

**IMPROVING THE LEVELS OF PROFESSIONALISM OF TRAINERS WITHIN THE
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE**

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that:

IMPROVING THE LEVELS OF PROFESSIONALISM OF TRAINERS WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

A handwritten signature in black ink, consisting of the initials 'M.S.' circled and followed by the name 'Modise'.

SIGNATURE

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late beloved parents, Mother Lenah Modise and Father Sacks Modise for the legacy they left me of pure excellence, tenacious living, sharpened intellect and spiritual devotion. Also to my sisters, Mirriam Bella Shuping, Keitumetsi Nene Shuping, Phasha Majoule, Chepo Modise, Virginia Gabalape Modise, brothers Matthews "Pitso" Shuping, Johannes Mlabisto Modise, Tseleng Modise and Manikie Modise for always being there for me in times of need.

To the Almighty God, who gave me the strength and courage to persevere and remain focused. "Thou hast also given me the shield of thy salvation and thy right hand hath holden me up and thy gentleness hath made me great" Psalm 18:35 (King James Version).

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ABET:	Adult Basic Education and Training
ANC:	African National Congress
BA:	Bachelor of Arts
CI:	Continuous Improvement
CA:	Continuous Assessment
COLT:	Culture of Learning and Teaching Service
CPD:	Continuing Professional Development
DAS:	Developmental Appraisal System
DEd:	Doctorate in Education
ETD:	Education Training and Development
EVE:	Ethics and Values in Education
FS:	Free State
HRD:	Human Resource and Development
INSET:	In-Service Education and Training
ISTA:	In-Service Training Accreditation
MEd:	Master's in Education
NC:	Northern Cape
NQF:	National Qualifications Framework
PD:	Professional Development
PRESET:	Pre-Service Education and Training
RP:	Roleplay
RSA:	Republic of South Africa
RTC:	Refresher Training Course
SAPS:	South African Police Service
SAQA:	South African Qualifications Authority
SPSS:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TBVC:	Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei
UNISA:	University of South Africa

ABSTRACT

The study aimed to identify factors that cause unprofessional conduct among trainers at the training establishments in the Northern Cape Province of the South African Police Service. The researcher focused on the status of trainers in the SAPS and aimed to determine whether In-Service Education and Training can assist in enhancing trainers' professional status. The aim of this study was to identify how the levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service could be improved. The objectives of the study were to:

- identify the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service
- describe the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service and
- make recommendations for improving the levels of professionalism within the South African Police Service.

A literature review on adult learning, training and development, as well as SAPS professionalism, was conducted. The literature review subscribes to the premise that if effective facilitation methods are implemented in adult learning centres, the attempt to motivate adults to participate in learning programmes could be successful. The qualitative research methodology that was conducted involved both one-on-one and focus-group interviews with senior management, middle management and trainers. Three themes were identified from the research question and sub-questions of the study and are discussed in detail. After the empirical data were analysed, the results of the empirical evidence were interpreted. Findings revealed that there are trainers in the SAPS whose behaviour is severely lacking in professionalism. Trainers do not exhibit appropriate ethical conduct towards their adult learners and do not follow the code of conduct as prescribed for division training as is the norm. Finally, based on the research, both future studies and improved trainer professionalism programmes with specific reference to the SAPS are recommended.

Keywords

Professionalism; South African Police Service; In-Service Education and Training; Adult Education; Leadership and Training

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

According to Gravett (2005), the main aim of providing training is to develop the mind, to have a theoretical understanding, as well as teaching and learning that is aimed at reaching specific competence levels. Gravett (ibid), further argues that the training of an individual should be viewed as a process that systematically provides an opportunity for skills development. This is carried out to ensure that the trainers can reach the required levels of competence to perform a specific task. Trainers need in-service training and development that can assist them to understand and teach learners within the South African Police Service (SAPS, 2007c:2). They have to be well-capacitated so that they can then execute their tasks efficiently. Erasmus, Loedolff, Mda and Nel (2006) contend that a trainer should be an expert in the subject matter and ought to be proficient in the theoretical, technical and practical aspects of the discipline or training content.

The theories, standards and approaches used in adult education are termed andragogy as opposed to pedagogy, which refers to the teaching of children. Adults need to know why they need to be taught something before undertaking to learn it. Orientation to learning requires trainers to develop learning experiences that are learner centred, not focusing on the subject matter but on helping the adult learner to learn (Knowles, 1970). Adults undertake to learn something on their own, and they invest considerable energy in identifying the benefits they will gain by learning and the negative consequences of not learning (Knowles, 1970). The researcher believes that lifelong learning is critical for society to improve as it stimulates brain activity, increases wisdom and adaptability to change, and may lead to improved physical and spiritual health for whole communities as will be elaborated on in Chapter 2.

The professional competence of trainers in the SAPS is crucial when dealing with the essential task of training other police officers. The use of the term “competence” has theoretical implications that extend previous approaches to trainers’ professionalism

in essential ways. In the strict sense of the word, the term refers to cognitive aspects only (Weinert, 2001). When viewed from this perspective, competencies are context-dependent cognitive achievement dispositions that are acquired through learning and are needed to cope with describable demands in specific domains (Klieme, Hartig & Rauch, 2008). A broader understanding of the term also includes motivational, metacognitive and self-regulatory characteristics, which are considered decisive for the willingness to act (Connell, 2003).

Professionalism means the pursuit of excellence, not just competence (Schneider, 2009:24). The SAPS has, in this regard and on numerous occasions, acknowledged the existence of negative perceptions about the various functions performed by the institution as well as the attitude of its members in general (SAPS, 2013f). The media reports regularly on poor police conduct, poor service delivery and police brutality (SAPS, 2013f). It can be argued that most of these perceptions on the levels of professional conduct are associated with the inadequate quality training and education of its employees which is closely linked to the actions of professionals. Negative perceptions about the SAPS have led to the impression that the institution is inadequately managed as its employees often act unprofessionally. To address the professional profile of the SAPS, training and education of its employees is, therefore, crucial (SAPS, 2013f).

Police professionalism is proactive policing, which implies going beyond traditional definitions of policing. This includes improved accountability, strong leadership, continual professional development of police, training, integrity, quality of service delivery and promoting police professionalism (Schneider, 2009:26). Meaningful professional development, therefore, is a combination of education and training. Education-based professional development engages the person's effectiveness within their profession. It develops the core skills that enable the person to strive for excellence and mastery in their field of professionalism (Harrison, 2003). Training develops links between skills required for the profession and skills required for the organisation, as argued by Woodall and Winstanley (1998). Given this statement, trainers need to be provided with many opportunities for sustained growth and the appropriate support and guidance with a purpose of continued skills development. Guskey (2000), asserts that constant efforts are required to enhance trainers'

professionalism substantially. The central issue discussed in this study is the improvement of the professional levels of trainers in the SAPS. There is a quest for a system that attempts to meet the needs of trainers who lack professionalism, partly due to inadequate levels of knowledge, skills and professional development on the part of the trainers. This expertise could be instilled if trainers are provided with further professional development to be better equipped to handle the changes within the system.

