration and resistance to change amongst management trainers in the SAPS (Verslag van die Adviesactiviteiten in Zuid-Afrika met betrekking tot die Nieuwe Opzet van Management-development en Training 1995, in Van Beek, 2003:112). This situation came about partly because management development was at the beginning of this process and of little or no priority to top management (see also Cawthra, 1994:82 and Marais, 1992:3).

Stumpke (1996:15) also points out the importance of strategic management development for sustainable transformation and change. He indicates the fact that management development in the SAPS has failed to produce suitable and effective managers because of its emphasis on training and no development. In a report to the Danish funders, Tabor *et al* (1998:6) stated that management development in the SAPS was also fragmented and over-reliant on donor assistance in order to fund ad hoc development programmes. There was also little or no coordination within management development and attempts to outsource development were hampered by unclear tender procedures and the lack of an administrative component within management development (Tabor *et al*, 1996:56).

According to the report by Dutch advisors, “Verslag van de Adviesactiviteiten in Zuid-Afrika met betrekking tot die Nieuwe Opzet van Management-development en Training (1995) (in Van Beek, 2003:112), management development in the SAPS had to face five challenges:

- Pushing the proposed plan on top management level (in order to ensure commitment and money);
- Persuasion of the trainers and institutions involved (thus managing change in the micro environment of management development). The Change Management Team of SAPS saw this change in attitude as a training problem and not a change management problem;

- Advice with reference to new curricula (hence establishing credibility and creating momentum as far as redefining content, context and methodology is concerned);
- Establishing a new management vision as well as a structure on lower levels; and
- Overcoming the management void created by the fact that the whole process was managed by three academics, who were good academics but with little or no management experience.

These five challenges, as stated in 1995 by the Dutch advisors, provided clear direction (for policy and implementation) for management development processes in SAPS. Murray (1998:18) declares that even though mention is made of management development as a police priority, inadequate provision was made for investment in management development, which would yield operational success in the long-term. The drastic reduction of staff for management development supported this and also limited the pace and quality of redefining content, context and methodology. By the end of 1999, management development processes within the SAPS were still limited and disjointed (see also Fox et al, 1998: 167).

4.4.3 1999 – 2004: The past five years of transition

This situation has not improved since 1999 (Senior Superintendent Miller, 2003). He explained that currently (2004) there is still no clear policy for management development in the SAPS. There are difficult organisational dynamics involved and the position of Divisional Commissioner: Training has been vacant since March 2003. With this lack of leadership and no clear policy guideline, the rollout of the National Training Plan and Programmes has been haphazard and not linked to any management competency profile or career path planning. He links this situation to the emphasis in the SAPS that performance is only linked to the decrease in crime statistics and is not related to management performance or competency measurement.

All of the above was compounded by the fact that two individuals, who were external to the SAPS management development division, a member of the MIT Dutch consulting team and a member of the Change Management team of the SAPS, created the new vision for management development in SAPS (in 1998) and did not consult or include any personnel from the management development division in their process. Divisional Commissioner Botha (in Van Beek, 2003:112) stated that this started the fragmentation and uncoordinated methodology of the new management development processes in the SAPS.

In conclusion, the implication of constant change as far as management development is concerned is uncertain, but one thing is sure and that is that managers in the SAPS, in general, are incapable of managing (Van Beek, 2003:116). Du Preez & Prinsloo (1993:74-77) point to the fact that six of the eight highest-ranked problems in the SAPS can be linked directly to poor management. Kroes, Margolis & Hurrell (1974:145) indicated that, because of a lack of management support, stress levels of the police were unacceptable. Koortzen (1996:61) and Kiley (1997:135), to a lesser extent, point out that this fact was still evident in the SAPS. It can therefore be concluded that the SAPS has moved through the epilogue of the changes of 1994 and is currently experiencing the prelude of many more changes to come, slowly but surely realising that change is a constant variable that needs invariable management attention. Management development is also exposed to constant change from two sources. The first is direct change advancing from the broader police environment and which impacts on every unit, section and sub-section within the SAPS. The second is indirect change or change that is channelled through management development, because of the role that it plays in preparing managers in the SAPS to deal with change.

Van Beek (2003:118) makes clear predictions about the SAPS for its future beyond 2003 and in particular highlights the following possible future for the role of management development in the SAPS: 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 the lack of vision and leadership within the training component and the inability of its trainers to stay abreast with new technology. Whether this will happen remains to be seen, but the current reality of the strategic role and operational efficiency of this division within SAPS leads the researcher to agree with Van Beek and other roleplayers in the SAPS (see also Fourie, 2002:72)

The first management development initiative to attempt to deal with the above challenges was the Leadership Development Programme (LDP) and it succeeded according to Botha (1998 in Van Beek, 2003:113) in partly overcoming these identified gaps. Following on the LDP was a six-year management development programme for station managers (middle management) in the SAPS known as the JUPMET (Joint Universities Public Management Educational Trust) Station Management Programme (as explained in chapter one of this research). This middle management development programme was discontinued in 2001 and since then, no management development initiatives have been undertaken other than isolated once-off ad hoc training courses for small groups of managers where funding was provided by outside sources. These, and other training interventions that formed part of management development interventions in SAPS, will be dealt with in more detail in the following section.

4.5 TRAINING AS A MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION IN THE SAPS

The SAPS has the onerous task of policing a country with one of the highest crime rates in the world. In order to achieve its goal of ensuring a safe and secure environment for all the people of South Africa (SA Police Service Act, Act 68 of 1995), it must manage its processes and resources effectively. This implies the need for a cadre of competent and skilled managers in the service. To achieve this, training and development of managers is essential (Klipin, 2001:1). This section of chapter 4 aims to describe and analyse the main management development organisational

structures and the related training interventions that were implemented between 1994 and 2004.

4.5.1 1994 – 1999: The first five years

The organisational structure of the training component of the SAPS has changed considerably in the last 10 (1994 – 2004) years. These structural changes highlight the changes in approach and priority given to the various components of training within the SAPS, including the area of management development. The various changes are described in below:

Figure 14: Structure of training component: 1994 - 2001

(adapted from interviews with Senior Superintendent Miller, 2003 and Director Gosman, 2004)

This structure indicated that management development was a priority for the SAPS as it has a clear “home” and area for planning and action. From the interview with Senior Superintendent Miller (Head of the Paarl Training College) (2003) it was noted that the structure was relatively well understood by members working within the implementation arms of each division and lines of responsibility were clear. Most work done within the Management Development Component was outsourced to professional service providers and was funded from external sources.

In order to comprehend what was going on as far as management training was concerned in the SAPS in the post-1994 period, it is important to refer to the “International Training Committee” and their report which was

published under the title “Training in the South Africa Police Service”. This committee was, according to Van Beek (2003:110) given the task of evaluating all aspects of training in the SAPS in order to get training to such a standard as to build trust, respect and accountability. The committee’s function was to look at organisational as well as structural issues related to training. Divisional Commissioner Botha (as stated in Van Beek, 2003:110) explained that the concept of training also had to comply with civilian oversight and political direction that was initiated at ministerial level. The training section or subcomponent within management development in the SAPS was simultaneously exposed to various committees, internal budget controls that were contradictions of listed priorities, ministerial directives and structural reorganisation. According to the report by the Dutch advisors (as referred to in the previous section), training had a dual focus of expanding demilitarisation and facilitating integration. This is in line with what Brogden and Shearing (1993:166 – 173) suggest are core concepts in democratic policing.

Tobin (1993:16) submits that learning enables change in two ways. In the first instance it creates an openness to learn and helps people to recognise the need to change. Secondly, both change and learning are closely related and learning, training and/or development should be included in any change programme. According to a report submitted by the International Training Committee in December 1994, “Training in the South African Police Service” the content of any training programme must take notice of:

- the large social transition in South Africa;
- the importance of human rights; and
- the critical change from a force to a service.

The approach by Tobin as a general development philosophy and the caution expressed by the International Training Committee led to the learning organisation being the central theme in management training that took place in SAPS.

Du Preez & Prinsloo (1993:50 in Van Beek, 2003:111) point to the challenges that are posed to police training in the then “new” South Africa.

According to them, these challenges have specific bearing on basic training but are related to general management training as well. In the first instance they regard training as lacking discipline. Within management development, self-discipline is definitely amiss in the sense that learners still want to be trained and do not take responsibility for their own development. In the second instance, they point to the fact that training does not pose a challenge to learning to think. On a third level training is too theoretical and, on a fourth level, police role clarification does not receive enough attention. Their final complaint about training in the SAPS lies in the fact that too little attention is paid to leadership and management development.

4.5.2 1999 – 2004: The past five years

In an attempt to deal with these challenges, the SAPS Management Development Division partnered with the Royal Dutch Government in a transitional support programme. This formed part of a larger support partnership between the two governments. This partnership took place during 1998 and 1999 in the SAPS. This partnership initially took the form of a research project into SAPS Leadership Development and the product of this process was the report entitled “Research Report on Management Development in the South African Police Service” (1998) (see also Carstens & Van Beek, 2001:9). This report focused on the strategy, structure and products of the SAPS Leadership Development Component. In an attempt to move away from the exclusively reactive, short-term, demand-driven strategies of the SAPS in terms of management development, the report proposed that the following strategic aspects form the broad framework for a medium/long-term, sustainable management development strategy, from which the various training programmes could develop:

- Rectification of the structures of SAPS management development;
- Affirming the concept of “taking learning to the learners”;
- Modular programme of delivery;
- Maximise the utilisation of trainer capacity; and

- Integrated management development programmes.

This report (1998:12) also proposed that the SAPS leadership development component adopt a much more structured and organised approach to the outsourcing of certain aspects of its products (training) to external service providers (trainers). In this regard, outsourcing could be addressed in an incremental manner, as represented by the dotted-line triangle in Figure 15 below:

Figure 15: Formal Management Development Programme System

(Adapted from Carstens & Van Beek, 2001: 10)

This figure shows that more aspects of each training programme could be outsourced the higher-up in the system that the training was taking place. This would allow for precious input from external professionals in terms of the design and delivery of some of the training products. It is important to note that the higher-up into the management levels one progresses, the less police-specific the programme content should become. An aspect of cardinal importance according to Carstens & Van Beek (2001:10), in this regard is that the processes of outsourcing should be properly managed and co-ordinated from within the component.

Regarding the design and structure of the products delivered by the component, the key recommendation in the report was the implementation of the concept of taking learning to the learner. It is also proposed that the programmes be designed in such a way that the contact sessions never exceed five working days at a time. Rather than having a programme consisting of an eight-week contact session, programmes could consist of several shorter contact sessions spread over a longer period of time. These programmes, consisting of the shorter locally-delivered contact sessions, could either be residential in nature, making use of private lodging and conference facilities, or learners could attend on a daily basis.

The strength of this approach lies in the fact that it breaks the mould of a vicious learning sequence and builds on to a more virtuous learning sequence as described by Klipin and Carstens (in Reynecke and Fourie, 2001: 89-90). The time spent by learners between contact sessions will allow confronting of real conditions with the newly-acquired knowledge, skills and attitudes as well as addressing the problem of learning transfer constructively. The opportunity of immediate application by learners of their new insights through the modular approach will also go a long way in facilitating not only individual effectiveness, but also organisational learning.

The report also strongly recommended a block-release modular system of training delivery. Such an approach would allow for the design of programmes that integrate theory and management practice in a coherent manner, with learners being able to experience practical implementation reality and to provide feedback on that at the next contact session. This will also enable learners to launch action projects at their respective places of work, as part of the formal programme content.

In an attempt to optimise the use of trainer capacity, the report proposed that SAPS Leadership Development employ a team-trainer system. The team-trainer system calls for the current trainers to become topic or content generalists, enabling teams of two trainers to single-handedly deliver

management development programmes on a decentralised basis throughout the country in the various provinces and areas. Such a system could assert the above-mentioned notion of organisational learning within the component, allowing for improved trainer capacity and overall effectiveness of SAPS management development.

It was also proposed in the report that the evaluation methods employed on management development programmes be broadened to include written as well as oral evaluations of individuals and groups. In this regard the management development process, as discussed above, should emphasise activities that will assist managers to actually learn from actions undertaken. In-basket written evaluations should be supported by subsequent individual oral evaluation sessions. These oral evaluation sessions should be conducted by the two trainers assisted by two senior managers from the local area or province at the end of each programme.

After the completion of the Research Report on Management Development in the South African Police Service (1998), the Danish Embassy entered into a further agreement with the National Commissioner of the SAPS. This agreement was reached in order to fund the implementation of the recommendations contained in the report over a three-year period from April 1999 to April 2002. This agreement culminated in a project being run in a three-way partnership between the Danish Embassy, the Graduate School of Public and Development Management at the University of the Witwatersrand and SAPS Leadership Development.

With the challenges as described above in mind, the management development processes within SAPS were redesigned into the following structure in 2002.

Figure 16: Structure of Training Component: 2002

(adapted from interviews with Senior Superintendent Miller, 2003 and Director Gosman, 2004)

This structure shows no specific “home” for management development as an area of focus. It is assumed that it falls under “generic skills development” as a possible area of learning. From the interview with Senior Superintendent Miller (2003), it was noted that the Research and Development Component has no clear leadership as the position of Head of this component has been vacant for more than seven months. The Head of the Basic Training Component was, at the time of writing, also vacant due to the previous incumbent of the position being suspended for unprofessional conduct. The In-service Training Component has a new SAPS member in the position of Head (as from December 2002) and as such has not yet delivered on any of the unit’s goals or deliverables. There are as yet no sub-units within this section to perform the various tasks. The last component of External Provision and Generic Skills Development is staffed at present by new members to the SAPS Training Division and this is the section that the Paarl Training College falls under in terms of direct delivery of training products. This section is also supposed to be responsible for the creation of a policy for management development and the implementation and roll-out of various management related training programmes within the SAPS. To date (December 2003), no management development programmes have been developed or delivered. Senior Superintendent Miller noted that there has been much discussion around a

middle management training programme that should be outsourced again – similar to the JUPMET Station Management Programme (this training programme is explained in more detail later on in this section). Currently there are new recommendations to change the structure of the whole training division, this is illustrated below.

Figure 17: Proposed New Structure of Training Component: 2004/5

(adapted from interviews with Senior Superintendent Miller, 2003 and Director Gosman, 2004)

This new recommendation for the structure of the National Training Component shows that the Research and Development Component and the Assessment, Evaluation and Standards Component have fallen away in order to delegate these two areas of responsibility to the level of delivery at the various training colleges and to the various external service providers. In other words, it is to be the responsibility of the institution providing the training, to do its own research and curriculum development and to assess, evaluate and develop standards for their own learning outcomes and unit standards. According to Senior Superintendent Miller (2003) this is seen as a very positive move for the Paarl Training College as it can now potentially have more control and input into its delivery products, and avoid the current bureaucratic delays in developing and delivering training that is molded according to the learning needs of the participants.

During this time period four main management development training programmes were implemented by the SAPS in partnership with various external service providers. These training programmes were being implemented as outcomes of this report and attempted to implement the specific recommendations it put forward. These training programmes included:

1. The Leadership Development Programme – for top management;
2. The Station Management Programme – for middle management at station level;
3. The Operational Management Programme – for junior to middle managers; and
4. The Basic Management Programme – for all new and potential managers.

During 2000 and 2001, these programmes were evaluated in terms of their impact on changing delivery and management approaches in the SAPS. The following section summarises the main findings for each of these management training programmes in SAPS.

4.6 MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT TRAINING PROGRAMMES IN SAPS: 1994 - 2004

This section discusses the various management development training programmes that were implemented in the SAPS from 1994 – 2004. These training programmes fall within the legislative environment of Skills Development (see Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998). Within this legislative environment that was formalised with the Act in 1998, all training programmes need to be aligned with various national accreditation criteria and standard generating bodies. These various so-called tools were put in place through this legislation in order to provide for the recognition of prior learning and the standardisation of qualifications within various sectors. The policing sector is one of the sectors covered in this legislation and as such started the process in 1998 of aligning themselves to the requirements of

this legislation. The specific management development training programmes within the SAPS will now be discussed in more detail.