1.2 THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

The task of the SAPS, according to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), is to ensure a safe and secure environment for all, in accordance with the needs that are identified in specific communities. It is also to render adequate and effective services to the communities. The SAPS ought to, therefore, equip its personnel with the necessary skills and knowledge to execute their duties (Masilela, 2012). Presently, the SAPS trainers are not accountable for their lack of commitment, irresponsible behaviour or lack of productivity and competence (SAPS, 2007c:1). Naturally this does not apply to all trainers, and those who display professional behaviour may feel offended. However, for the most part, this statement is a reality as will be discussed in the literature review chapter. Unprofessional trainers are impassive, for example, trainers commonly fail to respond to emails or telephone calls, which makes getting feedback or problem solution both confusing and frustrating. Another common challenge on the part of trainers is passing blame. Either trainers frequently blame external factors for problems that they have created or influenced. Not accepting accountability is a defence mechanism and often causes problems for other trainers.

The third form of unprofessional behaviour is not keeping their promises. Keeping one's promises is a fundamental professional expectation, yet trainers frequently fail to do this by reneging on their responsibilities. They make promises that cannot or will not be kept, which in turn causes problems for other trainers who depend on the fulfilment of these assurances. Politics too is viewed as pervasive, notwithstanding it being a dysfunctional behaviour. Some trainers are routinely promoted based on who they know, rather than what they know or their competence as has been reported by

Zengele (2013). Furthermore, poor communication and in particular poor listening skills is a significant problem area for trainers. There is a disconcerting lack of commitment by trainers. These trainers do not attempt to give maximum contributions to their profession. This manifests in failing to report for work when they have to present classes, and irresponsible behaviour by failing to adhere to the SAPS workplace monitoring and evaluation assessment tools. Finally, many trainers do not seek opportunities to encourage learning, neither do they take every opportunity to improve their professional practice to provide quality learning. Therefore, there is a compelling need to address this dismal state of affairs within the SAPS Division: Training (ibid).

1.3 RATIONALE

Maree and van der Westhuizen (2011), state that the rationale is a statement of how the researcher develops an interest in a particular topic or area of research. This study is of particular interest to the researcher in his position as the Northern Cape Provincial Skills Development Facilitator and a change agent for the SAPS and because of the SAPS' need for professional trainers.

The researcher is aware that there is an urgent need to enhance the quality of training specifically in the SAPS context. This can be achieved through coaching, which was one of the motivations for conducting this research. The researcher is also of the opinion that in-service training is of vital importance as it assists trainers to sharpen their skills. In addition, it has the potential to keep them abreast of curriculum changes as well as the implementation of such curriculum changes. One of the goals of the National Qualifications Framework Act (67 of 2008) (NQF) is to "... enhance the quality of education and training" (Department of Education DoE, 2008:4). This focus, in the view of the researcher, ought not to be limited to the training of adult learners and pre-service training only, but should encompass the instruction of in-service trainers. Therefore, the in-service training of trainers as part of the Human Resource Development (HRD), with specific reference to professionalism in the SAPS, is central to the focus of this study. In-service training helps trainers to learn new ways of teaching to enhance their professionalism. It improves the knowledge, skills and attitudes of trainees and enables them to apply what they learn in their line of duty.

This ensures that they are operationally effective in their duties and organisationally prepared to conduct their duties and deliver professional services.

1.4 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

1.4.1 The research aim

The aim of this study was to determine how the levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service could be improved.

1.4.2 The research objectives

Following this and in accordance with the White Paper on Public Service Training and Education (RSA, 1997:18), which is keen on professional training support and guidance development, the objectives of this study were to:

- Identify the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service.
- Describe the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service.
- Make recommendations for improving the levels of professionalism within the South African Police Service.

1.5 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions that this study sought to answer were derived from the above research objectives. The background of the research reveals that this study was concerned with the following main research question:

- How could the levels of trainers' professionalism within the SAPS be improved?

In attempting to answer the main research question of the study, the following sub-questions were posed:

- What are the expected levels of trainers' professionalism within the South African Police Service?
- What are the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service?
- How could the levels of professionalism by trainers within the South African Police Service be improved?

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The researcher argues that since the research focusses on the SAPS, which is responsible for the development and professionalism of its members, it is possible to transfer the outcomes of the research to other organisations with similar developmental responsibilities and potential challenges towards their employees. The SAPS has, on numerous occasions, acknowledged the existence of negative perceptions about the various functions as well as the attitude of SAPS members in general (SAPS, 2013f:5). This gives the public the impression that the institution lacks professionalism. Professionalism refers to how efficiently and proficiently the institutions' employees perform their daily activities, as perceived by the outside world (Wellins, Smith, & Erker, 2009). The training and education of its capable employees, including trainers as academics at the training centres, is of significance in addressing the professional profile of the SAPS (SAPS, 2013f). The National Development Plan (NDP) also calls for professionalism in public institutions (RSA, 2013b).

Wellins, Smith and Erker, (2009), state that a limited number of institutions have an adequate supply of talented employees. Research conducted on the Human Resources Management (HRM) function in SAPS since 2002 revealed that talent management lacked the attention, when strategic plans and policies were developed and implemented (Kotze, 2011). It can be inferred from the aforementioned source (ibid), that the SAPS do not give adequate attention to talent management as an HR function. This essential function is unavailable to the academics at SAPS. Therefore, institutions will have to increasingly depend on the development of their management programmes. The objective is to improve the level of their capable employees' work and in the process address the issue of professionalism (Wellins et al., 2009). This study intended to add value to the service of SAPS trainers by appreciating possible

ways of improving on their professionalism. Importantly, the trainers' competence and performance critically depend on the climate of the training establishment of the SAPS Education Training and Development Policy (SAPS, 2007c). Thus, the outcome of this study could hopefully support trainers in the SAPS to effectively and efficiently discharge their duties.

1.7 DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1.7.1 Delimitations

According to Hofstee (2010), delimitations explain everything that the researcher is responsible for examining and detailing, and that which the researcher is not responsible for investigating. They limit the scope of the study, leaving conclusions that are not applicable under certain circumstances.

According to Collis and Hussey (2003), delineation refers to the particular area on which a study is focused. This research was limited to members of the SAPS in the Northern Cape Province and covered four districts namely; Frances Baard District Municipality, John Taolo Gaetsewe District Municipality, Namakwa District Municipality and Pixley ka Seme District Municipality. The reason for this delimitation was the immense size of the region and ensuring accurate end-results. Only 21 participants took part that included senior management, middle management and trainers. The researcher was satisfied with the proxy of the research group because all the participants were directly involved with training in SAPS. Participants were selected using non-probability sampling, and the sample is fully explained in Chapter 4.

The study faced the following constraints: the busy schedules of the participants could have delayed the data collection process. Therefore, the researcher designed short interview schedules that were not time-consuming. Further, participants were given space to choose the most suitable time for the interview sessions. The research sample included senior managers, middle managers and trainers in the SAPS. The expected cost of research was high as the sample was distributed throughout the entire Northern Cape Province. It is assumed that this study was valid for the specific

industry in which it was conducted and could, therefore, only apply to the SAPS environment.