4.6.1 The Leadership Development Programme in SAPS: 1995 - 1998

A central government document which has influenced thinking with regard to management development and training in the public service and hence the SAPS, is the Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service. The White Paper (1995:22) states that, "The public service has a need for managers who not only should have organisational and technical skills, but also the leadership and vision to innovate policies. Thus, loyalty to the government of the day should not preclude creativity and visionary thinking on the part of public service managers". The attempt by the SAPS to develop such managers was spearheaded by the Leadership Development Programme (LDP). This programme was a leadership development intervention aimed at developing change management skills amongst the members of the management forum (top management). The whole management forum (the national commissioner, four deputy national commissioners, five divisional heads and nine provincial commissioners) was involved in the first version of the LDP. A second round of implementation was rolled out the following year and this included the next 100 most senior managers in the SAPS. The Dutch government with its Donor Assistance Programme covered the cost of the LDP and it was the direct result of a proposal made in the report to the Dutch Minister of Home Affairs (Zakelijke Verslag van de Adviesactiviteiten in Zuid-Afrika met betrekking tot de Nieuwe Opzet van Management-development en Training: Periode 6 Februari tot 1 April 1995 gericht tot Ministerie van Buitelandse Zaken in Van Beek, 2003:113). This programme was the first of its kind in the SAPS because of the manner in which the skills of various academics (outside the police) were combined in it, as well as the manner in which the programme was presented outside of a police environment. In his 1996 annual report Fivaz (1996:27-28) mentioned that the programme had been completed, but he made no mention of whether it was successful or not. He also made mention of plans for basic management training (not

development) and station commander training, but he said nothing about further top, senior and middle management development. Notwithstanding this, the LDP did provide the management development section of the SAPS with valuable experience as far as redefining content, context and methodology was concerned. The value of the programme rested in the fact that change management was given priority regarding context together with adult learning techniques as far as methodology was concerned.

The LDP was developed to be presented in a modular format and consisted of five modules, each paying attention to one of the disciplines of the learning organisation as written about by Senge (1990):

- personal mastery;
- mental models;
- shared vision;
- team learning; and
- systems thinking.

The programme extended over a three-month period with five three-day sessions, each dealing with a discipline. Other secondary themes were the laws of the learning organisation and learning disabilities. The methodology of presentation was selected to accommodate the principles of adult learning or andragogics. This methodological approach was based on the following assumptions concerning the top managers involved:

- They are self-directing and in charge of their own development;
- They hold a reservoir of experience and only need a common forum to share their knowledge with each other;
- They need to learn as a function of their developmental stage, moving into top management;
- They are problem- and task-oriented;
- They view learning as life-centred and learning as such must fit into their careers; and
- They are intrinsically motivated to learn.

Van Beek (2003:115) argues that the LDP might sound as close to perfection as possible. This was not the case. The programme itself as

well as its legacy to management development presented some problems. The LDP was extremely expensive as far as cost and time were concerned (opportunity cost). The time pressure on the participants in addition to the pressure created by them being away from their offices were counterproductive as far as the learning process was concerned. The participants often lacked focus because of these externalities (Botha, 1998 in Van Beek, 2003:115). The LDP, as the flagship of management development in the new South Africa, created some enigmas for management development. First, it created the elusion that interactive training, group sessions and critical discussions could be equated to adult learning. Secondly, it fabricated the illusion (in the minds of many police members) that the learning organisation is an eternal truth, the only truth. Finally it inferred that management development must be expensive and delivered by non-police facilitators in order to be of any value. The saddest legacy of the LDP is however not its cost or effect on management development, but the fact that it appears not to have impacted on the participants. In a letter to the management forum, Botha (1998) asked them what their needs were (after completion of the LDP) as far as programmes of personal development were concerned. Under the auspices of continuous development (the most central theme of the learning organisation) small conferences or colloquiums were suggested because they would address the two biggest problems of the LDP, namely cost and time. No response was received from any of the members of the management forum. This presents one with the question of whether or not change and development were viewed as one-off occurrences. The implication here is that the LDP was viewed as “nice to have at the time that it was presented” or even worse, something that had to be “endured in order to please the politicians.” This indicates a violation of the central philosophy behind the LDP as a programme - to initiate personal development on a continual basis.

4.6.2 The JUPMET Station Management Programme for SAPS: 1996 - 2002

Within the context of the changes in structure and priority of the training division of the SAPS nationally, the need was identified in 1995 for a middle-management level training programme to develop and enhance the management skills and aptitudes of station managers in the SAPS. Through the change in policing policy at that time to a focus on community partnerships, the SAPS realised that there was a need for a change in management styles, especially at station level where most of this direct interaction with the communities took place.

In this light, the Joint Universities Public Management Educational Trust (known as JUPMET) was contracted by the SAPS (and paid for through external funding) to design, develop and deliver such a national middle-management training programme. JUPMET consists of six South African Universities that have specialist units (departments) in public management. They include the University of Durban-Westville (in Durban); University of Pretoria (Pretoria); University of the Witwatersrand (Johannesburg); University of Fort Hare (Bisho); University of the Western Cape (Cape Town) and the University of Stellenbosch (Cape Town). This regional spread of expertise, facilitators, venues, resources and local knowledge of policing conditions and challenges provided a unique opportunity in the delivery of effective management development support for the SAPS.

The main aim of this training programme, known as the Police Station Management Programme (PSMP), was to support station managers in this change process. This course provided the following specific focus in the development of management competencies in the SAPS (CASE, 1997:3):

- Leadership and management skills of police station managers;
- Management theories, techniques and processes;
- Managers abilities to see themselves as key agents in the change process;

- Community policing and the ideals it supports (such as community participation to provide cost-effective and proactive solutions to crime detection and prevention); and
- The importance of involving all SAPS personnel in effective and relevant decision-making and problem-solving processes at station level.

The PSMP began in 1996 and implementation was terminated by SAPS in 2002. Originally there were six training modules of three days each. These included:

1. The Learning Organisation;
2. Management and Leadership;
3. Community Policing;
4. Problem-solving Policing;
5. Human Resource Management; and
6. Station level Administration.

After each complete delivery of the programme (all modules), evaluations and impact assessments took place. Various external service providers were contracted to do thorough impact assessments and tracer studies of the learning that took place. These include, for reference purposes:

1. 1997 CASE (Community Agency for Social Enquiry) Impact Assessment of JUPMET PSMP training;
2. 2001 Insideout/Strategy and Tactics Impact Assessment of JUPMET training completed during 1998 and 1999; and
3. 2001 Convergent Ideas Impact Evaluation for the SAPS Training Division of three management training courses (Basic Management Programme, Operational Management Programme and Station Management Programme)

Through the feedback from these evaluations, the direct feedback from participants and the changes in the SAPS training component (which changed their priorities for training), changes were made to the structure, delivery pattern and content of the JUPMET PSMP training course. The

original six three-day modules were changed in 1999 into the following four five-day modules:

1. Changing to manage transforming organisations;
2. Community policing and crime prevention;
3. Leadership for strategic planning and performance management; and
4. Policy management and human rights practice.

The methodology of this training programme was firmly grounded in the principles of adult learning and the creation of experiential learning practices. The main focus throughout all modules was to allow participants to share their knowledge, expertise and practices with fellow managers, discuss successes and failures in their approaches and ideas, link this to frameworks for action and understanding (theory) through discussions and real examples within SAPS, with a clear and direct focus on action planning and decisions with which they could return to their stations.

According to the various impact assessments that were completed on this training programme (see CASE report (1997); Insideout report (June 2001) and Convergent Ideas report (December 2001) participant evaluations and impact assessments indicated that the managers that completed this training programme found it very different to the type and style of training at the police colleges. Their reactions were positive and the most significant comments related to the fact that they were pushed past their assumed abilities and found that they were able to be creative and find ways of dealing proactively with problems that had been in existence at their stations for long periods of time. The main criticism of this programme was that too few participants from each station unit were included on the programme. In most cases it was only the station commissioner and one other person that completed the programme – and then not necessarily at the same time. This created the challenge of actually implementing what they had learned and experienced on the course. At stations where more than one or two individuals had completed the programme, support for their ideas and initiatives was greater and more success stories are noted.

Since the completion of the last JUPMET programme in 2002, no management development training programme has been provided by SAPS to this level of management in the SAPS.

4.6.3 The Operational Management Programme for SAPS: 1999 - 2000

The Operational Management Programme (OMP) was piloted in the mid 1990's. It focused on developing the generic and neutral management skills of managers who are responsible for "operationalising" police strategies. This course consisted of three modules:

1. Personal effectiveness
2. Organisational environment
3. Generic management functions

In general, the results of the impact assessment on this programme (Convergent Ideas, 2001:9) indicated that there was too much overlap between this programme and the JUPMET Station Management Programme and the Basic Management Programme. In addition, the participants in this programme are noted as not always being managers, but rather more junior staff that might become managers. This created the learning problem of the participants not having actual management experience to relate to and much of the learning came across as "nice-to-have" but not essential.

4.6.4 The Basic Management Programme for SAPS: 2001 - 2002

The design and development of the Basic Management Programme (BMP) which was launched in May 2001, followed on the initial success of the OMP. The BMP aims at developing first-time supervisor's generic management skills. This course consisted of ten modules:

1. Team building;
2. Communications;
3. Time and stress management;
4. Conflict resolution;

5. Creative problem solving;
6. Planning;
7. Organising and delegation;
8. Coordination;
9. Control; and
10. Leadership and motivation.

The impact assessment by Convergent Ideas (2002:9) indicated that although the content of this course tended to be in the right direction generally, the actual treatment of the topics did not provide the training most required by participants. Topics covered such as communication, team building and time management were noted only as interesting by learners and were not of much practical use to the supervisors. The following competencies for supervisors, which were included in their job description but were not covered by the course include: manager as coach, recall and information processing and basic literacy and numeracy.

One of the main stumbling blocks noted by the trainers of this course focused around the attitude of the learners. The learners did not often take responsibility for their own learning and development and a feeling of “despair and not able to take control” was often given as an excuse for not buying into new techniques or skills. This related to the strong organisational culture of SAPS and the apparent disempowerment of this level of supervisor.

These training programmes, built around the dual objectives of cost effectiveness and effective learning, have proven to be a watershed not only within SAPS Leadership Development Component, but also within the broader SAPS training environment.

The primary source of innovation has proven to be the principle of taking learning to the learners. The implementation of this principle, through the local delivery of programmes, by facilitators attached to the national Leadership Development Component, rocked the established culture of

“mediocrity” within the SAPS training division (Carstens & Van Beek, 2001:13). This strategy not only challenged the notion of residential training programmes presented at a centralised national institution, but also seriously questioned the institutional emphasis on quantity before quality (Carstens & Van Beek, 2001:13).

Through these various management training programmes in the SAPS and the research done during this time on the processes of management development and the practices of training and developing the managers within SAPS, it has become clear that the SAPS in general, but specifically the training division within SAPS, is faced with a number of challenges that will need to be overcome if management development and training in particular are to become successful tools of change in the years to come.

4.7 CHALLENGES FACING MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT WITHIN THE SAPS

This chapter has outlined the historical evolution of the SAPS in general, and specifically traced the development and changes in the approach to and implementation of the various management development interventions in SAPS. Taking this background and the shifts in approach into account, there are various clear challenges that the SAPS faces with regard to management development. These include the following:

1. No clear “home” for management development within the SAPS organisational structure;
2. A “blind spot” towards change within the SAPS training division;
3. The power of the “old” police culture;
4. A dependence on the use of residential training programmes;
5. Confusion regarding the rank vs. post-training interventions;
6. A prevalent “sausage-machine mentality”;
7. Discrepancies in the focus on junior, middle and top-level management development;
8. A donor-dependency syndrome;
9. A focus on teaching as opposed to learning; and

10. An internal capacity crisis.

Each of these will be discussed in detail below.

1. No clear “home” for management development within the SAPS organizational structure: Both Director Viljoen, Head of Management Services in the Western Cape (2003 interview), and Senior Superintendent Miller, Head of the Paarl SAPS Training College (2003 interview) pointed out that the Management Development Component in the SAPS still (in 2003) did not have a “clear home” within SAPS. Director Viljoen explained that his division, Management Services, was made up of three components:

1. Efficiency Services;
2. Strategic Management; and
3. Information Systems Management (ISM).

None of these components dealt with management development. It was their (Management Services) mandate and agreed view that management development is a training responsibility and did not belong in their division. Their main area of responsibility was to provide guidance to the Province in the creation of the Provincial Strategic Plan and Operational Plan. They could assist with planning, resource allocation for operations and the provision of information from which decisions could be made, generally, therefore, providing a managerial advice and policy formulation role for the Province.

The Provincial Training Division in turn did not see management development fitting under their banner either. They saw their main responsibility as being the provision of functional, operational, basic training to members. Management training was seen as something to be outsourced and done by the National Division. (Interview with Superintendent Arendse, Head of Provincial Training Western Cape, August 2003). This view of the role of the Provincial Training division is not consistent in all provinces. Superintendent Bean, Head of the Northern Cape SAPS Training Division, feels that management development and support does form part of their responsibility and they build management

development support processes into their business plans each year. It is however notable that most of their management development initiatives are funded by external funding from SIDA (Swedish Development Agency) as there is not internal SAPS budget for this.

Senior Superintendent Miller, Head of the Paarl Training College, explained further (2003 interview) that management development should be their responsibility at the college and that they would like to do more towards developing and implementing a national management development policy. The Paarl Training College, known as the Leadership Institute within the SAPS, is the “home” for any management and leadership training course development and implementation. Currently however, they are only running Basic Training Programmes at the College and are not mandated to do any other forms of training. Senior Superintendent Miller specifically described his College as being in a “vacuum” for the past four years. Since the cancellation of the other management development initiatives in 2001/2002 by Head Office (National level), there have been no management development training programmes at the College. He concluded by stating that there is still no coordination between his College, the Management Services division or the Provincial Training division within the Province. There are no meetings where they discuss communal issues or become aware of what the others are planning and implementing. The policy and integration levels are weakly coordinated.

2. A “blind spot” towards change within the SAPS training division: Carstens and Van Beek (2001: 13 – 15) and Klipin and Carstens (in Reyneke & Fourie, 2001: 142) discuss the following as challenges facing the training division within SAPS. Which still ring true today (Viljoen, 2003 and Miller, 2003). The first challenge they discuss is that it has become evident that the SAPS Training Division has developed a blind spot for change, characterised by some levels of organisational inertia and stagnation. It appears as if many of the senior personnel are content with what has been achieved until now and are presently in a state of complacency. The re-instatement of the so-called officer's course is a

typical example of this. The SAPS training management also seems to favour artificial changes like restructuring of the organisation, rather than talking about new strategies for effective outcomes-based training programmes.

3. The power of the “old” police culture: Another challenge include the fact that probably the single greatest threat to broad-spectrum organisational change within the SAPS resides in the power of the old police culture. According to Klipin (2001:25 and 67), in a police organisation that has a very strong culture of serving an autocratic government, along mainly racial lines, a danger exists that the pre-existing dominant culture will form the basis for the informal learning processes and perpetuate the practices of a bygone era. The bottom line is that the socialisation processes that occur at police station level are stronger than the new ideas presented in the classroom.

4. A dependence on the use of residential training programmes: Further to the above, the dependence on the use of residential training programmes at large training centers not only flies in the face of financial prudence, but also does little to strengthen the moral fiber of learners. It is well-known, but seldom acknowledged, that many learners who attend residential programmes at SAPS training institutions, find most value not in the learning event, but rather in the opportunity to have a heightened social life while away from home and the office.