1.7.2 Limitations

Limitations affect how the researcher can generalise the conclusions or how confident the researcher is about the conclusions. The study had four significant limitations commonly experienced in other studies. The sample drawn for this study was restricted to the SAPS environment and included representation from all the institutions as well as from all levels within the institutes. However, this is only one of the nine provinces in South Africa and cannot be representative of the entire national SAPS. It is, therefore, understood that because the project was circumscribed and situated in a specific context, claims to generalisability of its findings would not be feasible. Marshall and Rossman (2011) however, argue that although no qualitative studies may be generalised in the statistical sense, their findings may be transferable.

Constraints that limited the size of the sample were the duration of the study and the geographical area covered. The study confined itself to a few senior managers, middle managers and trainers who worked at the training centres. Time is an essential factor in research and can affect research findings positively or negatively. To carry out comprehensive research on the issue, funding, just like time, is equally essential in research. The researcher used personal resources to finance the research activities and combined work with research. Literature and proven research are not very common, and while this could be a limitation, it may also provide an opportunity to add value to the current body of knowledge.

1.8 THE THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

The theoretical framework that guides this study is the Adult Learning Theory (ALT) by Knowles (1990), which describes the art and science of assisting adults to learn. It is claimed to be the “best-known theory of adult learning” (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991:249), and “synonymous with the education of adults” (Pratt, 1988:160). For the past 40 years, andragogy has become a dominant adult education framework. It is described as “the preeminent and persistent practice-based, instructional method”.

Rachal (2002:211) describes it as a “guiding principle on how best to educate adults”. Further, Beder and Carrea (1988:75) view it as a “set of guidelines for the effective instruction of adults”.

For some adult trainers, andragogy has become “the theory of adult education” (Merriam & Brockett, 1997:135), and a “badge of identity because it grants them a sense of their distinct professional identity” (Brookfield, 1986:91). As Feuer and Gerber (1988:32) note, the andragogical badge offers both educators and trainers their unique identity by “carving out a specific content domain, a formal, theory-based body of knowledge to be nurtured and cultivated”.

Trainers who subscribe to andragogical principles, often called andragogues (Kreber & Cranton, 2000) feel the most appropriate way to design learning is to keep the adult learner at the centre or the focus of the learning experience by utilising instructional strategies which best meet the adult learner needs. The design of adult-specific knowledge acquisition involves “choosing problem areas for learning, designing units of experiential learning, utilising indicated methods and materials and arranging them in sequence according to the learners’ readiness and aesthetic principles” (Knowles, 1990:133).

This theory is relevant because it informed the study as to how best teaching and learning of adults can be undertaken. The theoretical background to all the teaching methods mentioned in this study is explained. The theoretical framework assists in providing scientifically based answers. Knowles’ (ibid), model acknowledges the self-driven nature of adults to learn and the experiences accumulated by adult learners as resources in learning. The educator and learner can apply it in any adult learning setting or programme as it encourages the mutual diagnosis of learning needs and evaluation of the programme (Knowles, 1970). The model recognises that learning does not take place in a vacuum. Adult learners interact with their environment during the learning process. When applied to adult learning programmes, the model addresses the individual, organisational and societal differences that affect learning (Knowles, Borrie & Telfer, 2005). From a training perspective, adult learning within productive organisations ought to endeavour to support the progression of the host organisation’s goals directly. These goals would have to include both the

organisational as well as individual (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 1998). Knowles' theory addresses the unique characteristics of the adult learner, factors and agents acting as motivators are discussed in the literature review.

1.9 LITERATURE PREVIEW

A literature study is regarded as a necessary tool because it provides guidelines for the construction of the theoretical framework and previous research findings related to the problem being investigated (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Mouton (2012) posits that the importance of a scholarly literature review is to determine what has previously been done in the field of study. This enables the researcher to comprehend the study in its entirety and justify the undertaking of the research (ibid). Therefore, the literature study involves consulting relevant primary and secondary sources. Carefully selected sources on professionalism and In-Service Education and Training (INSET) were examined and investigated with the aim of gathering the most reliable, current and relevant data.

Several studies have been conducted in South Africa and internationally on INSET. No studies that are pertinent to the research focus on the professionalism of trainers in the SAPS could be found. This was one of the reasons the researcher developed an interest in this topic. However, Mpahla (2009), recently investigated trainers' perceptions of their professionalism and findings could provide some answers that are related to this study. Mpahla's investigation entailed a case study of three schools in the Butterworth District in the Eastern Cape (ibid). Studies were conducted between 1994 and 1999 and identified trainer commitment and trainer qualifications as key determinants of trainer professionalism. In the opinion of the researcher, based on the literature review findings, this could also apply to training as also argued by Nkabinde (1997) on a similar subject.

In the study conducted by Mpahla (ibid), the researcher identified behaviour, qualifications and commitment as the critical determinants of trainer professionalism. However, the researcher deemed it necessary to explore and investigate the trainers' professionalism in the SAPS to understand their perceptions of trainer professionalism. In the present study, the researcher also investigated how trainers in

the SAPS perceived their professionalism. The resources used in this research included books, journals, policy documents, newspapers, conference reports and the internet. These sources were consulted with focus on the following key concepts: professionalism within the SAPS context, culture of training and learning, INSET and the adult learner. Authors such as Knowles, Holton and Swanson (1998); Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner (2007) were consulted during the literature review stage.

The literature on adult learning, andragogy, characteristics of adult learners, the workplace as an adult learning environment, training and development, as well as SAPS professionalism, were reviewed. This review also focuses on the setting of the learning environment in the workplace. Workplace learning has become a necessity for many corporations and institutions because of the rapid change in the global world. The impact of the world on speed in the workplace challenges adult trainers regarding continuous learning for adult learners to stay abreast in their professions. The researcher considered Knowles' ALT as appropriate to guide the study as it provided the framework within which to identify and describe the characteristics of training programmes. Andragogy plays a significant role in enabling facilitators, employers and other concerned stakeholders to appreciate that adults have ideas to contribute, have different learning styles, prefer an informal atmosphere for training, and learn because they want to or have to learn. Andragogy further enables adult learners to see themselves as self-directed and responsible, to learn best when the practical application is encouraged and need to relate learning to what they already know. A detailed literature review is conducted in Chapters 2 and 3 of this study. The following section provides a highlight of the methodology which is discussed in-depth in Chapter 4 of this report.

1.10 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.10.1 Research design

The qualitative research methodology was used because it was the most appropriate for this study. The research design is the overall plan for obtaining answers to the research question (Polit & Beck, 2012). A case study research design was followed as a means to explore and understand the meaning that individuals and groups ascribe

to the subject under review (Creswell, 2009). It refers to an in-depth exploration, description and analysis of interactions of a particular phenomenon in a bounded system in its real-life situation over a period (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 2009:40). Yin (2006) further explains that case study research is suitable for studying complex social phenomena. Because the phenomenon at hand is a complex social phenomenon, the researcher deemed it suitable to use case study research. A vital strength of the case study design is that it allows the researcher to study the phenomenon holistically in its natural context using multiple sources (Yin, 2009).

1.11 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology refers to the researcher's choices regarding literature, previous studies, and data collection methods used in the planning and conducting the research study. Leedy and Ormrod (2005), state that the methodology of a research project is described as the general approach and what the researcher utilises in carrying out the project. To some extent, this approach dictates the particular tools that the researcher selects (ibid). The researcher, in this qualitative case study, collected data by asking semi-structured questions.

1.11.1 Study population

The SAPS senior managers, middle managers and trainers were, therefore, identified as the study population for this qualitative research. Babbie (2013) defines the population as all the possible participants that can provide information on the subject under investigation. Goddard and Melville (2007) maintain that a population comprises a set of entities in which all the measurements of interest to the practitioner or researcher are represented.

The population of the study consisted of all six district training centres and the provincial office. Hence, this study was undertaken in the South African Police Service in the Northern Cape Province of the Republic of South Africa. Regarding the SAPS, the province is demarcated into six districts. Each district consists of a training centre with 15 to 20 trainers, and each is managed by a training centre manager. Twenty-one participants were involved in this study.

1.11.2 Sampling

Sampling refers to the process of drawing elements from a population to obtain a sample (Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2011). According to Burns and Grove (2007), purposive sampling is non-probability sampling which requires the researcher to make a conscious decision about which individuals and institutions to engage based on the information they can provide. This technique enabled the researcher to identify various demographic locations to include in the sample manipulatively. Creswell et al., (2012), hold that purposive sampling is vital for the success of focus group interviews. With purposive sampling, a particular case is selected because it illustrates a particular feature or process that is of interest in a particular study and the participants are purposefully selected. Purposive sampling was used to identify senior managers of the police service because they were regarded as having the knowledge and skills that could best fit the objectives of this study.

The study's sample consisted of six senior managers, five middle managers and ten trainers in the SAPS. The researcher used one-on-one and focus group interviews while simultaneously conducting observations to obtain data from participants. It is important to note that the one-on-one interview technique may offer the opportunity to ask follow-up questions based on the participants' responses to previous questions (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009). Focus group interviews were conducted with the ten identified trainers in the SAPS as is extensively explained in Chapter 4. A more detailed description of the sample is also provided in the methodology chapter of this study.

1.11.3 Identification of the research sites

Maree and van der Westhuizen (2011), state that the researcher should select research sites that are not only suitable but also feasible. The location of a study is based on criteria such as availability, accessibility, theoretical interest and financial constraints. Maree and van der Westhuizen (ibid), further add that selecting the site is part of demarcating the area of study, which is a critical means of ensuring that the site will provide a variety of information from which significant general deductions can

be made. An empirical investigation was conducted at the training establishments of the Northern Cape Province. The reason for this decision was that the training institutions of the SAPS involved in this study were provincial training institutions that provide in-service and specialised training programmes to police officers in the province.

1.11.4 Instrumentation and data collection techniques

According to Brynard and Hanekom (2013), an interview is a meeting of two minds in a face-to-face conversation where a lack of clarity can be illuminated by the researcher that will secure quality information. In this study, the following research instruments were used to obtain the required information, namely: one-on-one interviews and focus group interviews. For this particular study, interviews were conducted to investigate the stated research questions and to achieve the stated objectives (See Appendix B).

1.11.4.1 One-on-one interviews

In-depth and semi-structured individual interviews were used to collect data from the participants. These types of interviews involved a meeting between the researcher and the participant as stated by Denscombe (2007). One of the advantages of the one-on-one interview is that it is far easier to transcribe a recorded interview when the interview involves just one interviewee. The aim of conducting individual interviews was to determine the participants' perceptions of the professional levels of trainers in the SAPS. The researcher used a set of predetermined questions to engage the participants during face-to-face interviews and probed on some of the responses for clarity as the need arose. "A probe is a follow-up technique that encourages the participant to elaborate further or clarify a point of discussion" (Ruane, 2005:152). Each interview lasted for about 30 to 40 minutes. The recording of the responses was done through short notes and audio recorder, where applicable, to save time after seeking consent from the respective participants. This was after the researcher had explained the purpose of the study to the participants and had assured them of the confidentiality of their responses.

1.11.4.2 Focus group interviews

A focus group can be defined as a carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive and non-threatening environment. Further, it is a valuable mechanism to collect data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher (De Vos et al. 2011). Focus group discussions are exploratory research tools to explore thoughts and feelings and obtain detailed information about the topic (Welman et al., 2012). Focus group discussions allow deep-rooted feelings on the topic to emerge spontaneously (ibid).

As argued by Patton (1987, cited in Thomas & Nelson, 2001:235), focus group interviews may provide quality controls because participants tend to provide checks and balances on one another. By using key-informant or focused interviews, false and extreme responses by individual participants were minimised (See Appendix C). Five middle managers participated in the focus group interviews and were purposefully selected by their willingness, experience, gender and area of specialisation. Borg and Gall (2002), suggest that members should be chosen because they have more knowledge or have different perspectives. In this study, interviews and focus group discussions were necessary for collecting data because background information about the study could be accessed. The interviewing technique is discussed in-depth in Chapter 4 of this study.

1.11.4.3 Data analysis and interpretation

The interviews were transcribed and analysis commenced as soon as the first set of data were gathered and ran parallel with the collection of the data because of each activity, like data collection and interim analysis informs and drives the other activity (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Data were coded and clustered into relevant themes and guided by the interview questions. Suitable quotations were selected as rich data to illustrate and substantiate the themes (LeCompte & Schensul, 2010:223).

1.11.4.4 Credibility

Credibility is the confidence in the truth of data and their interpretations (Polit & Beck, 2006). Prolonged engagement with the study participants was done to understand in-depth factors associated with adherence. Prolonged engagement is also critical to building trust and rapport with participants. Engagement with the data recordings and transcripts was done intensively to demonstrate clear links between the data and the interpretations.

1.11.4.5 Dependability

“Dependability seems more related to reliability” (DeVault, 2015). Dependability is a method qualitative researchers use to show the consistency of findings. Qualitative researchers describe, in detail, the exact methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. This is done so that the study can be auditable, to describe the situation, and for another researcher to follow the study (Malakoff's Blog, 2012). Dependability refers to data stability over time and conditions. There can be no credibility in the absence of dependability. The researcher transcribed the audiotape, and this was cross-checked with the field notes recorded by the researcher. The purpose of this test was to show indications of stability and consistency in the process of inquiry. Care was taken to ensure that the research process was logical, traceable, and documented reflexively by giving a detailed account of the research process.