5. Confusion regarding the rank vs. post-training interventions: Another challenge includes the confusion regarding the rank vs. post-training debate within the SAPS training division, as well as the rest of the organisation, that has not only been draining the limited resources available for people development but also ignored outcomes-based education principles. The traditional paradigm, the legacy of a paramilitary past, is that all managers of a certain rank (e.g. Captains) need exactly the same training, irrespective of the actual job they do. The officer’s course mentioned above is, again, a case in point. The criteria for this programme

has been that, to become an officer (as opposed to a non-commissioned officer), all candidates had to pass this hurdle whether they were a criminal investigator, a platoon commander at the riot unit, or a human resource manager at station level. Rank-based training has become just as much a part of the SAPS, as it has been part of the previous police agencies in this country.

6. A prevalent “sausage-machine mentality”: The prevailing “sausage-machine mentality” towards training within SAPS is another challenge training has sustained. This is done through the organisation’s reliance upon quick-fix demand-driven activities in response to the crime problem in South Africa. Parliament wants to know from the Minister how many police managers have been trained during the past year, the Minister in return demands answers from the National Commissioner, who then instructs the Divisional Head of SAPS Training to train more managers. This fixation on events causes a knee-jerk reaction from the training division that literally kicks quality out of the classroom window. With an over-emphasis on quantity, little attention is paid to outcomes-based training. The numbers of learners to be trained are written into the annual performance contracts of senior training managers, while these agreements remain silent about impact and quality of training.

7. Discrepancies in the focus on junior, middle and top level management development: Since the conclusion of the LDP in 1997, the SAPS Leadership Development Component has focused its energy and attention on developing junior- and middle-level police managers. The challenge that has developed is the absence of a coherent top-management development programme.

8. A donor-dependency syndrome: Further to the above the SAPS leadership development’s reliance upon externally-funded initiatives over the past few years has manifested in a donor-dependency syndrome within the training division that can only be described as disturbing in nature. Donor assistance in principle is to be welcomed especially where macro

societal transformation is dependent on external support. But when the changes facilitated through donor assistance are not sustainable by the recipient organisation once the donor has gone, serious questions arise about sustainable development. Currently SAPS Leadership Development was faced with the prospect of returning to old-style residential leadership development programmes upon completion of the Danish-funded project in early 2002, just because the notion of taking learning to the learner does not fit the paradigm of key decision-makers in the training division.

9. A focus on teaching as opposed to learning: Another challenge is the focus on teaching as opposed to learning that is undermining outcomes-based development of people. In many cases ignorance amongst personnel of the SAPS training division still dictates that a training event equates to learning. The focus in most classrooms is on the trainers who dispense knowledge to the uninformed, as opposed to focusing on the learning process and utilising the experience of learners.

10. An internal capacity crisis: The last of the challenges is that the SAPS training division is faced by an internal capacity crisis regarding leadership development. Currently the Leadership Development Component has 10 full time facilitators who are tasked to develop the entire leadership corps of the SAPS.

In order for the SAPS to constructively deal with the challenges mentioned above, a change of managerial attitude towards outcomes-based people development, needs to be facilitated. This change of attitude is needed not only within the SAPS training division, but also within the broader organisation.

4.8 CONCLUSION

While we must be careful to avoid placing blame solely on police management, it is apparent that unless there is a radical reawakening and restructuring of managerial initiatives which are relevant to the exigencies of

the police environment, the professionalisation of the police will continue to suffer.

It is important that police management once and for all discard the fallacious argument that “full enforcement of law” is legislatively mandated. This has seriously undermined such concepts as cost-benefit analysis, market analysis, forecasting, management-by-objectives, etc., all of which are fundamental to the strategic management of police resources.

While short-term rewards are important to the daily maintenance of a police department, strategic or long-term planning provides the agency with a sense of purpose, future and command. There is no reason why management should not establish goals and objectives annually and develop plans detailing the initiatives to be undertaken on a systematic and continuous basis.

The concept of risk-management must be incorporated into the thought process of future police managers. Future police managers must learn the skill of managing risks, carving out bold, innovative and ingenious methods to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation.

There is also a distinct need to spend more time and money on the early identification of prospective managers and provide the necessary training. Such an approach would have a profound effect on the quality of police management.

Conflict management must replace the traditional methods of police management which have been built on such notions as loyalty, friendship and acquiescence. Police management can no longer afford to see the critical employee as a threat; rather they must seek to harness the constructive energies of the employee, making his/her tasks more rewarding and challenging.

Whether the police are able to perform their tasks efficiently, effectively and humanistically depends to a large extent upon the leadership that the contemporary police manager exhibits. This police manager must recognise the limitations of the criminal justice system, which implicitly requires the judicious use of police discretion. It is only through the process of prioritising crime problems according to the real threat to the community that police managers will be able to meet the challenges of the 21st century.

With the current understanding of the management development framework and practices of the SAPS at national, provincial and local levels, it is evident that station managers in the SAPS are not currently part of a well-structured, planned and policy-aligned system of management development. Taking the management competencies of these station managers into account as laid out in chapter 3 of this research, combined with the framework of management development and training in SAPS as described in this chapter, the following chapter will collect data from station managers in the East Metropole of the Cape Town SAPS in order to measure the current level of management capacity and management support for station managers in the SAPS today.

CHAPTER 5

AN EVALUATION OF MANAGEMENT CAPACITY AND MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT SUPPORT, AT STATION LEVEL IN THE SAPS: A CASE STUDY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the historical overview of the SAPS with a specific focus on the management development within the SAPS. It provided an overview of the practices, policies, structures and management development interventions of the SAPS. Included in the previous chapter were critical challenges that management development within the SAPS is currently facing. This chapter aims at collecting information related to management development practices, support and interventions from station commissioners in the East Metropole of the City of Cape Town SAPS (the case study). The specific research objectives of chapter 5 are to:

1. Define and describe the methodology that will be utilised to obtain the information from the station commissioners of the East Metropole of the City of Cape Town SAPS;
2. Collect data from the sample group through a standardised questionnaire and present the facts as obtained; and to
3. Analyse the data and document the most important components of the analysis both in writing and diagrammatically.

This chapter aims to document the methodology and data that is obtained from the sample group, analyse the data and make various comparisons. This chapter forms the basis of chapter 6 in which various interpretations and recommendations will be made.

5.2 METHODOLOGY

The research problem focuses on the perceived variation in the levels of managerial capacity of the current station managers in the SAPS. The goal of the research is to compile a comprehensive list of managerial

competencies for these station managers through a combination of international best practice comparisons and local research. This was completed in chapter 2. A comparison now needs to be made of the current perceived managerial capacity of station managers in the East Metropole of Cape Town SAPS (as a case study), to this list of competencies, in order to measure the perceived gap in management capacity and to analyse the effect that the SAPS management development processes have on these station managers, with particular reference to the PSMP.

The research objectives of this study, as explained in chapter 1, are:

1. What are the management competencies of middle-level managers in the public service in general?
2. What should a generic management profile of a station manager in SAPS look like?
3. What management development initiatives and support are available to station managers in SAPS?
4. Have these management development initiatives in SAPS had a positive effect on the ability of station managers (in the East Metropole of Cape Town SAPS) to manage their stations successfully?

5.2.1 Unit of analysis and research design

The unit of analysis in this research is the individual, as defined by Brynard and Hanekom (1997:34). The researcher wishes to investigate the conditions, orientations and actions of a group of station managers. (See also Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:65)

With the above in mind, the research design will be quasi-experimental in nature. Mouton and Marais (1988:121) describe this as a relaxation of the requirements of pure experiments, while at the same time maintaining a higher level of control and rigour than is possible in pre-experimental designs. To be more specific, a *Contrasted group design* (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:77) will be applied in this research. This design is defined as

one in which the researcher's goal is to find groups that are dissimilar or contrasting in terms of a particular aspect. If the groups are dissimilar in terms of one aspect, and records a difference in terms of another aspect, it can be concluded that the differences in this aspect are due to the differences between the two groups. In this specific case study, the perceived competencies of the station managers of the various stations in the East Metropole of the Cape Town SAPS, are measured through a questionnaire in terms of set similar aspects which include their rank, position, qualifications, years of experience and management development interventions in which they have been involved in (training and non-training linked activities). These aspects are then compared to the list of indicated management competencies of these station managers. Where there are significant differences in perceived competency, the correlations to the set similar aspects (as mentioned above) are then made to determine possible influence.

In measuring the perceived competencies of the station managers self-evaluation is being used as the measurement instrument. Self evaluation can possibly lead to evaluation apprehension (Mouton, 2001:07) in which the subjects (the station managers) may be trying to impress the person that is evaluating their competency and thereby not provide accurate measurements. Further to the above, evaluation research, which can use various types of data collection, has the limitations of access, coverage and timing of the study (Mouton, 2001:159). The main sources of error in this type of methodology relate to measurement errors by the subjects (Mouton, 2001:159).

In terms of this research process, the above limitations were taken into account by the researcher and attempts were made to curb these limitations by keeping the sample group as broad as possible (East Metropole of the Cape Town SAPS), by explaining the concepts and questionnaire to the respondents (station managers) and by clustering the competencies into understandable and related areas of performance to make assessments easier. The alternative methodology of evaluating the actual management

competencies of the sample group of station managers (through a battery of validated competency tests) was considered and decided against due to the large scope of such an assessment, the lack of availability of the respondents for an extended period of time, and the necessity of such information for the objectives of this type of study was not deemed as necessary.

5.2.2 Sampling and sample size

The East Metropole of the Cape Town SAPS was selected as the sample for this research process as it is representative of the SAPS in the following aspects:

1. It stretches geographically from the north to the south of the Cape Town metropolitan area, thereby providing a balanced cross section of communities/environments;
2. It includes stations that are large, medium and small in size;
3. It includes stations with station managers representative of all the relevant ranks (from Captain to Senior Superintendent);
4. It includes stations that are well-resourced (from previously “white” areas) and stations that are less well-resourced (from previously “black” areas);
5. It includes so called “Presidential Stations” (stations that are highlighted as high-crime areas and as such received additional resources and support) and non-Presidential Stations that operate on normal budget and resource allocations; and
6. Finally it includes a relatively balanced representation of station managers that have completed the PSMP so as to provide the necessary comparison group to the sample.

The size of this sample is 27 police stations (see Annexure 2 for the list of specific stations). This is a relatively large sample within the SAPS as the East Metropole is one of the largest management areas within Cape Town and within the SAPS as a whole. At each of these 27 stations, both the

Station Commissioner and the Head of Detectives were provided with the questionnaire. There are therefore 54 individual station managers that were included in this sample. 46 completed survey questionnaires were received from this sample. This is a response rate of 85.2%. According to “The Survey System” (<http://surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm>) sample size calculator, for a sample of 54 questionnaires, a response of 42 questionnaires is required for a 95% confidence level. This confidence level provides evidence of how sure one can be in interpreting the results and generalizing these to the universe population. It is expressed as a percentage of the total population whose answers would lie within the same range. The interval range used in this calculation is 5.

5.2.3 Permission and approval for data collection

Permission and approval for this data collection process was obtained from the office of the Western Cape Provincial Commissioner (Commissioner Petros) in writing, on 25 June 2004, a copy whereof is attached as annexure 3. East Metropole Area Commissioner, Commissioner Mondiza, was consulted on the data collection process on Tuesday, 17 August 2004 and approval was obtained from this office to commence with the process of data collection.

5.2.4 Survey questionnaire design and structure

The questionnaire that was utilised in this study (see Annexure 1) comprises three sections and is six pages in length. The questionnaire was designed in such a way so as to be easily understandable, fairly easy to complete, and relatively quick to complete (estimated time: 20 minutes). These three criteria were very important considerations in the design of the tool as it is well known that SAPS personnel are bombarded with research questionnaires from various sources (both internal and external to SAPS) and become tired of the constant demand for their time and information. In addition, a Kit Kat chocolate was included in each envelope for each respondent to encourage them to “take a break” (the catch phrase of the

chocolate) and fill in the questionnaire. This appears to have had a positive effect due to the high response rate that was received. This survey questionnaire was reviewed and adapted by the Research Co-ordinator of the School of Public Management and Planning, Ms Adele Burger, in September and October 2004 so as to ensure its logic, user-friendliness, validity and compatibility to the programme SPSS for data analysis purposes.

Section 1 of the survey questionnaire focuses on the personal particulars of the respondents without sacrificing the confidentiality of those involved. These personal particulars included current rank, position at the station, gender, race, and number of years in SAPS, number of years at the station, number of years in management position in SAPS, number of years they intend to stay in the SAPS and management positions held outside of the SAPS. All of these questions provide base information from which correlations can be made. Information from section 1 also provides sufficient information to determine the balance and scope of the sample.

Section 2 of the survey questionnaire focuses on the management training and involvement in management development activities. This is an essential measure so that possible correlations can be made between the perceived management capacity of the respondents and the management training that they have received, both through SAPS and outside service providers. This section measured the formal qualifications of each respondent and the year that it was completed, the management training as completed within SAPS and the year that it was completed, the involvement of each respondent in various management development interventions within SAPS, the opinion of each respondent of the type and quality of training that they have received from SAPS and lastly measured any management training that has been completed by the respondents outside of the SAPS.

Section 3 of the survey questionnaire focuses on management capacity and development of the station managers in the SAPS. In this section, the list of competencies as compiled in chapter 3 of this research was utilised and

each respondent measured him/herself according to each competency area. The various competencies are listed in the questionnaire (Annexure 1) and were divided into four competency clusters: Planning, organising, executing and control and evaluation. Each competency was measured according to a three point scale: No ability, some ability and well-developed ability. It must be stated here that each respondent was asked to rate themselves in terms of their own abilities. This section is therefore measuring their own perceived competence and not necessarily their actual competence. The measurement of their actual competence falls beyond the scope of this research and provides for future research possibilities on a smaller scale.

5.3. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

This section will provide the data (statistics) from the collected questionnaires from the various stations in the East Metropole of Cape Town SAPS. Each variable, as measured in the questionnaire, will be highlighted and explained according to the survey results.

5.3.1 SECTION 1: PERSONAL PARTICULARS

This part of chapter 5 deals with the data as collected in section 1 of the survey questionnaire. It deals only with personal details of the respondents and provides significant base information from which various comparisons can be made in terms of both management qualifications and capacity.

Your current rank

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Senior Supt	6	13.0	13.0	13.0
	Supt	20	43.5	43.5	56.5
	Captain	17	37.0	37.0	93.5
	Inspector	3	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

From the above it is evident that most of the station managers in the sample are either at the rank of Superintendent or Captain. The ranks found in the sample group range from Senior Superintendent at the highest level, to Inspector at the lowest level. The only rank not found in this sample that is relevant to the position of station manager is that of Director.

Your current position in the station (job title):

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Station Commissioner	21	45.7	45.7	45.7
	Head of Detectives	6	13.0	13.0	58.7
	Branch Commander	9	19.6	19.6	78.3
	Support Manager	5	10.9	10.9	89.1
	Group Commander	3	6.5	6.5	95.7
	Acting Station Commissioner	2	4.3	4.3	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

From the above it is evident that most of the respondents (45,7%) are in the position of Station Commissioner. 19,6% are Branch Commanders and a further 13% are in charge of the Detective units at the station. A Branch

Commander could also be a Detective Head. That makes 32.6% of the respondents Branch Commanders. 10,9% are Support Managers and only 4,3% are Acting Station Commissioners. This shows 100% of the respondents are in a position of management at the station, although not all are in the position of Station Commissioner.

When cross-tabulating the rank with the position at the station, the following is evident:

	Your current rank				Total
	Senior Supt	Supt	Captain	Inspector	
Station Commissioner	6	12	3	0	21
Head of Detectives	0	2	4	0	6
Branch Commander	0	4	5	0	9
Support Manager	0	0	2	3	5
Group Commander	0	0	3	0	3
Acting Station Commissioner	0	2	0	0	2
Total	6	20	17	3	46

Most Station Commissioners are Superintendents, while the Head of Detectives, Branch Commanders, Support Managers, and Group Commanders mostly come from the rank of Captain which is a relatively low -ranking officer in the SAPS. This shows that a significant portion of the management responsibilities and actions at stations are made by lower-ranked managers. 56% of the sample group is Station Commissioners with the rank of Superintendent or Senior Superintendent which indicates that at present the majority of management responsibility lies within these rank levels.