1.11.4.6 Conformability

Conformability refers to the neutrality of the data, that is, the potential for congruence between two or more independent people about the data's accuracy, relevance or meaning (Polit & Beck, 2006). An audit process was implemented by working forward, as well as back through the research process, to ensure that the data and interpretations of the findings were sound and confirmed findings. The intention of the interpretation process was not to generalise findings to a population but to identify accepted principles and trends related to the research topic.

1.11.4.7 Transferability

According to DeVault (2015:1), “transferability is a generalisation of the study findings to other situations and contexts.” Transferability refers to the extent to which findings from the data can be applied to other settings or groups and is thus similar to the concept of generalisability (Polit & Beck, 2006). It has been stated that participants were experienced police officers who possess experience and knowledge in line with the facilitation methods. To evaluate transferability, the researcher provided a dense description of the research process by giving the more delicate details of all aspects observed. The trustworthiness of this research phase was ensured by applying the following criteria: credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability. The description of the qualitative research process of what was done; how it was done; and why it was done as well as adherence to the identified criteria for qualitative research, ensured the authenticity and trustworthiness of this research.

1.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher explained the objectives of this research to participants for them to make voluntary informed consent to be engaged in this study. The researcher also asked participants to sign consent forms to indicate their willingness to give information on improving the levels of professionalism of trainers within the South African Police Service. Welman and Kruger (2008:181) cite that, “the principles underlying research ethics are universal and concern issues such as honesty and respect for the rights of individuals.”

Behaving ethically increases the chances of maintaining a positive relationship between the researcher and participants for the duration of the study (Burton, Brunrett & Jones, 2008). The study was conducted in accordance with the above principles as well as the SAPS Code of Conduct regarding matters of protocol. Accordingly, the researcher consistently adhered to the code of ethics prescribed by UNISA (UNISA, 2007), as well as the code of conduct stipulated in Articles 70 and 71 of the Police Act (Act 68 of 1995). Also, due deference was paid “to the rights, needs, values and desires of all participants by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa” (Act 108 of 1996) (RSA, 1996). The names and identities of all participants were kept private

and confidential. The participants were informed that they could withdraw from this study whenever they wished to do so.

Finally, the researcher presented letters of approval from the UNISA Ethics Committee (See Appendix A) and an approval letter from the SAPS management (See Appendix C) to the prospective participants. The purpose was to determine whether the participants understood the purpose of the study and whether they were aware of their rights including their willingness to take part in the research. In the case of this study, when the researcher visited the SAPS training centres, he explained the purpose of his visit, namely that he was collecting information for his doctoral studies.

1.13 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

In accordance with Mnyaka (2006) this section serves to indicate what the researcher discussed in each of the chapters.

Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study

This chapter aimed to identify the rationale for the research, the background to professionalism and levels of professionalism demonstrated by trainers within SAPS training. The purpose of this chapter was to highlight the background and context of the study by providing a brief literature background and then introducing the problem. Then by discussing the anticipated contribution of the study and, formalising the aims, objectives and research questions of the study. The researcher's interest and premises are outlined concerning the subject at hand.

Chapter 2: A theoretical perspective on trainer professionalism in the South African Police Service

Chapter 2 is crucial to the study as it provides the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of this study. This chapter pays attention to the definition of key terms, such as professionalism in the SAPS context, trainers in the SAPS" In-Service Education and Training (INSET), adult learner and a "culture of learning and training.

The chapter concludes with a proposed training model that can be utilised to improve trainer professionalism with specific reference to the SAPS.

Chapter 3: In-Service Education and Training (INSET) as a means to improve trainers' professionalism

This study was designed to address the low levels of professionalism among trainers in the SAPS, and it sought to identify whether INSET could assist in improving trainers' professionalism. The study was designed to review the existing literature on INSET and professionalism, and research was undertaken regarding whether there was a need to improve professionalism among trainers and accordingly, propose a training programme that might address shortcomings in trainers' professionalism. The critical literature findings in this chapter provide guidelines and initiatives that could contribute to the improvement of professionalism among trainers in the SAPS.

Chapter 4: Research methodology and research design

This chapter explains the methodology employed to gather data objectively and scientifically. Focus group interviews and one-on-one interviews were discussed in detail. The research design was explained to explicate the conditions under which the data were gathered. This included the sample, data analysis, trustworthiness, ethical procedures and the summary of the chapter.

Chapter 5: The presentation, analysis and interpretation of data

Chapter five describes the main results obtained, discusses the main trends and patterns discerned from the data concerning the research questions, and interprets the main findings and highlights the main results. The aim was to get the actual responses of participants selected for this study. Two methods of data collection were discussed, namely observation and interviews. Data were then presented, analysed and categorised to project their meaning from the participants' point of view. On observing trainers, the researcher's findings were on trainers' behaviour at work. They displayed consistency and fairness in dealing with challenges at their institutions. Interviews were divided into two parts: one-on-one and two focus group interviews

were conducted. One-on-one interviews and focus group interviews concentrated on the views of the senior managers, middle managers and trainers on the professionalism of trainers at SAPS. From the analysis of data and the interpretation of results, the implications of the studied variables for both the main question and the problems of the research were determined.

Chapter Six: The summary, conclusions and recommendations

The aim of this chapter was to present the conclusions drawn from the results of the analysis of the interviews and focus group discussions. Thereafter, make recommendations for further research. The last chapter of the thesis addresses specific and appropriate recommendations and conclusions, based on the theoretical substructure (Chapters 1 to 5), as well as the findings that came to light in the research results as discussed in Chapter 6.

1.14 CONCLUSION

This chapter served to introduce the study to the reader. This chapter commenced with an exposition of the background to the study to pave the way for the statement of the problem and the supporting research questions. In turn, this highlighted the significance of the study. The research approach and methodology applied provided insight into the choice the researcher took regarding the design of the study. This study was qualitative and followed a combination of explorative and descriptive approaches, rather than being explanatory or correlational. This was followed by an explanation of how data were analysed and trustworthiness was maintained. The following chapter is critical to the study as it provides the theoretical and conceptual framework underpinning this study. Chapter two also provides the theoretical foundations upon which this study was based and articulates the theoretical perspectives related to the research problem.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON TRAINER PROFESSIONALISM IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1, an introduction was presented, giving an overview of the topic and highlights of the research predicament under analysis. This chapter is critical to the study as it provides the theoretical and conceptual framework underpinning the study. Importantly, the theoretical foundation upon which the study was based is provided as it articulates the theoretical perspectives relating to the research problem. This chapter gives a broader understanding of the importance of training, development and its impact on the empowerment of SAPS employees and the acquisition of skills for all SAPS personnel to reach acceptable training competence levels. Chapter 2, further subscribes to the premise that if effective facilitation methods are implemented in adult learning centres, the endeavour to motivate adults to participate in learning programmes could be achieved regarding arguments presented in sources used for the review. The chapter concludes by providing arguments by various authors on how trainers need to deal with adult learners who are based in challenging workplaces and to understand the role of adult learning and workplace learning in their teaching of critical skills.

The literature has been structured in a manner that seeks to determine the existing policies about training, the status quo and to find possible solutions from the consulted sources. The review relates to the three sub-questions, which later form the research themes discussed in Chapter 5. The purpose of the literature is also to identify and confirm possible gaps on which this study was based. In Chapter 5, the literature is compared with the research findings from the participants to provide recommendations for practice based on scientifically gathered data.

The main research question of the study was: how could the levels of trainers' professionalism within the SAPS be improved? In attempting to answer the main research question of the study, the following sub-questions were posed to all the research participants:

- What are the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service?
- How would you describe the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Services?
- How could the levels of professionalism by trainers within the South African Police Service be improved?

The experiential part of training in the SAPS relates more to learning in the workplace than to teaching in a classroom setting. Since the SAPS trainees attend a structured learning phase at various training centres, the classroom-teaching phase is regarded as learning in the workplace. The following sections will thus focus briefly on the adult learner as a reminder of the complexity of the adult learning environment, followed by a discussion on learning theories. This chapter is divided into two sections, namely Section 1: exploring adult learning, learning theories, core adult learning principles, and challenges faced by adult learners, situated learning, the value of informal learning in the workplace and critiques of andragogy. Section 2: provides a discussion on professionalism and significant aspects of professionalism for trainers.

2.2 THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A conceptual framework is “a collection of interrelated ideas and concepts based on theories. It is a set of prepositions derived from and supported by data and serves to explain phenomena based on the theories” (Kombo & Tromp, 2006:56). The conceptual framework guiding this study is based on the reviewed literature. It combines information from a number of authors. Most of the concepts used are from Felder and Brent (2005), Knowles (1969, 1980, 1984), Knowles, Swanson and Holton (2005), Merriam and Caffarella (1991). The goal of a conceptual framework is to categorise, describe concepts relevant to the study and map relationships among them. A conceptual framework used in the study serves several functions such as building a foundation, to demonstrate how a study advances knowledge and to conceptualise the study. Rocco and Plakhotnik (2009), state that the conceptual framework assesses the research design and instrumentation and provides a reference point for interpretation of findings.

In addition, building a foundation in a study requires the use of previous work in such a way as to demonstrate linkages, illustrate trends, and provide an overview of a concept, theory, or literature base. This enables one to “show the gap in what is unknown that a study will address” (Rocco & Plakhotnik, 2009:123).

Polit and Beck (2009:143) maintain that it is crucial for the researcher to explain the underlying concepts of the study as this assists in the integration of the research findings. The researcher selected Knowles’ Adult Learning Theory (ALT) as a framework to guide the study. The main concepts in this framework include the learner and learning, core adult learning principles and challenges faced by adult learners and situated learning. The value of informal learning in the workplace, critiques of andragogy and professionalism are included together with the significant aspects of professionalism for trainers. Commitment to change is also included.

2.2.1 SECTION 1: The adult learner and learning

2.2. 2 The adult learner

The study expands on the adult learning and workplace-learning knowledge base since the study was conducted in an adult learning environment. It is safe to say that regarding interpersonal, intrapersonal and environmental characteristics; the adult learner is different compared to school leaving youth attending tertiary institutions on a full- time basis (Kiely, Sandman & Truluck, 2004 in Laher, 2007:383). Adults also bring with them different and more varied experiences than the youth (Knowles, Swanson & Holton, 2005). Silberman and Auerbach (1998) explicate that there are differences between adults and youth as far as their background, learning styles, the motivation for learning, interests, needs, and ultimately their goals are concerned.

Merriam and Caffarella (1991:85) explain the intrinsic motivation of adult learners and posit that these adult learners use learning opportunities to build social relationships in which new associates and friendships are formed. There might also be external expectations, such as having to comply with the authoritarian prescripts of an employer for instance, that adult learners wish to satisfy (Frick, Albertyn & Rutgers, 2010:81). Merriam and Caffarella (1991) explicate that intrinsic motivation encourages adults to

use learning opportunities to build social relationships, creating new associates and forming friendships that stimulate further learning. However, learning is not something that is merely acquired. Learning theories illuminate the complexity of learning.

Although it is not the focus of this study, a brief overview is therefore offered. The andragogical model presumes that although adults will respond to external motivators such as a job promotion, the most potent motivators are internal (Knowles and Associates, 1984). Adult participation in educational activities is more a function of satisfying personal needs and issues than meeting the requirements that are externally imposed (Knowles, 1980). Adults are more receptive towards the learning process in situations that are both physically and psychologically comfortable. What, how and where adults learn is affected by the numerous roles they play as adults (Caffarella, 2002:28). Adult learners in the SAPS fit the definition of Merriam (2001:5) that an adult learner is someone who has an independent self-concept, who can direct his or her learning and accumulate rich sources of life experiences for learning. An adult learner also has learning needs that relate to his or her social roles and who is interested in the immediate application of knowledge (ibid). Such knowledge should be problem-centred to stimulate learning, and the adult should be motivated by internal rather than external factors to learn (Merriam, 2001).

Researchers such as Botha (2012), Brookfield (1985) and Billet (2010), have shown that adult learners rely heavily on external resources when pursuing intellectual development and that adult learners consciously situate their learning in a public perspective. However, adult learners may achieve considerable intellectual development independently from formal teaching and assessment practices (Billet, 2010; Brookfield, 1985; Ellinger, 2004). Adult learners bring more complex and varied backgrounds, life experiences, previous knowledge base and skills to the educational setting (Kasworm, 2003). The most effective curriculum for adult learners is one that builds upon their life experiences and interests (Brookfield, 1986; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). When adult learners link their coursework and previous experiences, they can learn at a more accelerated pace than pre-adults (Dinmore, 1997). However, adult learners are often dismissive of the value of their experience, possibly due to their belief that informal learning is less worthwhile than formal education (Dinmore, 1997).

Walters and Koetsier (2006:99) cite Bourgeois, Duke, Guyot and Merrill (1999), who define mature adults as having had a significant break, with other life and work experience, before entering higher education. The literature is in line with sub-question one stating: what are the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service? However, regarding this study, the most critical aspect is found in the argument by Walters and Koetsier (2006), that adults are less exclusively trainees than younger trainees due to their life roles at home and work and should be taught differently to the youth. Teaching adult learners, therefore, requires different approaches as Merriam and Caffarella (1991), state. Trainers should be careful not to rely on standardised approaches or single learning theories to facilitate learning (ibid).

By drawing from the literature and taking the context of the study into consideration, a case can be made for some arguments to be relevant workplace learning in the SAPS, as the site of work and learning (Chappell, Scheeres & Solomon, 2003). The concepts of working and learning are moving ever closer as we learn to work and work to learn. Workplaces are changing and they bring with them new ways of working (Billett & Choy, 2013; Cairns & Malloch, 2010) and the SAPS is no exception. As the nature of crime changes, it forces the organisation to find alternative ways to combat and prevent new forms of crime. Such changes necessitate new strategies, which require senior managers to adapt their way of work and locate their practices in new work environments such as the virtual crime arena. Police officers ought to negotiate to learn through problem-solving during all hours of the day. This means frequently taking their work home. Working is not merely located at a physical or virtual place alone, but also rests in their minds when they are not at the geographical work location as supported by Malloch and Cairns (2010). The boundaries of work and home, and working at the office while resolving work-related problems in the mind when at home, have thus become blurry.