Gender:

		Your current rank				Total
		Senior Supt	Supt	Captain	Inspector	
Gender	Male	5	16	10	3	34
	Female	1	4	7	0	12
Total		6	20	17	3	46

From the sample group of respondents, 73.9% are males and 26,1% are females. This is a typical sample group of SAPS managers and is similar to the national statistics. What is significant is that of the female managers, most (58%) are Captains and only 41.6 % are of the rank of Superintendent or higher. Comparatively, the male respondents come mostly (61,7%) from the rank of Superintendent of higher. This again shows that males are in the majority and comprise higher rank levels than females.

Race:

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Black	6	13.0	13.0	13.0
White	12	26.1	26.1	39.1
Coloured	26	56.5	56.5	95.7
Indian	1	2.2	2.2	97.8
Other	1	2.2	2.2	100.0
Total	46	100.0	100.0	

From the above, it is significant to notice that 56,5% of the respondents are coloured, 26,1% are white and 13% are black. This shows a balanced representation of the population in the Western Cape Province and is similar to national statistics of SAPS.

		Your current rank				Total
		Senior Supt	Supt	Captain	Inspector	
Race	Black	0	4	2	0	6
	White	4	5	3	0	12
	Coloured	2	9	12	3	26
	Indian	0	1	0	0	1
	Other	0	1	0	0	1
Total		6	20	17	3	46

When cross-tabulating the race differentiation variable to the rank of the respondents, it is interesting to note that coloureds are mostly Captains, whites are mostly Superintendents or Senior Superintendents and blacks are mostly Superintendents. This indicates that the more senior ranks at station level are still mostly filled by whites, although there are more coloureds in general management positions.

Number of years in management position in SAPS:

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 0-2	8	17.4	17.4	17.4
3-5	11	23.9	23.9	41.3
5-8	18	39.1	39.1	80.4
8-10	2	4.3	4.3	84.8
10+	7	15.2	15.2	100.0
Total	46	100.0	100.0	

From the above it is evident that most (58,7%) of the respondents have been in a management position within the SAPS for between 5 – 8 years or longer. This indicates that most of the respondents have significant management experience and would have had the opportunity to undergo management training and support interventions.

		Your current rank				Total
		Senior Supt	Supt	Captain	Inspector	
No of years in management position in SAPS						
0-2	0	0	2	3	3	8
3-5	0	0	2	9	0	11
5-8	2	2	11	5	0	18
8-10	1	1	1	0	0	2
10+	3	3	4	0	0	7
Total		6	20	17	3	46

When comparing this to the rank structure of the respondents, most of them are from the ranks of Captain, Superintendent or Senior Superintendent which shows a strong middle management corps.

5.3.2 SECTION 2: MANAGEMENT TRAINING

This part of chapter 5 deals with section 2 of the survey questionnaire. It focuses on the management training and qualifications of the respondents and the related management development interventions in which they have been involved. This section aims at describing the level of qualification and learning of the respondents in terms of management competencies. This is essential for the research process as it provides a set of variables that influence the perceived competency of the station managers that is measured in section 3 of the survey questionnaire.

Qualification: Std 10/Grade 12

		Qualification: Std 10/Grade 12		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current rank	Senior Supt	5	1	6
	Supt	18	2	20
	Captain	12	5	17
	Inspector	2	1	3
Total		37	9	46

80,4% of the respondents have a Standard 10/Grade 12 qualification. This qualification was not always a requirement for the position of Station Commissioner and this explains why it is possible that nine of the respondents do not have this basic qualification.

Qualification: Bachelors degree

		Qualification: Bachelors degree		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current rank	Senior Supt	2	4	6
	Supt	6	14	20
	Captain	1	16	17
	Inspector	0	3	3
Total		9	37	46

It is notable that most (80,4%) of the respondents do not have a bachelor's degree qualification. This qualification is currently not a requirement for the position of Station Commissioner. Nine of the respondents do however have a bachelors degree, most (six) of whom have a Police Administration degree from Unisa.

Qualification: Post-graduate degree

		Qualification: Post-grad degree		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current rank	Senior Supt	1	5	6
	Supt	4	16	20
	Captain	1	16	17
	Inspector	0	3	3
Total		6	40	46

Only those respondents that already hold a bachelor's degree (above) could qualify with a post-graduate degree. What is very significant in this case is that six of the original nine respondents that have a bachelor's degree also have a post-graduate degree. Most of these have a post graduate qualification in either Police Administration or Public Management.

Qualification: Diploma

		Qualification: Diploma		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current rank	Senior Supt	6	0	6
	Supt	14	6	20
	Captain	7	10	17
	Inspector	0	3	3
Total		27	19	46

From the above it is evident that most (58,6%) of the respondents have a diploma of some type. Even those that already have degree qualifications also have additional diploma qualifications. The nature of these diplomas varies widely and are not all in the policing field.

Qualification: Certificate programme

		Qualification: Certificate programme		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current rank	Senior Supt	4	2	6
	Supt	6	14	20
	Captain	6	11	17
	Inspector	1	2	3
Total		17	29	46

Only 36% of the respondents have completed certificate training programmes. This is a relatively low percentage as certificate programmes are offered regularly by service providers in the SAPS for various short management courses. These certificate-type programmes are often add-on type skills that managers build into their portfolios. This indicates that most of the station managers only have the basic courses required by SAPS for their positions and not additional certificate programmes. Of those that have completed certificate programmes, most are in the areas of project management, negotiation skills and communication skills.

Qualification: Other

		Qualification: Other		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current rank	Senior Supt	1	5	6
	Supt	2	18	20
	Captain	1	16	17
	Inspector	0	3	3
Total		4	42	46

Only four (8,6%) of the respondents have completed courses that are not classified as any of the above training interventions. Most of these other courses have been done at outside institutions such as Woolworths, Kagiso and various universities. It is the assumption of the researcher that these courses have been listed here by the respondents due to the fact that they are possibly not certificated courses and therefore do not fall under the previously mentioned options.

Qualification: Incomplete qualifications

		Qualification: Incomplete qualifications		
		Yes	No	Total
Your current rank	Senior Supt	0	6	6
	Supt	1	19	20
	Captain	3	14	17
	Inspector	1	2	3
Total		5	41	46

Only five (10,8%) of the respondents have acknowledged any incomplete qualifications. This indicates that these participants began with a training programme of some sort and could not complete the full programme. All of the five respondents that have these incomplete qualifications, come from the lower-level ranks.

As described in chapter 4 of this research, the main management development interventions provided by SAPS between 1994 and 2004 comprise the following:

1. Basic management programme;
2. Operational management programme;
3. Station management programme;
4. Leadership development programme; and
5. Officers course.

Each of these was measured by the survey questionnaire and is listed below with the related data that was collected. In each case the management training programme is clustered according to the position of the respondent in order to ascertain the link between training completed and position held at the station (level of management).

Basic Management Programme

		Your current position in the station (job title)						Total
		Station Commissioner	Head of Detectives	Branch Commander	Support Manager	Group Commander	Acting Station Commissioner	
Management Training: Basic MP	Yes	8	3	3	1	0	0	15
	No	13	3	6	4	3	2	31
Total		21	6	9	5	3	2	46

This programme forms the foundation of the management development interventions as implemented in the SAPS. What is significant to note from this sample is that only 32,6% of the respondents have completed this training programme. This is a shocking statistic as one would assume that if this programme has not been completed, that the manager would not be able to continue through other related training programmes. From the data, this is clearly not the process that is followed. The implication is that the management development training interventions are not necessarily sequential or linked in any significant manner. Most of the respondents that have completed this programme are Station Commissioners or Heads of Detective branches at the stations. This is a positive indicator as the managers with the most responsibility at the station have this course as their founding programme.

Operational Management Programme

		Your current position in the station (job title)						Total
		Station Commissioner	Head of Detectives	Branch Commander	Support Manager	Group Commander	Acting Station Commissioner	
Management Training: Operational MP	Yes	8	3	5	0	0	0	16
	No	13	3	4	5	3	2	30
Total		21	6	9	5	3	2	46

This programme, as explained in chapter 4, focuses on the day-to-day management within the SAPS and is specifically for station managers. Once again it is significant here that only 34.7% of the respondents have

completed this training programme in the SAPS. This shows that most (65,2%) of the managers at station level in the sample are managing the day-to-day processes at their stations without the necessary formal training to guide and support their actions. This implies that they are learning these practices from other sources which were not measured in this study, but could include observation of other managers, organisational culture practices, external sources of training and support and other more limited management development interventions. This is, at the least, a relatively dangerous situation for our station managers to be in as they are at the coal-face of decision-making and community involvement, and yet the majority do not have the necessary training to do this work.

Station Management Programme

		Your current position in the station (job title)						Total
		Station Commissioner	Head of Detectives	Branch Commander	Support Manager	Group Commander	Acting Station Commissioner	
Management Training: Station MP	Yes	12	3	0	1	2	1	19
	No	9	3	9	4	1	1	27
Total		21	6	9	5	3	2	46

This training programme is the source of the original observations of the researcher in terms of this study and, as such, forms a subjective point of interest to the researcher. This data collected shows that only 41% of the respondents have successfully completed the Station Management Programme (PSMP) which implies that 59% have not had the opportunity to undergo this training. This PSMP was a specialised management development intervention purposefully designed to develop and support the station manager in his responsibilities at station level. It is significant here to note that less than half of the station managers in this area, which is one of the largest management areas in the SAPS, have undergone this training. A further significant factor to note is that this training intervention is no longer being implemented so there are no immediate future possibilities to obtain this training for the untrained 59% managers (27 respondents). If

these statistics are escalated to a national scale, the implications are very dramatic.

Leadership Development Programme

		Your current position in the station (job title)						Total
		Station Commissioner	Head of Detectives	Branch Commander	Support Manager	Group Commander	Acting Station Commissioner	
Management Training: Leadership Development Prog	Yes	7	1	2	0	0	0	10
	No	14	5	7	5	3	2	36
Total		21	6	9	5	3	2	46

This training intervention was not only aimed at station managers and, as such, it cannot be expected of all the respondents to have completed this training. In addition, this training intervention was only implemented for a very short period of time (1995 – 1998) which means that very few station managers would have had the opportunity of completing this programme. Given this background, it is understandable that only 21,7% of the respondents have completed this programme. Of the portion of station managers that have completed the Basic, Operational and Station Management programmes, this percentage is in fact rather high and shows that a small but significant proportion of the station managers in the sample are operating at an advanced level of strategic and leadership capability.

Officer's Course

		Your current position in the station (job title)						Total
		Station Commissioner	Head of Detectives	Branch Commander	Support Manager	Group Commander	Acting Station Commissioner	
Management Training: Officers Course	Yes	20	6	7	1	1	2	37
	No	1	0	2	4	2	0	9
Total		21	6	9	5	3	2	46

This training programme is supposed to be obligatory for any SAPS member with the rank of Captain and above. As an officer in the SAPS, this training programme is a clear requirement. Against this background it is very significant to note that nine of the respondents (19%) have not yet completed this programme. The 91% that have completed the Officer's Course show that in general these station managers in the sample have the basic knowledge and skills to manage their members and other resources at station level. This training programme is however not geared solely at station management principles but is rather focused on performing within a military style organization by following order, protocol, rank and systemic frameworks. This still leaves a significant gap in the competency profile of the station manager in order to manage the other aspects as included in their job profile.

The last question in this section refers to other possible course that the respondents have completed (other than the five main interventions as listed above). Those that have been indicated by the respondents include:

-
1. Detective Commander's Course;
 2. Junior Management Course;
 3. Diversity Management;
 4. Emerging Leader Programme;
 5. PEP (Performance Enhancement Programme) course;
 6. Project Management Training; and
 7. Middle Management Course.

Most of these interventions mentioned above have been completed by Station Commissioners or Branch Commanders with the rank of Superintendent or Captain. The relatively long list of alternative courses completed by the respondents indicates how many smaller, once-off type courses there have been (and still are) presented in the SAPS, none of them are included in the policy documents and practices as studied by the researcher for chapter 4 of this research. These smaller, ad hoc type courses seem to be driven by particular divisions or sections of the SAPS through mostly outside funding and are not linked into the larger management development system of the SAPS. This indicates an

imbalance in the management development interventions that are measured and available to station managers of the SAPS.

The next part of section 2 focuses on the types of management development activities that these station managers have been involved in within the SAPS. The list that was given in the survey questionnaire was taken from chapter 3 of this study, and includes the following:

1. Senior management development programmes;
2. Supervisory management development programmes;
3. General training (skills development) programmes;
4. Vocational training programmes (job related/specific);
5. Self-help programmes (personal development);
6. Specialised training programmes;
7. Specialised workshops;
8. Learning assignments (task teams/committees);
9. Specific work-related seminars/presentations;
10. Specialised conferences; and
11. Coaching and mentorship programmes.

Each of these interventions will be cross-tabulated with their position at the station as in the previous section. It must be noted that for this part of the questionnaire, there were two respondents who did not complete this question and the sample is therefore 44 respondents and not 46 as previously used.

Senior management development programmes

		Senior management development programmes		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current position in the station (job title)	Station Commissioner	4	16	20
	Head of Detectives	1	5	6
	Branch Commander	0	9	9
	Support Manager	0	5	5
	Group Commander	0	3	3
	Acting Station Commissioner	0	1	1
	Commissioner	0	1	1
Total		5	39	44

Only 10,9% of the respondents have been involved in senior management development programmes. This is not a surprising result, as station managers are not considered to be part of senior management within the SAPS. They operate at middle management level and as such do not regularly come into contact with these types of interventions. Of the five respondents that have been involved, they are all from the more senior management positions at station level (Station Commissioner and Head of Detectives).

Supervisory management development programmes

		Supervisory management development programmes		
		Yes	No	Total
Your current position in the station (job title)	Station Commissioner	10	10	20
	Head of Detectives	1	5	6
	Branch Commander	0	9	9
	Support Manager	0	5	5
	Group Commander	0	3	3
	Acting Station Commissioner	1	0	1
	Total	12	32	44

This type of management development intervention is very relevant to the job responsibilities of the station manager. It is significant to note there that only 26,1% of the respondents have been involved in this intervention. It would be expected that more of the respondents would have had the opportunity to be involved in supervisory management interventions as they supervise large groups of staff at their stations. It is again notable that the more senior positions in the station have been involved in this type of intervention (Station Commissioners and Head of Detectives). This does not however imply that they are the only managers that are involved in supervision at station level and this gap is significant.

General training programmes

		General training programmes		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current position in the station (job title)	Station Commissioner	16	4	20
	Head of Detectives	5	1	6
	Branch Commander	6	3	9
	Support Manager	1	4	5
	Group Commander	2	1	3
	Acting Station Commissioner	1	0	1
	Total	31	13	44

General training programmes are possibly the most common type of management development intervention within the SAPS as management development is seen mainly as a training function. It correlates therefore that 67,4% of the respondents have been involved in this type of intervention. The involvement is relatively evenly spread through all the positions as highlighted at the station, with a dominant involvement of Station Commissioners.

Vocational training programmes

		Vocational training programmes		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current position in the station (job title)	Station Commissioner	13	7	20
	Head of Detectives	4	2	6
	Branch Commander	7	2	9
	Support Manager	3	2	5
	Group Commander	2	1	3
	Acting Station Commissioner	1	0	1
	Total	30	14	44

Vocational training programmes are very specific job- or function-related training programmes. This is a tendency within the SAPS as they have many specific but unrelated training programmes running at various levels for members. It is logical therefore that 65,2% of the respondents have been involved in this type of intervention. The involvement is again

relatively evenly spread between the positions at the station, with a dominant involvement of Station Commissioners.