Individuals exercise more control over their learning because of personal agency and the construction of their professional identities (Hodkinson, Hodkinson, Evans, Kersh, Fuller, Unwin & Senker, 2004). While older employees still show firm reliance on formal education qualifications, their younger counterparts value the learning journey in which they can learn what they want to, and when they want to (Pillay, Lewis, Wilss & Rhodes,

2003:437). Formal teaching, therefore, necessitates exposure to a real work environment in which they can practice their learning (Warhurst, 2006).

Informal learning has also taken a stronger position in the workplace. Employees have come to realise that the situatedness of their learning, which they have gained through activities at work and because of work, is valuable for the performance and production of the organisation. They seek recognition and reward for that at a faster pace than their older colleagues, relying on formal learning (Vaughan, 2008:14). Learning takes place through active engagement on both individual level constructivism including participation through affordances in social settings (Billett, 2002b). While the Communities of Practice (CoP) theory may be relevant to the SAPS Academy where the training intervention starts due to its supporting structures, it might not be the case in the adult learners' work environments (Jawitz, 2009:613). In their workplaces, they are confronted with a stronger police culture that might not be as enabling as believed to be by the course developers (Billett & Choy, 2013:271). However, their learning may still be taking place in an authentic, legitimate practice.

Lieb (2011) postulates that adult learners must retain the information received from classes to benefit from it and it is the trainer's responsibility to make that happen. Lieb (ibid) then explicates that adult learners must be able to use the new information learned in class in new settings. This view supports that of Nduna (2012), that the implication for trainers is that they should be informed about the workplaces and work experience of adult learners. However, being informed and sharing information does not equate to 'education' (Bichelmeyer, 2006). Boud and Griffin (1987:223), February, Koetsier and Walters (2010), explicate that trainers are in fact also adult learners. The need to improve their skills and continue to stay relevant in times of constant change, both in the world and in the workplace. Nduna (2012), argues that lecturers reflect organisational culture and ethos, and the ability to present learning interventions and mentor adult learners in the workplace. There seems to be a consensus in the literature that trainers should understand the workplace and they should, in fact, actively endeavour to gain such an understanding of the workplace. February, Koetsier and Walters (ibid) and Nduna (ibid) add that even the administrative and support personnel and part-time or visiting lecturers should be given personal development opportunities to serve adult

learners more effectively. Adult trainers need to understand their roles as learning facilitators and be able to function in roles applicable to the situation.

2.3 LEARNING THEORIES

While various theories attempt to explain how learning takes place, there is little consensus on the number of theories about learning and how it should be categorised or grouped. According to Hill (2002), learning theories have two values: provision of vocabulary and a conceptual framework for interpreting the examples of learning that are observed and suggesting where to look for solutions to practical problems. It appears from the literature that theories are broadly clustered by how they provide insight into the adult learning process.

Green (2002), explicates that these different approaches or perspectives are categorised into the behaviouristic approach (Watson, Hull, and Skinner), cognitive theories (Lewin, Piaget), humanism (Knowles), social learning (Bandura) and constructivism (Vygotsky, Piaget and Dewey). Elias and Merriam (1995) refer to previous standpoints towards adult education by citing the five philosophical traditions as described by these underpinning adult education theories when referring to liberal, progressive, behaviouristic, humanistic and radical traditions. Merriam and Caffarella (1999), agree that there is no single Adult Learning Theory. They also argue that those in existence can be classified into three broad categories, being those based on adult characteristics, on adults' life situations, and those based on changes in adults' consciousness (ibid).

For Marshall and Case (2010), learning theories can be separated into two broad strands comprising the individual perspective, which is built on the works of Piaget, and socio-cultural perspectives that are built on the work of Vygotsky. It has also been argued that learning theories such as behavioural theory, social cognitive theory, constructivist and social learning theories fall within the territory of psychological theories (Wenger, 1998). However, a definite move from psychological theories of learning that focus on activity, socialisation or the organisation, has surfaced. Cognitive learning theories focus on internal cognitive structures and view learning as transformations of such cognitive structures (ibid).

Other scholars such as Hager (2004) in Tynjälä (2008:131) argue that the main theories about learning, with its foundations in school contexts, cannot be transferred to workplace learning (Tynjälä, 2008:131). Hager (ibid), advocates for the development of workplace learning research from its starting points. Hager (ibid), differentiates between a standard paradigm and an emerging paradigm of learning. The standard paradigm is based on three assumptions, namely a focus on the cognitive mind processes of forming and improving mental structures, interiority, separating the mental life from the outside world, the focus on learning by thinking rather than learning through action, transparency measurable outcomes and inferiority of non-transparent learning (Tynjälä, 2008:131). The change in learning is, therefore, not only in the individual's mind but also in the individual's environment. Learning has thus become more contextual because of the individual's creation of new sets of relations in the environment and the workplace (ibid). Learning in the workplace occurs on an individual level as well as in groups, communities, organisations, inter-organisational networks and regions.

The study by Von Glasersfield (1989), argues that the responsibility of learning should reside increasingly with the learner. On that note, social constructivism thus emphasises the importance of the learners being actively involved in the learning process. This is unlike previous educational viewpoints where the responsibility rested with the trainer to teach and where the learner played a passive and receptive role. Von Glasersfield emphasises that the adult learners construct their understanding and that they do not merely mirror and reflect what they read (ibid).

2.3.1 Social Cognitive Theory

The social cognitive theory has been applied in a wide variety of areas including police and training. It provides a well-supported conceptual framework for understanding the factors influencing human behaviour and the process through which learning occurs (Mc Alister, Perry & Parcel, 2008). The social cognitive theory is an approach to understanding human cognition, motivation and emotion, which assumes that people are active agents in shaping their environments (Bandura 1986, Maddux, 1995; Maddux & Gosselin, 2003). Bandura, Maddux, Maddux and Gosselin (ibid), assume that people can symbolise their experiences into internal models of action that allow them to engage

in forethought to purposefully direct their behaviour. Further, the social cognitive theory assumes that people are capable of self-reflecting about their behaviour and experiences. The social cognitive theory has been applied in different environments in the SAPS including the adult education environment. It provides a well-supported conceptual framework for understanding the factors influencing human behaviour and the process through which learning occurs. The social cognitive theory evolved from the social learning theory, which was renamed to reflect the incorporation of concepts from cognitive psychology (Bandura, 1986).