Self-help programmes (personal development)

		Self-help programmes (personal development)		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current position in the station (job title)	Station Commissioner	10	10	20
	Head of Detectives	4	2	6
	Branch Commander	5	4	9
	Support Manager	1	4	5
	Group Commander	1	2	3
	Acting Station Commissioner	1	0	1
	Total	22	22	44

Personal development programmes are not readily available within the SAPS in general and usually are sourced outside of the SAPS work environment. It is particularly interesting to note that exactly 50% of respondents have been involved in this type of activity. This shows a significant attempt by half of the station managers to improve themselves through their own personal involvement (most probably outside of working hours) in such activities.

Specialised training programmes

		Specialised training programmes		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current position in the station (job title)	Station Commissioner	10	10	20
	Head of Detectives	5	1	6
	Branch Commander	4	5	9
	Support Manager	1	4	5
	Group Commander	0	3	3
	Acting Station Commissioner	1	0	1
	Total	21	23	44

Specialised training programmes, as opposed to Vocational Training Programmes, are usually outsourced by the SAPS training division and are often related to the donor agency/country's field of interest. They are also therefore most often ad hoc and only available to a small group of selected SAPS members. Given this background, it is significant to note that almost half of the respondents (45,7%) have been involved in a type of specialised training programme. It is possible that this relatively high proportion is due to the fact that during the 1994 – 1999 period of transition in SAPS, the Dutch (and other international agencies to a lesser degree) were involved in specific development interventions and research projects that were related to the SAPS stations. Most of these station managers have been in a management position in the SAPS for more than 5 – 8 years and would therefore have had the opportunity to be involved in one or more of these specialised programmes.

Specialised workshops

		Specialised workshops		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current position in the station (job title)	Station Commissioner	9	11	20
	Head of Detectives	3	3	6
	Branch Commander	1	8	9
	Support Manager	0	5	5
	Group Commander	1	2	3
	Acting Station Commissioner	1	0	1
	Total	15	29	44

Specialised workshops are a less common management development occurrence in the SAPS. Again it is notable that most of these types of interventions would most probably be offered by outside institutions to the SAPS and the station managers would then be attending such activities by personal involvement. It is therefore understandable that only 32,6% of the respondents have been involved in such specialised workshops. Again it is mostly the Station Commissioner that has been involved in these workshops.

Learning assignments

		Learning assignments (task teams/committees)		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current position in the station (job title)	Station Commissioner	11	9	20
	Head of Detectives	3	3	6
	Branch Commander	4	5	9
	Support Manager	0	5	5
	Group Commander	0	3	3
	Acting Station Commissioner	1	0	1
	Total	19	25	44

Learning assignments are described in chapter 3 and are activities that are work-related but which are not part of the respondents immediate job responsibilities. Task teams, committees and special projects often form part of what is considered to be a learning assignment. Persons involved in learning assignments are not usually compensated in any additional manner for their work done on the assignment; instead it is seen as a learning or career development opportunity for the person. Given this background, it is significant to note that as many as 41,3% of the respondents have been involved to some degree in a learning assignment. The SAPS organisational culture is fond of task teams and committees for various activities and projects and this could possibly explain the relatively high proportion of station managers that have experienced this type of intervention. Further to the above, it is significant to note that this type of activity is often not recognised in the SAPS system as a management development activity, and it is not part of the performance management system of station managers. They therefore carry little weight for the involvement of the station manager.

Specific work-related seminars/presentations

		Specific work-related seminars/presentations		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current position in the station (job title)	Station Commissioner	13	7	20
	Head of Detectives	2	4	6
	Branch Commander	5	4	9
	Support Manager	0	5	5
	Group Commander	1	2	3
	Acting Station Commissioner	1	0	1
	Total	22	22	44

Work-related seminars/presentations are another type of management development intervention that is not common within the SAPS. It is therefore significant to notice that exactly 50% of the respondents have been involved in this type of activity. Station Commissioner dominate in involvement of this activity when compared to the other positions at the station.

Specialised conferences

		Specialised conferences		Total
		Yes	No	
Your current position in the station (job title)	Station Commissioner	5	15	20
	Head of Detectives	2	4	6
	Branch Commander	0	9	9
	Support Manager	0	5	5
	Group Commander	1	2	3
	Acting Station Commissioner	0	1	1
	Total	8	36	44

Conferences are not commonly part of SAPS activities and station managers do not usually have the resources or the time available to attend such events. It is significant to note then that 17,4% of the respondents have been part of a specialised conference. Those that have been involved indicated that most of the conferences are related to the International Police Association.

Coaching and mentorship programmes

		Coaching & mentorship programmes		
		Yes	No	Total
Your current position in the station (job title)	Station Commissioner	7	13	20
	Head of Detectives	1	5	6
	Branch Commander	0	9	9
	Support Manager	0	5	5
	Group Commander	0	3	3
	Acting Station Commissioner	1	0	1
	Total	9	35	44

No reference to any type of coaching and mentorship programme has been found by the researcher in any SAPS documentation related to management development of station managers. It is therefore surprising to find that as many as 19,6% of the respondents have in fact been involved in some kind of coaching and mentorship programme. It is the assumption of the researcher that many of these programmes are external to the SAPS environment and that the station manager chose to attend this programme in their personal capacity. This type of management development intervention remains a hugely significant part of the job responsibilities and therefore the competency profile of a station manager and should not be overlooked.

The next part of section 2 asks participants to evaluate their experience of SAPS training and development interventions in terms of the following 10 criteria:

1. Oversight and leadership of the programme;
2. Stability of administrative and financial support;
3. Consistent management philosophy;
4. Administrative control;
5. Selection and support of participants;
6. Accessibility to members;
7. Preparation for and application of classroom learning;

8. Quality of programme delivery;
9. Evaluation of participants; and
10. Ongoing programme evaluation.

In terms of oversight and leadership, only 2,2% of the respondents found the SAPS to be good in this criteria. Most (45,6%) found this aspect to be poor or not present at all. In terms of administrative and financial support, only 4,3% found this aspect to be good, while 65,2% found this aspect to be poor or not present. In terms of consistent management philosophy, again only 2,2% found this aspect to be good, while 58,7% found it to be poor or not present. In terms of administrative control, again only 2,2% found this criteria to be good, while 56,5% found it to be poor or not present. In terms of the selection and support of participants, the same 2,2% found it to be good, while a significantly high proportion (60,9%) found it to be poor or not present. In terms of accessibility to members 0% found it to be good, while a dangerously high percentage (69,6%) of respondents found it to be poor or not present. In terms of preparation for and application of classroom learning, again 0% found it to be good, while 54,4% found it to be poor or not present. In terms of the quality of the programme delivery, again 0% found it to be good, while 56,5% found it to be poor or not present. In terms of the evaluation of participants, again 0% found it to be good, while a very high proportion of the respondents (63%) found it to be poor or not present. Lastly, in terms of ongoing programme evaluation, 0% found it to be good and the highest proportion to date (73,9%) found this criteria to be poor or not present at all.

With these statistics in mind it is very obvious that the station managers in this sample do not have a positive experience with the internal management development training programmes of the SAPS. Throughout all 10 criteria that were measured, not one of the criteria had a significantly positive response. This is very significant to the learning and support that station managers take away with them after each training intervention in the SAPS. If the training that is offered is not given in the most appropriate manner and with sufficient management development support, the effect on the

management competencies of these station managers can only be negative. This is what section 3 of the questionnaire measures.

The last question in section 2 of the survey questionnaire related to management training that has been completed outside of the SAPS. The outside training that was listed included the following courses:

1. FBI National Academy course (1998);
2. Leadership course (2001);
3. Project management (2004);
4. Public speaking (2001);
5. Woolworths management training (1999); and
6. Kagiso course (2000).

What is significant in terms of the data collection for this question is that only six respondents (all Station Commissioners) have been involved in any external training. This shows a very low level of involvement of station managers in general in outside training activities.

5.3.3 SECTION 3: MANAGEMENT CAPACITY AND DEVELOPMENT

This part of chapter 5 deals with section 3 of the survey questionnaire which focuses on the management competencies of the station managers. Each of the competencies as compiled in chapter 2 of this research were put to the respondent and he/she assessed him/herself by using a three-point scale (no ability, some ability, well-developed ability). It is notable to explain here again that the respondents were asked to rate themselves in terms of their perceived ability to perform each competency in their role as station managers. This means that the results are of their perceived competence which is not necessarily their actual competence. The measurement of their actual competence is complicated and long-term process which falls beyond the scope of this research question and framework.

Planning competency cluster:

This competency cluster consists of 15 competencies.

What is evident from this bar graph is that most of the station managers measured themselves with some ability of competence in these aspects. The following table shows the specific percentages for each of the competencies in this cluster:

	Planning Competency	Ability as a %		
		None	Some	Well Dev
1	Ability to develop an operational plan for the station	2,2	71,7	26,1
2	Ability to plan & schedule community participation	8,7	67,4	23,9
3	Ability to set clear & measurable goals & standards	10,9	60,9	28,3
4	Ability to budget for station	26,1	58,7	15,2
5	Ability to manage on shorter time frame (under pressure)	17,2	47,8	34,8

6	Ability to manage risks	10,9	60,9	28,3
7	Ability to focus on detail	10,9	47,8	41,3
8	Ability to establish direction (drive)	10,9	52,2	37
9	Ability to set short & long term vision for station	19,6	52,2	32,6
10	Ability to focus on bigger picture	15,2	52,2	32,6
11	Ability to be entrepreneurial and strategic	17,4	60,4	19,6
12	Ability to define the task	17,4	47,8	34,8
13	Ability to be analytical	17,4	56,5	23,9
14	Ability to think conceptually	13	52,2	34,8
15	Ability to solve problems and think laterally	17,4	54,3	28,3

The lowest scoring competencies within this cluster include:

1. The ability to budget for the station (26,1% no ability)
2. The ability to set short-term & long-term vision for station (19,6% no ability)
3. The ability to solve problems and think laterally (17,4% no ability)
4. Ability to be entrepreneurial and strategic (17,4% no ability)
5. Ability to define the task (17,4% no ability)
6. Ability to be analytical (17,4% no ability)

The highest scoring competencies within this cluster include:

1. The ability to focus on detail (41,2% well-developed ability)
2. Ability to manage on shorter time frame (under pressure) (34,8% well-developed ability)
3. Ability to define the task (34,8% well-developed ability)
4. Ability to think conceptually (34,8% well-developed ability)

Significant from this table of results is the fact that station managers perceive themselves as less able to take decisions and to act around issues related to finances/budgeting; entrepreneurship, lateral thinking and visioning. All of these competencies are related to the more creative skills of planning and ask of the manager to “think out of the box” and not to

always follow the procedures and rules as set by the organisation. This is presumably an obvious measurement, but it does place emphasis on the strong influence of the organisational culture and the lack of risk-taking ability in the SAPS system of management. The competencies that are significantly higher in correlation scores show the ability of the station manager to perform under pressure. Competencies such as time management, a focus on detail and to think conceptually attest to this.

Organising competency cluster:

This competency cluster consists of 17 competencies.

What is evident from this bar graph is that most of the station managers measured themselves with some ability of competency in these aspects. The following table shows the specific percentages for each of the competencies in this cluster:

	Organising Competency	Ability as a %		
		None	Some	Well Dev
1	Ability to co-ordinate activities	17,4	54,3	28,3
2	Ability to allocating resources	10,9	56,5	32,6
3	Strong ability to specialise (focus)	10,9	60,9	28,3
4	Ability to institutionalise community policing in station area	10,9	60,9	28,3
5	Ability to match peoples needs to tasks at station level	15,2	50	34,8
6	Time management	17,4	58,7	23,9
7	Ability to prioritise	19,6	52,2	28,3
8	Ability to listen and organise	13	50	37
9	Ability to aligning people to strategy	19,6	52,2	28,3
10	Ability to motivate people to enhance change	8,7	56,5	34,8
11	Ability to make resources available	2,7	39,1	39,1
12	Ability to empower others	6,5	58,7	34,8
13	Ability to understand individual needs, team needs and the task at hand	13	58,7	26,1
14	Well-developed communication ability	6,5	63	30,4
15	Ability to delegation effectively	15,2	58,7	26,1
16	Procedural & administrative skills	8,7	58,7	32,6
17	Information processing skills	15,2	56,5	28,3

The lowest scoring competencies within this cluster include:

1. Ability to prioritise (19,6% no ability)
2. Ability to aligning people to strategy (19,6% no ability)
3. Ability to co-ordinate activities (17,4% no ability)
4. Time management (17,4% no ability)
5. Ability to match peoples needs to tasks at station level (15,2% no ability)
6. Ability to delegate effectively (15,2% no ability)
7. Information processing skills (15,2% no ability)

The highest scoring competencies within this cluster include:

1. Ability to make resources available (39,1% well-developed ability)
2. Ability to match peoples needs to tasks at station level (34,8 % well-developed ability)
3. Ability to motivate people to enhance change (34,8% well-developed ability)
4. Ability to empower others (34,8% well-developed ability)
5. Procedural & administrative skills (32,6% well-developed ability)
6. Ability to allocating resources (32,6% well-developed ability)

Significant from this table of results is the fact that station managers perceive themselves as less able to think and operate on a strategic level, especially when the actions and decisions revolve around people management processes. This is significant as the station manager has to often wait for decisions and instructions from higher levels (area or province) with regard to people management issues. This then, by implication, makes them less likely to be willing to act on or make decisions regarding strategic people management processes at the station. This is a core competency for station managers and needs urgent attention. Again the influence of the SAPS culture “don’t think, just do” is evident in this observation.

The competencies that station managers find themselves more able to do include a clearer focus on resource management and allocation. These are typically the skills needed to work at an operational level once allocations from higher up in the organisation have been made. It is however significant to notice here that the people management competencies of empowering and motivating others score so highly.

Executing competency cluster:

This competency cluster consists of 20 competencies.

What is evident from this bar graph is that most of the station managers measured themselves with some ability to do these competencies. The following table shows the specific percentages for each of the competencies in this cluster:

	Executing Competency	Ability as a %		
		None	Some	Well Dev
1	Ability to implement the operation plan of the station	6,5	58,7	34,8
2	Ability to establish & maintain a crime prevention and detective service at the station	15,2	56,5	28,3
3	Ability to institutionalise the vision and mission of SAPS at station level	10,9	47,8	41,3
4	Ability to establish a community police forum at station	19,6	47,8	32,6
5	Ability to identify and solve problems	4,3	63	32,6
6	Well-developed decision-making skills	8,7	54,3	37

7	Ability to enforce compliance to rules	8,7	52,2	39,1
8	Administrative ability	8,7	54,3	34,8
9	Ability to motivate and inspire others	8,7	52,2	39,1
10	Ability to cope with change	15,2	52,2	32,6
11	Ability to integrate activities	8,7	54,3	37
12	Ability to be enthusiastic	8,7	54,3	37
13	Ability to show integrity, fairness, humility, and self-confidence	13	56,5	30,4
14	Team building skills	13	50	37
15	Ability to train and coach staff	13	56,6	30,4
16	Ability to manage conflict	10,9	58,7	30,4
17	Strong leadership skills	10,9	56,5	32,6
18	Self-discipline and self-management skills	8,7	56,5	34,8
19	Discipline and counsel staff	17,4	52,2	30,4
20	Clear judgment skills	10,9	58,7	30,4

The lowest scoring competencies within this cluster include:

1. Ability to establish a community police forum (CPF) at station (19,6% no ability)
2. Discipline and counsel staff (17,4% no ability)
3. Ability to establish & maintain a crime prevention and detective service at the station (15,2% no ability)
4. Ability to cope with change (15,2% no ability)

The highest scoring competencies within this cluster include:

1. Ability to institutionalise the vision and mission of SAPS at station level (41,3% well-developed ability)
2. Ability to motivate and inspire others (39,1% well-developed ability)
3. Team building skills (37% well-developed ability)

Significant from this table of results is the fact that station managers perceive themselves as less able to play the role of disciplinarian within the station team. Again this could be due to the fact that all disciplinary

procedures within the SAPS are dealt with by persons external to the station's environment which makes the station manager less involved in the process and therefore less involved in practicing the competency. A significant lack of competency is the lack of ability to establish and maintain crime prevention and to establish CPFs as these are both core functions of the SAPS at station level. Once again the people management competencies have high scores in the well-developed competency allocation. The ability to motivate and build teams is particularly high.

Control and Evaluation cluster:

This competency cluster consists of 12 competencies.

What is evident from this bar graph is that most of the station managers measured themselves with some ability of competency in these aspects.

The following table shows the specific percentages for each of the competencies in this cluster:

	Control & Evaluation Competency	Ability as a %		
		None	Some	Well Dev
1	Ability to produce constant results	15,2	60,9	23,9
2	Ability to be effective (do the right things)	8,7	60,9	30,4
3	Ability to develop ordered systems	13	54,3	32,4
4	Ability to understand and work in managerial hierarchy	4,3	67,4	28,3
5	Ability to obtain unbiased information	10,9	56,5	32,6
6	Ability to appraise people and performance	8,7	63	28,3
7	Performance management skills at individual and station level	13	60,9	26,1
8	Ability to produce change	15,2	47,8	37
9	Ability to be efficient (do things right)	13	58,7	28,3
10	Ability to be a transformational leader	8,7	58,7	32,6
11	Ability to maintain an evaluative approach	4,3	63	32,6
12	Sound judgment ability	8,7	47,8	43,5

The lowest scoring competencies within this cluster include:

1. Ability to produce constant results (15,2% no ability)
2. Ability to produce change (15,2% no ability)
3. Ability to obtain unbiased information (10,9% no ability)

The highest scoring competencies within this cluster include:

1. Sound judgment ability (43,5% well-developed ability)
2. Ability to produce change (37 % well-developed ability)
3. Ability to obtain unbiased information (32,6% well-developed ability)
4. Ability to be a transformational leader (32,6% well-developed ability)
5. Ability to maintain an evaluative approach (32,6% well-developed ability)
6. Ability to develop ordered systems (32,4% well-developed ability)

Significant from this table of results is the fact that station managers perceive themselves as less able to produce constant performance results whilst dealing with change. This is particularly interesting as producing change is also measured as one of the highest well-developed competencies of the same group. The same is relevant to the competency area of obtaining unbiased information. Other strengths of competency in this category include sound judgment ability, a transformational leadership approach and the ability to maintain an evaluative approach. These are all very strategic level competencies that work with change processes and managing risks that have not scored very high correlations in the previous three competency cluster groups.

5.3.4 Correlations related to the PSMP training intervention

The survey questionnaire has been analysed according to each of its sections, while interpretations have been made regarding the significant results that have been shown. The section refers back to one of the research objectives of this study and attempts to uncover whether there are any correlations between the perceived competencies of the station managers and the attendance (or not) of the PSMP as the key management development training intervention for these managers within the SAPS. Out of the group of 46 respondents, 19 (41,4%) attended a PSMP training intervention and 27 (58,6%) did not.

Each of the competency clusters will be correlated with the attendance (or not) of the PSMP and the results interpreted below in each bar graph.

Planning competencies vs. PSMP attendance

The first cluster of competencies is related to the ability to plan. From the bar graph above it is evident that, in general, those that attended the PSMP have marginally higher capacity to perform all the related competencies in this cluster. Those that did not attend a PSMP training intervention, although the larger portion of the sample group, consistently evaluated themselves lower in most of the competency areas related to planning.

Specific competencies to note include:

1. The ability to budget for the station scores lowest in both groups. This indicates a definite gap in terms of the ability of station managers, but is however related to the fact that stations do not draw up or manage their own budgets. This function is performed by area and provincial levels of the SAPS management;
2. The ability to be entrepreneurial and strategic is particularly high in those managers that have completed the PSMP training;
3. The ability to focus on detail is also particularly high in those managers that have completed the PSMP training;

4. The ability to be analytical scores much higher in those that did not complete the PSMP training.

Organising competencies vs. PSMP attendance

The second cluster of competencies is related to the ability to organise. From the bar graph above it is evident that in general, those that attended the PSMP have marginally higher capacity to perform all the related competencies in this cluster. Those that did not attend a PSMP training intervention, although the larger portion of the sample group, consistently evaluated themselves lower in all the competency areas related to organising.

Specific competencies to note include:

1. It is notable that there are 11 (of the 17) competencies related to organising that all achieve significantly higher scores for those managers that have completed the PSMP compared to those that have not. They include the following:
 - The ability to co-ordinate activities;
 - The ability to allocate resources;
 - Strong ability to specialise;
 - Ability to institutionalise community policing in station area;

- Ability to match people's needs to tasks at station level;
- Ability to listen and organise;
- Ability to motivate people to enhance change;
- Ability to empower others;
- Ability to understand individual needs, team needs and the task at hand
- Well-developed communication ability; and
- Procedural and administrative skills.

2. There are no areas where managers that have not attended the PSMP evaluated themselves as higher than those that did attend the training intervention.

Executing competencies vs. PSMP attendance

The third cluster of competencies is related to the ability to execute. From the bar graph above it is evident that in general, those that attended the PSMP have, marginally, a higher capacity to perform all the related competencies in this cluster. Those that did not attend a PSMP training intervention, although the larger portion of the sample group, consistently evaluated themselves lower in most of the competency areas related to executing.

Specific competencies to note include:

1. A significantly high score is given to administrative ability by those managers that did not attend and complete the PSMP;
2. Those that did attend the PSMP showed more competency in the ability to be enthusiastic and the ability to implement self-discipline and self management; and
3. Particular to note is that those managers that have completed the PSMP score themselves with a lower competency on the ability to establish and maintain crime prevention and detective services at the station, than those that did not complete the PSMP.

Control and Evaluation competencies vs. PSMP attendance

The fourth and last cluster of competencies is related to the ability to control and evaluate. From the bar graph above it is evident that in general, those that attended the PSMP have, marginally, a higher capacity to perform all the related competencies in this cluster. Those that did not attend a PSMP training intervention, although the larger portion of the sample group,

consistently evaluated themselves lower in all of the competency areas related to control and evaluation.

Specific competencies to note include:

1. An interesting balance in competency is shown in this graph for the ability to maintain an evaluative approach by both groups of respondents;
2. The group of managers that have completed the PSMP rated themselves significantly more competent in the ability to show sound judgment;
3. Both the ability to produce change and to be a transformational leader have higher ratings by the group that has completed the PSMP and what is significant for these two competencies is that they both have the same high score (equal weighting); and
4. A particularly low rating of competence is given by those that have not completed the PSMP to the competency of having the ability to produce consistent results.

The analysis of the four competency clusters in terms of the respondents' attendance of a PSMP training intervention have proven to be significant, even if only marginally. There is a consistent and clear difference between the two groups of station managers, with those that have attended a PSMP continuously rating themselves as more competent to perform. In general, it is notable to observe that those that have completed the PSMP feel more able to deal effectively with initiating and managing change processes in their teams; more able to motivate individuals and teams and more able to lead through a transformational approach. This shows a definite inclination towards being more able to deal with the challenges of managing a station rather than just administering a job.

5.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter aimed at documenting the methodology and data that was obtained from the sample group, analyse the data and make various comparisons. Its objective was to document and describe the collected information related to management development practices, support and interventions from station commissioners in the East Metropole of the City of Cape Town (the case study). The specific research objectives of this chapter were to:

1. Define and describe the methodology that was utilised to obtain the information from the station commissioners of the East Metropole of the City of Cape Town;
2. Collect data from the sample group through a standardised questionnaire and present the facts as obtained; and to
3. Analyse the data and document the most important components of the analysis both in writing and diagrammatically.

From the data collection and analysis in this chapter, the following significant issues were highlighted:

1. Most station managers in the sample have been in the SAPS in a management position for between 5 – 8 years or longer. This implies significant experience in management practices and processes within the SAPS environment;
2. Most station managers in the sample do not have formal educational qualifications. A minority have degrees and post-graduate qualifications, whilst the majority have Standard 10/Grade 12 as their qualification;
3. Of the five management development training programmes offered in SAPS, most managers in the sample have not completed them. A significantly small portion of the managers have even completed the PSMP which is the main intervention for managers operating at this level. The results in this section show significant gaps in management development practices within the SAPS; and

4. From the comprehensive list of station management competency clusters, it is significant to note that most respondents measured themselves as having some ability in all of the competency areas. Although this is a perceived competency level, and not necessarily a real competency level, it remains significant that the station managers feel that are able to do things that they have not generally been trained to do through SAPS management development channels. This has various implications for the management development approach, policy and type of interventions that are to be implemented for this level of management in the SAPS.

This chapter forms the basis of chapter 6 which asserts various recommendations around the management development policy, processes, interventions and methodology as practiced in the SAPS. The data as collected in this chapter provides the basis from which these various recommendations can be made and provides the necessary priority areas which should be focused on in improving the current management development practices in the SAPS.

CHAPTER 6

RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter (chapter 5) focused on the evaluation of management capacity and development support at station level in the SAPS through the use of a case study, namely the East Metropole in Cape Town SAPS. The chapter provided the data from which various comparisons, cross-tabulations and correlations were made. The analysis of the data provided the reader with a number of both positive and negative aspects related to management development and management capacity in the SAPS at station level. This chapter (chapter 6) aims at using the analysis of chapter 5 in order to formulate and motivate various recommendations for the SAPS in general and for station management capacity improvement in particular. The main objectives of this chapter are to:

1. Make clear and practical recommendations regarding management development and management competency practices for the public sector in general;
2. Make clear and practical recommendations for the SAPS regarding management development policy and practice at a general level;
3. Make clear and practical recommendations for the SAPS regarding training as a management development intervention;
4. Make clear and practical recommendations for the SAPS regarding the management capacity of station managers in the SAPS.

This chapter will structure itself around these four objectives and put forward recommendations in each case.

6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.2.1 Recommendations regarding management development and management competency practices for the public sector in general:

This research is based on the processes and practices of management development as a tool to enhance the capacity of managers in any organisational environment. This capacity of managers has been defined and explained as consisting of various competencies. In this regard, various specific recommendations can be made:

1. **Clarification of purpose:** Competence or competency is essentially an abstract concept. It can be defined and measured only through behaviour or performance. Competency is often used in a general sense in organisations and this often leads to confusion and misunderstanding in the measurement and management of its related processes. As stated earlier in this research, it needs to be clarified what the purpose of the usage of the term competency is so as to streamline the practices and standards around those competency statements and measures. Specifically one should discern between the core competencies of individuals versus those of organisations or groups within organisations (teams); between competency-based qualifications; and competencies for the assessment of potential and managerial development from the basis of the assessment.
2. **Performance management and competencies:** Performance management is often used as a methodology in which competency (or a lack of competency) is the measurement instrument. Particularly in the context of performance management, competencies are often associated with the process, and often confused with other aspects of the performance management framework. Whilst competence is generally demonstrated by performance, performance is a broader concept and competence does not necessarily result in satisfactory performance. It can therefore be said that competence is a necessary,

but not a sufficient condition for performance. A competent individual will not perform to standard if he/she is not motivated and will be unable to perform if the opportunity to perform is frustrated.

3. **Assessment of competence:** Assessment of competence is governed, particularly at an individual level, by a number of principles such as those of validity and reliability. The question that also needs to be asked and answered, is whether organisational or individual performance has really been achieved? A process to answer this question is identified from the research and includes the following steps: Identification and definition of the required competencies (individual and organisational), the acquisition process (obtaining or developing the required competencies), then feedback and measurement during implementation or action, and lastly the measurement and monitoring of organisational performance.
4. **Cyclical nature of competency:** With this framework of competency in mind, it is clear from the research that competencies, as many other aspects in organisations, are cyclical in nature. Various writers relate the relative value of competencies (at all levels) to life-cycles of organisations. This is due to the fact that the value of most things changes over time as circumstances and demands change. In any organisation, the demand for certain competency changes as contexts, supply, demand, market-value, clients and other critical aspects in the organisation's life change. These competency life-cycles result in four types of competencies which need to be understood, identified and utilised appropriately by the managers in that organisation environment. Should these competencies not be properly understood and identified as part of a cyclical process, various organisational and individual performance-related processes can be misunderstood and maladministered. These types of cyclical competencies include: Emerging competencies (necessary to respond to emerging future-orientated requirements); Maturing competencies (the value of which is declining); Transitional competencies (which emerge and decline as an organisation moves through its own life-

cycle); and Core competencies (which are enduring in importance irrespective of changes in strategy).

5. **Public sector environment:** The public sector has a very complex nature which makes it clear that the results of policies, activities and programmes in the public sector are quite often very difficult to observe or quantify, which makes it even more difficult to evaluate or judge the performance of departments or managers within these departments. What makes individual departments perform within this complex and very demanding environment in which they as managers operate, is their personnel and not their sophisticated strategic plans, programmes, equipment and techniques. What makes these individual managers perform is the exercise of leadership from the top down, and the ability of departmental leaders at all levels to instill fundamental philosophical principles of responsible and ethical behaviour, to motivate and channel individual and group efforts, to communicate objectives and to promote an understanding of the department's role and purpose among all the personnel.

6.2.2 Recommendations for SAPS regarding management development policy and practice at a general level:

1. **Policy framework:** This research shows that there is a vacuum in the SAPS regarding management development processes and practices. The few activities that do take place (such as the training programmes mentioned) are ad hoc in nature and not strategically aligned for optimal organisational performance. This is due to the fact that there is no clear management development policy within the SAPS that can guide and align such activities. It is therefore urgent and essential that the SAPS formulates a clear and practical policy document that is national in scope and accessible to all units, divisions and levels. This policy should include aspects related to the following: Rectification of the structures of the SAPS management development; affirming the concept of taking learning to the learners; modular programme

delivery; maximise the utilisation of trainer capacity; and integrated management development programmes.

2. **Competency-based approach to management development:** This research found the competency-based approach to management development to be an approach that reduces complexity, adds capacity and increases overall capability of individuals and organisations. It is recommended that SAPS (at a national level) adopt such an approach to its training and other related management development interventions as it will provide the following advantages to SAPS: It will provide a carefully defined strategic direction for the overall capacity of the SAPS, it uses clearly articulated descriptions for the individual competencies that distinguish high performance and the simplified management and HRD programmes that it utilises, further reinforce the identified competencies.
3. **Structure of SAPS management development:** In order to rectify and align the structure of the SAPS management development to form a coherent open system, capable of effective and efficient design and delivery of quality training interventions, a simple restructuring of the office of the head of the component at national level (in Pretoria) is suggested. This includes the appointment of a deputy and some administrative support. Also recommended is that a pool of trainers be established throughout the country in an attempt to flatten the structure of the component and improve the lines of communication. Structurally this implies that the management development facilitators at the various training centres (e.g Paarl, Graaff-Reinet and Pretoria) would merely reside at these institutions for the purposes of office space. From there, they would be traveling to deliver the programmes according to the strategy of taking learning to the learner.
4. **Modular programme delivery** of management development interventions: In terms of the products, it is suggested that the SAPS management development programmes be located within a four-tier system, functioning on a building block principle. The first level, consisting of a *Basic Management Programme*, should aim to empower first-time managers to supervise small groups of personnel

in the executing of police operations. The second level, consisting of a *Junior Management Programme*, should enable managers to coordinate larger-scale operational units and manage the operationalisation of policing strategies. The third level, consisting of a *Middle Management Programme*, will allow managers to interpret broad policing strategies and translate them into operational directives to be implemented. The fourth level, consisting of a *Top Management Programme*, should enable managers to design policing strategies and to provide directional leadership to the relevant components.

5. **Evaluation of management development interventions:** It is also recommended that the evaluation methods employed on management development programmes be broadened to include written as well as oral evaluations of individuals and groups. In this regard the management development process, as discussed above, should emphasise activities that will assist managers to actually learn from actions undertaken. In-basket written evaluations should be supported by subsequent individual oral evaluation sessions. These oral evaluation sessions should be conducted by the trainers assisted by two senior managers from the local area or province at the end of each programme.

6. **Relations between management levels and rank structure in SAPS:** It is recommended that the management development strategy and its products/interventions within the SAPS be clearly linked to management levels rather than ranks in the SAPS. The table below provides a framework that is suggested for this linkage between the traditional association of rank to the more management development-orientation towards position in the SAPS.

Rank Linkage	Management Level	Post Level
Commissioner Deputy Commissioner Director	Top Management	Commissioner Director General Chief Director
Deputy Director Senior Superintendent	Senior Management	Deputy Commissioner Provincial Commissioner
Superintendent Captain	Middle-level Management	Commanders Area Commanders Station Managers
Inspector Sergeant	Junior/Supervisory Management	Branch commanders Sections Heads CSS Commander

		Shift Commanders
Constable	None	Member

Each of these positions should be linked to a level of management and thereby linked to a management development programme relevant to that level. The management development programmes for each level will have to analyse and clarify the specific management competencies necessary at that level. This research provides a comprehensive list of management competencies for the middle management level.

7. **Management competencies for the SAPS managers:** Currently the SAPS have developed job descriptions for each position within the organisational structure covering all levels of management. These job descriptions are extended further into the PEP documentation and process of evaluation for all the SAPS personnel. The gap that has been identified in this research shows that the current job descriptions and related performance criteria (KPAs) do not in fact cover all the competencies that are required by middle management in order to perform in their positions. This was particularly evident when making comparisons to the various learning needs analyses that were done in the evaluations of the four main management development interventions (2000 – 2001). It is therefore recommended specifically for middle management, but also for extension to all levels of management, that the competency profiles of the managers be re-evaluated and more comprehensively compiled from such information and through an assessment process with the various managers.

6.2.3 Recommendations for the SAPS regarding training as a management development intervention:

1. **Linkage between training and management development:** This research has found that management training is not a stand alone function in any organisation, yet it is observed that this is the case in the SAPS. The various management training programmes that have

been implemented (1994 – 2004) in SAPS were ad hoc and inconsistent in approach and content. It is therefore recommended that SAPS link all current and future planned management training interventions to a strategy of management development. This will allow for the various learning outcomes of the management training interventions to dovetail and link up in a systemic and logical way.

2. **Evaluation of the SAPS training programmes:** This research found significant results related to the evaluation by the respondents of SAPS training programmes. Specifically from a middle management perspective, it was found that out of the ten criteria that were measured (see chapter 5), not one has a particularly positive evaluation response. It is therefore recommended that the SAPS training division give particular attention to the following aspects: Stability of administrative and financial support; consistent management philosophy; selection and support of participants; accessibility to members; quality of delivery; evaluation of participants and ongoing programme evaluation.
3. **Consistency in approach:** This research found that the management training that has taken place in the SAPS to date (since 1994) is inconsistent in approach. This ad hoc and disjointed methodology of training delivery has serious implications for the performance management linkage to the organisation. Managers, especially at middle management level, are not required to have completed any specific management-related training and the training programmes that have been available (specifically the PSMP) are not included in the performance criteria of the manager. The message that is therefore sent to these managers is that both training and management development are not important components of their position, career development, areas of responsibility or performance measurement. It is therefore recommended that the management training that is provided to the managers in the SAPS be directly linked to a management development strategy and therefore to their performance management system.

4. **Needs assessments:** It is recommended that comprehensive training needs assessment be completed before any future management training is provided within the SAPS. This research found that the process of needs assessment was not followed prior to the development and delivery of all of the management training that was provided between 1994 and 2004. Learning needs assessments were carried out by the service providers completing the impact assessments after the delivery of these training programmes. This information can prove to be most useful in preparing and planning for the delivery of future management development training interventions in the SAPS.
5. **Available material and documentation:** It is notable that in the case of the four main management development training interventions that have been implemented since 1994 in SAPS, the course material, training exercises, case studies and learning outcome material has already been designed and evaluated. This material is currently not all in the possession of the SAPS training units and is being lost in the larger SAPS organisational system. Although this material will need to be adapted and aligned to an overall management development strategy, it will go a long way in providing useful learning material and best practices for the the SAPS personnel that are to work with this process. It is therefore recommended that SAPS training division collect and collate this material so that comparisons and alignment can be done efficiently in the future.
6. **Types of management development interventions:** This research shows that training is not the only type of management development intervention that is appropriate. Others include self-help programmes, workshops, learning assignments, seminars, conferences and coaching programmes. It is recommended that the SAPS extend its current profile of training interventions to include, where appropriate, other types of management development interventions that can assist in the transfer of learning.
7. **Outsourcing:** It is proposed that the SAPS management development adopt a more structured and organised approach to the

outsourcing of certain aspects of its products to external service providers. In this regard, outsourcing could be addressed in an incremental manner, with more aspects of the programmes being outsourced higher up in the system. This will allow valuable input from external professionals in terms of the design and delivery of some of these products. It is also important to note that the further up into the management levels one progresses, the less police-specific the programme content should become. An aspect of cardinal importance in this regard is that the processes of outsourcing should be properly managed and coordinated from within the component.

8. **Taking learning to the learner:** Regarding the design and structure of the products delivered by the training component, a key recommendation is the implementation of the concept of taking learning to the learner. It is proposed that the training programmes be designed in such a way that the contact sessions never exceed five working days at a time. Rather than having a programme consisting of an eight-week contact session, programmes could consist of several shorter contact sessions spread over a longer period of time. These programmes, consisting of the shorter locally-delivered contact sessions, could either be residential in nature, making use of private lodging and conference facilities, or learners could attend on a daily basis. The strength of this approach lies in the fact that it breaks the mould of a vicious learning sequence and builds on a more virtuous learning sequence. The time spent by learners between contact sessions will allow for the confronting of real conditions with the newly acquired knowledge, skills and attitudes as well as addressing the problem of learning transfer constructively. The opportunity of immediate application of their new insights through the modular approach will also go a long way in facilitating not only individual effectiveness, but also organisational learning.
9. **Block-release modular system of delivery:** It is also strongly recommended that a block-release modular system be utilised for training delivery in the SAPS. Such an approach would allow for the design of programmes that integrate theory and management practice

in a coherent manner, with learners being able to experience practical implementation and provide feedback on that at the next contact session. This will also enable learners to launch action projects at their respective places of work, as part of the formal programme content.

6.2.4 Recommendations for the SAPS regarding the management capacity of station managers in the SAPS:

1. **Competency assessment results:** From the results of this research it is notable that of the four competency clusters (planning, organising, executing, control and evaluation), the organising cluster overall scored the highest. The implication of this is that station managers feel more able to implement these competencies than the others. It is recommended therefore that special attention be given to the other three clusters so as to build the competencies of the managers in these areas. Further to the above, it was significant and consistently apparent that the station managers who had completed the PSMP training intervention felt more competent to perform in all competency areas than those that had not completed the PSMP. This shows that the PSMP has indeed had a positive and significant effect on the management capacity at station level and it is therefore recommended that the PSMP or a similar management development training intervention again be made available to this group of managers so as to improve management capacity at station level.
2. **Building management capacity in the SAPS:** The processes of building, maintaining and improving management capacity in the SAPS are not explicit or readily available. It is therefore recommended that the SAPS implement a coherent system of management capacity-building that includes the following steps: Recognition, understanding, assessment, experimentation, practice and application. Each of these is explained in more detail in chapter 3.
3. **Measurement, communication and reward** of management capacity in the SAPS: From the information obtained in this study, it is not

evident that management capacity is measured or accurately taken into account when appointing, promoting or developing station managers. It appears to be done on a more personal and subtle level and in different ways throughout the organisation. It is therefore recommended that management capacity (through competency assessments and profiling) be standardised, measured and taken into account in the SAPS when decisions regarding appointments and career development processes are made. It is further recommended that management capacity be built into the performance and reward systems and policies in the SAPS as this is currently not the case.

6.3 CONCLUSION

The objective of this chapter was to use the analysis of chapter 5 in order to formulate and motivate various recommendations for the SAPS in general and for station management capacity improvement in particular. This chapter has put forward various recommendations for management capacity-building in general and more specifically for the SAPS, especially for middle managers (station managers). It presented these recommendations in the following format:

1. Recommendations regarding management development and management competency practices for the public sector in general;
2. Recommendations for the SAPS regarding management development policy and practice at a general level;
3. Recommendations for the SAPS regarding training as a management development intervention;
4. Recommendations for the SAPS regarding the management capacity of station managers in SAPS.

It can be concluded that the SAPS in general, but specifically the management training division, has experienced a series of changes since 1994 and is on the threshold of many more changes to come, slowly but surely realising that change is a constant variable that needs constant

management attention. The SAPS training component in particular has been exposed to the constant push-and-pull forces of change since the democratisation of the broader society in the mid-1990s. This tension creates the sort of fertile ground that new and fresh ideas need to germinate into solutions for the future. Through the recommendations made in this chapter and the energy and commitment of the SAPS members that work in this field, there is much positive potential to have an established corps of well -trained and developed middle managers in the next two to five years. The following and final chapter will draw conclusions from this research.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The greatest management challenge for police managers in the 21st century is to develop an extraordinary organisation by optimising the ability and directing the needs of average people. The challenge is to increase professionalism in an unstable and in most cases prescriptive environment. Life-long employment will become the exception rather than the rule and organisational learning will become a necessity. The police will have to move away from what Swieringa and Wierdsma (1992:64) called the '*unlearning organisation*'. This phrase refers to the type of organisation where rules dictate free and creative thinking and where reorganisation is focused on processes and structures rather than changing individual behaviour. This also includes organisations where collective learning is viewed as a fallacy and indoctrination is preferred to management and leadership development. Police managers need to consider the unlikely, if not the absurd. They need to change their views on employment, lateral entry, time management, professionalism, individualised development, reward and remuneration systems and midlife re-training. They need to create learning organisations that thrive on change by encouraging experimentation, clearly communicating both successes and failures throughout the organisation and facilitate learning from within as well as from outside the organisation. Police managers of the 21st century need to reward learning and must be able to manage organisational knowledge. They need to set the example and become designers rather than managers. They must strategise, teach, coach, listen, be humble and accessible while signalling change by using new language and being role models.

With these challenges for managers in the SAPS as a framework, this research process has attempted to focus on the management capacity of middle managers (station managers) in the SAPS and analyse their

perceived competency levels in comparison to the management development support and involvement they have experienced. This chapter has as its objective the following:

1. To revisit the original research goals, objectives and methodology and to ascertain whether they have been met;
2. To summarise the main components of the research;
3. To highlight the main research findings; and
4. Provide insight into other future related research possibilities in this field.

7.2 CONCLUSION

Against the general background of the SAPS managers as described above, it can be stated that the South African Police Service is at a turning point. There is a need to balance the vertical (structure, formalisation and political control) and the horizontal (the community's needs). The wants and aspirations of the politicians and the needs of the community must be met in an effort to provide safety and security as public services to citizens. Managers will be expected to get in touch again with what is happening at grass-roots level through consultation, defining norms and setting quality standards. The police managers of the 21st century will have to handle a new management dualism: centralised political control and oversight against the extreme decentralising of service delivery. Professionalism will thus be at a premium with centralised control and decentralised execution.

In every society there are markers that tell one a great deal about the society. In South Africa, one of the most significant markers has been the system of law and order. Traditionally, policing was been done by force, brute force if necessary, in the service of the government. In transforming society as a whole, a cornerstone was the initiation of the transformation of the police in 1994. During the past 10 years, this transformation has taken different forms. Van Zyl (2002:50) describes the results of this process as follows: "In 1994 there were high hopes with new appointments in key positions (in SAPS) and a new approach in creating a Police Service rather

than a Police Force. The first results should have been clearly visible by now (2002). Instead, we (SAPS) have run out of talent just when we needed it most. We (SAPS) tried to normalise and stabilise the crime situation, relying on traditional technology and by following traditional approaches. The playing fields have changed so much in this time period that we (SAPS) have actually lost ground. Now we blame our ever-diminishing figures for our failure to perform.”

Within this context of policing, the importance of the effectiveness and efficiency of the management at all levels within the organisation is clear. Managers need to have both the technical training and ability in terms of policing, but also the capacity to manage in this rather unique and demanding environment. Operating at the coal-face of this delivery within SAPS are the station managers. These police officers are the “CEOs” of the 1100 police stations in South Africa and carry the responsibility of actually delivering “policing” to the public. They are pressurised from above by politics, policies and bureaucratic procedures and pressured from below by resource constraints, low morale, absenteeism and an aggressive public that are now demanding better and more efficient services.

The concern of the South African public with the ability of the police to do their work properly is highlighted by the media and the sensational opinions that are given. Researchers and academics in South Africa have voiced their different points of view through research reports and publications; politicians have involved themselves in the debate through their statements and promises and the SAPS itself involved through their various reports and committees, is aware of the seemingly endless debate around police management competency.

Within this milieu of policing, management and service delivery in the unique South African context, this research focused on the management capacity of these officers at station level within the SAPS. By investigating the management development opportunities that were provided and the

effect that this possibly could have had on service delivery at station level in the SAPS, was described.

The problem statement of this research was founded on the following: The SAPS is one of South Africa's largest organisations employing over 150 000 people nation-wide. Within this large public sector organisation, there is a particular level of managers who are given the responsibility of successfully understanding, managing and implementing all major national policies and strategies of crime prevention. They are the station managers of each and every police station in the country. These managers are expected to be competent in terms of a number of core areas of knowledge, a variety of skills, and a selection of appropriate attitudes. The people in this particular position of management are developed in a variety of internal (in-service training by the SAPS) and external (training by any other organisation) interventions that have as their communal goal, the delivery of competent and able station managers.

The management development programmes that station managers underwent formed part of a wider transformation process in the SAPS during that time period (1994 - 2004). The central focus of these transformation themes is to create real capacity to address crime. The internal organisational change processes must be complemented by more effective processes to activate community resources – both as an important part of decision-making, and in terms of shared responsibility for crime prevention. The implementation of this new paradigm of community policing requires the development of capacity to manage a set of interrelated processes at station level. This new paradigm involved a radical departure from the existing thinking and management styles within the SAPS.

It was therefore expected of the station manager to be able to drive this transformation process in order to properly address crime at each station. In order to build the management capacity of the station managers to support their efforts to drive the transformation process, a management

capacity-building programme was designed to assist in the management of crime at local level. (Klipin, 1996:3) This programme became known as the Police Station Management Programme (PSMP). The PSMP was designed to build capacity in terms of the management dimensions of the job profile of the station managers.

The implementation of the PSMP was completed in 2002 and it remains an important initiative within the management development process within the SAPS. Since 2002, no management development initiative of similar scope and impact has been available to station managers in the SAPS. It is observable that the station managers in the SAPS have been operating at station level with little or no management development support since then. In addition, there have been numerous new appointments of members to the position of station manager, yet no PSMP-type programme has been offered. The SAPS started to investigate the re-introduction of the PSMP as a management development intervention for these station managers in August 2003 but to date no concrete action has been taken. With this in mind, this research made use of the PSMP in terms of the value that it holds for an evaluative study.

The research problem broadly focuses on the perceived variation in the levels of managerial capacity of the current station managers in the SAPS. The goal of the research was to compile a comprehensive list of managerial competencies for these station managers through a combination of international best practice comparisons and local research. A comparison was then made between the current managerial competencies of station managers in the East Metropole of Cape Town SAPS (as a case study), and this list, in order to measure the perceived gap in management capacity and to analyse the effect that the SAPS management development processes, with particular reference to the PSMP, have on these station managers.

The research objectives of this study were:

1. What are the management competencies of middle-level managers in the public service in general?
2. What should a generic management profile of a station manager in the SAPS look like?
3. What management development initiatives and support are available to station managers in the SAPS?
4. Have these management development initiatives in the SAPS had a positive effect on the ability of station managers (in the East Metropole of Cape Town) to manage their stations successfully?

It was the premise of the researcher that there are definite gaps in the management competencies and related management capacity of station managers in South Africa. It was also the premise of the researcher that the PSMP as a specific management development intervention for this level of management is a very useful and applicable management development tool within the SAPS to build management capacity at station level. In conjunction with this however, there may be certain management competency areas that have, as yet, not been completely incorporated into these particular management development interventions and that should be built into the management development programme and structures of the SAPS in future.

In terms of this research, the results were obtained through studying reality and observing empirical facts. The facts relate to the management competencies of station managers which either exist (have been developed and measured) or do not (lack in the person filling the position). The study was manageable as it was linked to station managers in the Western Cape that have been sampled according to their appointment as a manager at station level within the East Metropole of Cape Town SAPS. The scope of the research was specific enough (East Metropole: Cape Town, Western Cape) to provide clear results while having the potential to be generalized enough to apply to the wider population of station managers in South Africa. The researcher's motivation to investigate this issue was particularly high as

she was involved in the target group's performance management and the training intervention (PSMP) as a facilitator and management team member. The researcher has also published a book in the field of Police Management. The theoretical relevance of this research is evident in the utilisation of the outcomes for practitioners and academics alike as the advancement of knowledge in this field is important for any progress in terms of the general success and survival of the SAPS. The practical value of the research has already been touched upon, but it is important to reiterate that the utility of the findings is for a wider audience and for a variety of purposes, most importantly the further development and activation of a sound management development policy and strategy for the SAPS.

This research was structured and presented in the following way:

Chapter 1 introduced the reader to the South African police management environment and highlighted various structural and procedural challenges in the policing system. These challenges related in turn directly to the ability of the managers at the various police stations to apply certain basic managerial procedures and to use the resources at their disposal in creative and often non-bureaucratic ways. The chapter provided the focus of the research in terms of the problem statement and gave a brief background of the issues and an overview of the research methodology. It provided an introduction to the research and outlined the problem that was to be researched. It gave a descriptive background to the study and linked the researcher's involvement in police management development and training interventions to the focus of the research. The research methodology was broken down into its various components and perspectives and a research methodology was provided.

The following chapter (chapter 2) focused on management competencies for public sector managers. Management competency was defined in general and a differentiation between public and private sector management competencies was made. A specific list of public sector management competencies was derived. Further to this list, specific police

management competencies were described and a list of station management competencies was given. These lists of competencies formed the foundation of the measurement which took place later in the research process.

Chapter 3 concentrated on management development as a tool for enhancing management competencies. It described the theoretical base for the process of management development by looking at its various components. These included management capacity, management competency and the related knowledge, skills and aptitudes for middle-level managers. The implementation of a competency-based approach to management development was explored and various competency models were discussed. The role of training as a particular management development intervention was also explored in detail.

Chapter 4 focused on the South African Police Service (SAPS) in terms of its history and current reality. Specific attention was given to the management development opportunities available to station managers. The current job profile and related management competencies of station managers was explored. The current management development programme and its related components was discussed in terms of their planned outputs and outcomes. The current management training programmes available to station managers in the SAPS was scanned and introduced as the basis from which management capacity was developed for these station level managers.

Chapter 5 focused on an evaluation of current management development processes in the SAPS through the utilisation of a case study – the East Metropole of the SAPS in Cape Town. The data collection process and instrument was described. For this purpose, a sample of station managers from the East Metropole in the Cape Town was utilised. Within this sample, some of the station managers would have completed the PSMP while others would not have done so. The results of these two groups were compared in order to ascertain the possible affect that the PSMP as a

management development training intervention has had on improving policing in the Eastern Metropole. Lastly, the chapter provided the research results and an in-depth analysis of these results for interpretation purposes

Chapter 6 provided the recommendations from this analysis and interpretation and formed the crux of the research process by providing valuable and useful suggestions to academics, trainers and practitioners in the field of police management, management development and public management.

In conclusion, the data collected in this study has shown significant and consistent results that can inform and guide management development and its related management capacity-building initiatives in the SAPS, specifically in relation to the following:

1. Those station managers that had completed the PSMP training intervention consistently evaluated themselves as more able to implement the management competencies on the given list. This shows that the provision of a specific training programme for a particular level of managers has a positive effect on their ability to perform;
2. Organising competencies consistently scored higher in terms of perceived ability than the other three management competency cluster groups. This indicates that the other three competency cluster groups need additional support and development;
3. All of the respondents evaluated their experience of the SAPS training interventions as poor or not present at all. This is significant enough that serious redesign and quality development needs to take place for future SAPS training interventions, particularly with a focus on outsourcing appropriate components of the management development process;
4. Most of the station managers in this sample have been in the SAPS for five to eight years or longer. This shows commitment to the organisation and a wide range of experience and expertise that is available to be utilised in management development interventions

in the future, especially with relation to coaching and mentoring alternatives; and

5. Most of the respondents have not been involved in many management development interventions other than training programmes. This provide much scope for the SAPS to extend and develop their management development strategy and products through the use of alternative delivery methodologies.

7.3 FUTURE RESEARCH POSSIBILITIES

This research study limited itself to a focus on middle-level managers in the SAPS (public sector) and investigated their management capacity through the use of management competencies and management development support interventions. There are a variety of other research possibilities related to this study that should be explored. These include:

1. An assessment of the real competency levels of station managers through the use of specific competency tests and observation tools in order to make a more focused assessment of their abilities;
2. An extension of this study to the other levels of management in the SAPS in order to ascertain whether there are any significant differences in the results so as to better plan for and implement management development interventions for these groups;
3. The development of a management development model and strategy for the SAPS in terms of international best practices and local needs; and
4. The investigation and design of a dovetailed training package for managers in the SAPS that aligns and focuses the learning interventions in a more holistic and performance-driven way.

In conclusion, the police manager of tomorrow will also have to realise how important partnerships are in enhancing the ability to deliver service. This will have to take place in an environment where people are becoming more

individualised in a society that is becoming more global. Assimilation and integration will become out-dated and multi-culturalism will become the new management reality. Uniqueness will be tolerated and diversity will be viewed as a strength. They will have to realise that it is people that move other people, not processes or structures, and they as managers must have a future perspective in order to facilitate such movement. The management focus will have to shift from making policies to implementing them. Responsibility and accountability will become management realities while the police move from a culture of meeting to a culture of doing. It will be expected of managers to add value to processes they have never been exposed to before and the community will start to direct the police more and the police the community less in an effort to increase the level of community safety.

“New leadership skills will be required which move away from the ‘old dogma’ of managing, planning and controlling where leaders learnt to be articulate advocates and decisive decision makers. Increasingly, leaders are confronting the ‘new dogma’ of vision, values and mental models”

Senge (1990:53).

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ANNEXURE 1

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

PLEASE ANSWER ALL THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS AS HONESTLY
AS POSSIBLE AND TO THE BEST OF YOUR KNOWLEDGE

***All information contained in this questionnaire will be kept strictly
confidential.***

SECTION 1: PERSONAL PARTICULARS

Circle the appropriate answer & fill in detail where necessary:

1	Your current rank	Director	Senior Supt	Supt	Captain	Inspector
2	Your current position at the station (job title)					
3	Gender	Male			Female	
4	Race	Black	White	Coloured	Indian	Other
5	Number of years in SAPS	0-5	5-10	10-15	15-20	20+
6	Number of years at this station	0-2	3-5	5-8	8-10	10+
7	Number of years in management position in SAPS	0-2	3-5	5-8	8-10	10+
8	Number of years you intend to stay in the SAPS	0-5	5-10	10+	Unsure	
9	Have you held a management position in any other organisation?	Yes			No	

SECTION 2: MANAGEMENT TRAINING

2.1 Please indicate what your formal qualifications (degrees/diplomas) are to date:

	Degree / Diploma	Year completed
1	Standard 10/Matric/Grade 12 at school	
2	Bachelors degree (3 years) Specify: _____	
3	Post-graduate degree: Specify: _____	
4	Diploma: Specify: _____	
5	Certificate programmes: Specify: _____	
6	Other: Specify: _____	
7	Any incomplete qualifications: Specify: _____ _____	

Pectus roborant cultus recti

2.2 What Management Training have you completed in SAPS:

	Management Training Course	Yes	No	Year completed
1	Basic Management Programme			
2	Operational Management Programme			
3	Station Management Programme			
4	Leadership Development Programme			
5	Officers Course			
6	Other SAPS management courses completed (please list):			

2.3 Which of the following management development activities have you been involved in within SAPS (tick on list below):

	Management Development Activity	Involved in (tick)
1	Senior Management development programmes	
2	Supervisory Management development programmes	
3	General Training (Skills Development) programmes	
4	Vocational Training programmes (Job related/specific)	
5	Self-help programmes (Personal development)	
6	Specialised Training programmes	
7	Specialised Workshops	
8	Learning Assignments (Task teams/committees)	
9	Specific Work-related Seminars/Presentations	
10	Specialised Conferences	
11	Coaching and Mentorship Programmes	

2.4 When reflecting on the Management Training and Development interventions within SAPS, how do you feel about them in terms of the following aspects: (Mark with an X)

	Item	Not present	Poor	Satisfactory	Good
1	Oversight and Leadership of the programme				
2	Stability of administrative and financial support				
3	Consistent management philosophy				
4	Administrative control				
5	Selection and support of participants				
6	Accessibility to members				
7	Preparation for and application of classroom learning				
8	Quality of programme delivery				
9	Evaluation of participants				
10	Ongoing programme evaluation				

2.4 What Management Training have you completed outside of SAPS:

	Management Training Course	Year completed
1	Name: Where completed:	
2	Name: Where completed:	
3	Name: Where completed:	
4	Name: Where completed:	

SECTION 3: MANAGEMENT CAPACITY AND DEVELOPMENT

Below is a comprehensive list of management competencies (knowledge, skills and abilities). I would like you to assess your current competency (ability): in terms of each of the following:

Management Competency		Evaluation of your own ability		
1. Planning Competencies:		No ability	Some ability	Well-developed ability
1.1	Ability to develop an operational plan for the station			
1.2	Ability to plan & schedule community participation			
1.3	Ability to set clear & measurable goals & standards			
1.4	Ability to budget for station			
1.5	Ability to manage on shorter time frame (under pressure)			
1.6	Ability to manage risks			
1.7	Ability to focus on detail			
1.8	Ability to establishing direction (drive)			
1.9	Ability to set short & long term vision for station			
1.10	Ability to focus on bigger picture			
1.11	Ability to be entrepreneurial and strategic			
1.12	Ability to define the task			
1.13	Ability to be analytical			
1.14	Ability to think conceptually			
1.15	Ability to solve problems and think laterally			

2. Organising Competencies		No ability	Some ability	Well-developed ability
2.1	Ability to co-ordinate activities			
2.2	Ability to allocating resources			
2.3	Strong ability to specialize (focus)			
2.4	Ability to institutionalize community policing in station area			
2.5	Ability to match peoples needs to tasks at station level			
2.6	Time management			
2.7	Ability to prioritize			
2.8	Ability to listen and organize			
2.9	Ability to aligning people to strategy			
2.10	Ability to motivate people to enhance change			
2.11	Ability to make resources available			
2.12	Ability to empower others			
2.13	Ability to understand individual needs, team needs and the task at hand			
2.14	Well-developed communication ability			
2.15	Ability to delegation effectively			
2.16	Procedural & administrative skills			
2.17	Information processing skills			
3. Executing Competencies		No ability	Some ability	Well-developed ability
3.1	Ability to implement the operation plan of the station			
3.2	Ability to establish & maintain a crime prevention and detective service at the station			
3.3	Ability to institutionalise the vision and mission of SAPS at station level			
3.4	Ability to establish a community police forum at station			
3.5	Ability to identify and solve problems			
3.6	Well-developed decision making skills			
3.7	Ability to enforce compliance to rules			
3.8	Administrative ability			
3.9	Ability to motivate and inspire others			
3.10	Ability to cope with change			
3.11	Ability to integrate activities			
3.12	Ability to be enthusiastic			
3.13	Ability to show integrity, fairness, humility, and self-confidence			

3.14	Team building skills			
3.15	Ability to train and coach staff			
3.16	Ability to manage conflict			
3.17	Strong leadership skills			
3.18	Self-discipline and self-management skills			
3.19	Discipline and counsel staff			
3.20	Clear judgment skills			
4. Control & Evaluation Competencies		No ability	Some ability	Well-developed ability
4.1	Ability to produce constant results			
4.2	Ability to be effective (do the right things)			
4.3	Ability to develop ordered systems			
4.4	Ability to understand and work in managerial hierarchy			
4.5	Ability to obtain unbiased information			
4.6	Ability to appraise people and performance			
4.7	Performance management skills at individual and station level			
4.8	Ability to produce change			
4.9	Ability to be efficient (Do things right)			
4.10	Ability to be a transformational Leadership			
4.11	Ability to maintain an evaluative approach			
4.12	Sound judgment ability			

Thank you so much for your time and availability to complete this questionnaire. If you would like a copy of the results and report, please put a forwarding address or e-mail in space below:

ANNEXURE 2
COMPLETE LIST OF STATIONS IN THE EAST METROPOLE SAPS,
CAPE TOWN

<u>STATION</u>	<u>SIZE</u>
1. Atlantis	Small
2. Bellville	Large
3. Bellville South	Medium
4. Bishop Lavis	Medium
5. Bothasig	Small
6. Brakenfell	Medium
7. Cape Town International Airport	Small
8. Delft	Small
9. Durbanville	Medium
10. Elsies River	Medium
11. Goodwood	Medium
12. Gordonsbaai	Small
13. Harare	Small
14. Khayelitsha	Large
15. Kleinvele	Small
16. Kraaifontein	Medium
17. Kuilsriver	Medium
18. Lingeletu wes	Small
19. Macassar	Medium
20. Melkbosstrand	Small
21. Mfuleni	Small
22. Milnerton	Medium
23. Parow	Large
24. Ravensmead	Medium
25. Somerset West	Large
26. Strand	Medium
27. Table View	Large

Note: Size estimation based on rank of Station Commissioner and number of staff at station

ANNEXURE 3
PERMISSION FOR DATA COLLECTION IN SAPS

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS

SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

AMAPOLISA OMZANTSI AFRICA

TELEFAX
DEKBLAD - COVERING SHEET

AAN/TO : University of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch
VIR AANDAG/FOR ATT : Ms B Weaver
U FAKSNR/YOUR FAX NO : (021) 918 4123
AFSENDER/SENDER : Provincial Commissioner, Western Cape
DATUM/DATE : 2004-06-25
GEHANTEER DEUR/DEALT BY : Capt Meiring / Insp Jansen
TEL AFSENDER/TEL SENDER : (021) 417 7327/31
FAKS NR : (021) 417 7445
MY VERWYS/MY REF : 25/7/12/1(07/05/2004)
AANTAL BLADSYE, DEKBLAD INGESLUIT/NUMBER SHEETS, INCLUDING COVERING SHEET:
ONDERWERP/SUBJECT : **REQUEST FOR ACCESS TO INFORMATION :
ACT, 2000 (ACT NO. 2 OF 2000) : MS B WEAVER**

BOODSKAP/MESSAGE :

1. Your letter dated 2004-05-17 refers.
2. Permission is hereby granted to you to conduct research on the mentioned topic.
3. The following conditions are relevant:
 - No intruding upon the official time and duties of members should take place;
 - The SA Police Service must receive a copy of the final research document.

.....CAPTAIN
DEPUTY INFORMATION OFFICER : WESTERN CAPE
C MEIRING
lib15/M Weaver permission