A social cognitive approach was selected as the conceptual framework for this study. This is because of its ability to generate and sustain motivated behaviour; characterised by aspects such as an increased interest in the task, a more considerable effort to complete the task, improved task performance and ultimately, higher job satisfaction. These aspects of motivation appear to be exactly what the training managers in the SAPS need to improve the trainers' performance and behaviour. Presently, the SAPS trainers are not accountable for their lack of commitment, irresponsible behaviour or lack of productivity and competence. Section 50 of the SAPS Act, 1995 (Act 68 of 1995), provides for the establishment of the SAPS Code of Conduct (1997). The code gives effect to the relevant constitutional provisions relating to the SAPS and provides guidelines to individual police officers as to what is expected of them from an ethical point of view, both in their conduct and in their relationship with others. This implies that compliance with the code is critical for the enhancement of the effective implementation of an ethical framework in the SAPS. However, it should be noted that the abundance of strict legislation is not the only answer to ethical transgressions. The elements of motivation, commitment and dedication from individual police officers remain critical in the adherence to the ethical framework. Furthermore, the development of adverse work ethics and ethos is instigated by the ineffective implementation of the existing laws, rules and regulations, creating loopholes for unethical practices.

The issue of moral development and regeneration primarily depends on good ethics' education that can be learned in both formal and informal environments. However, Fox et al., (1998), argue that learning is a human process by which skills, knowledge, habit and attitude are acquired and utilised in such a way that behaviour is modified. In the context of this thesis, it is argued that an educated police officer who has acquired

adequate ethics knowledge in policing is somewhat likely to present ethical and professional behaviour than the ones with little or no ethics knowledge.

Social constructivism advocates the social nature of knowledge. It lies somewhere between the transmission of knowledge and the construction of personal and coherent reality as seen by radical constructivists (Doolittle, 1999 in Schwartz & Human, 2012). In this case, the individual constructs knowledge not only through interaction within societies on a social level but also through language usage. This knowledge is thus based on shared experience due to the social interaction with other individuals and is more specific to a particular socio-cultural context where the place and time influences meaning. Social constructivists argue that such meaning plays a more critical role than structures. The truth is also found among individuals as a collective due to their shared experiences gained through interaction in socio-cultural activities (Doolittle, 1999). All four epistemological tenets of von Glaserfeld mentioned above are emphasised by social constructivism (Schwartz & Human, 2012).

Both behaviourism and cognitivism have a place within police training. Some law enforcement courses attempt to control the way in which adult learners measure and process incoming information by a change in their behaviour. Examples of such classes would include firearm training, defence tactics, and emergency vehicle operations. Subjects such as criminal law, search and seizure, report writing, geography, patrol methods, sexual harassment, cultural diversity, community awareness, and police-community relations are often structured around the cognitive view of learning (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). Subject matter experts who seek to impart some of their knowledge and wisdom to police recruits teach classes in these subjects. With the implementation of non-traditional policing models such as problem-oriented and community oriented policing, came the realisation that officer training programmes needed to be changed. A problem became evident with academies focused entirely on behavioural and cognitive learning approaches. Instead of prominent, physically active individuals able to enforce the law as dictated by superiors, what was needed were creative officers with secure communication, decision-making, problem-solving and critical thinking skills (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001; Dwyer & Laufersweiler-Dwyer, 2004; Marenin, 2004). Both cognitive and behavioural teaching philosophies utilise instructor-centred classrooms where the trainer imparts knowledge on trainees' learning passively. This type of

environment is not effective in building non-mechanical competencies such as problem-solving, decision-making, critical thinking, or collaboration skills. Unfortunately, these are the skills that are increasingly important for police officers working in today's society (Birzer, 2003; Birzer & Tannehill, 2001; Marenin, 2004).

Behavioural and cognitive teaching styles also have the drawback of treating all trainees equally (Birzer, 2004). Research shows that adult learners have different types of intelligence, learning styles and learning strategies. They also enter a classroom with different motivations for learning and different experiences (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001; Cleveland, 2006; Fellenz & Conti, 1989; Knowles, 1980).

2.3.2 Behaviourist Theory

According to Elias and Merriam (2005:83), "no other system of psychology has had as much impact on general and adult education, or had its principles be the cause of as much debate as behaviourism". The behaviourism theory founded in the 1920s by Watson focuses on overt, observable behaviour of an organism. Behaviourism in behavioural terms focuses on a change in behaviour. Within law enforcement, the traditional training environment is reflective of techniques used in behaviourism (Birzer & Tannehill, 2001).

These behaviourist techniques include drill and repetition. Class schedules, subjects taught, instructional techniques, dress code, and expected behaviours are all controlled by the training instructors and are viewed as methods of conditioning the adult learners. The theory of behaviourism has been a foundational platform of law enforcement training. However, many scholars and researchers have challenged its benefit to law enforcement training. Birzer and Tannehill (2001), state that the behaviourist approach can be very advantageous because it allows the training instructor to design clear-cut objectives. It promotes behavioural practices and not just theory but works best for helping adult learners to acquire behavioural skills. Further, it is highly specific and its observable reference could be made to points scored at a shooting or defensive driving range as reflecting on the views by these authors (ibid).

Furthermore, Elias and Merriam (2005), find that behaviourism is good as it relates to accountability. Much emphasis is placed on arranging contingencies of learning and then measuring the change in behaviour. Elias and Merriam (ibid) also support the use of behaviourism theory as a method for technical or practical training in law enforcement such as firearm usage, driving and so forth. Additionally, some postmodern adult trainers, interestingly enough, have come to the defence of the behaviourist mode at least in its focus on empowering trainers and adult learners through competence-based education (ibid).

Opponents of this view argue that behavioural objectives are more appropriate for some subjects and types of learning than others. For example, in law enforcement training, firearm training is a technical course. However, they do not ensure what is learned in one situation is transferred to another situation. Collins (1991), argues that behaviourism has been dismissed as cold, inhumane, devoid of feeling, and ignorant of the subjective, creative and intuitive dimension of human behaviour (Elias & Merriam, 2005). Elias and Merriam (ibid) further explain that whether or not one supports the concept of behavioural objectives, consistent with behaviourism theory, they are still used by trainers in SAPS, curriculum designers, administrators, and adult trainers in a variety of settings and act as a guide for the learning environment. Although the behaviourism theory is often the historical and preferred method in law enforcement, some scholars promote the inclusion of the andragogical approach in law enforcement training such as Birzer (2003), Birzer and Tannehill (2001) and Chappell (2008).

Behaviourism as a learning theory rests on three pillars (Green, 2002:11). It proposes that learning has taken place when there is an observable change in behaviour. The theory is, therefore, not focused on the internal thought process of adult learners, but rather whether learning has manifested in a different behaviour as it happens within the SAPS training sessions. The elements present in the environment of the individual, and not the elements internal to the individual, determine what the adult learner internalises. The trainer will, in this approach, set up or arrange the environment to elicit the desired response. The trainer will set specific objectives for behavioural changes, attainment of competencies and skills. Finally, the theory rests on the assumption that learning becomes more likely when events happen shortly after one another and are more likely

to happen when the event repeats itself (Green, 2002:11). Merriam and Caffarella (1999:264) explicate that the focus of this orientation to learning is to influence the behaviour of the learner in the desired direction. The trainer will, in this approach, set up or arrange the environment to elicit the desired response.

Since the goal of the behaviourist learning environment is to bring about change in adult learner behaviour, the trainer must act as a controller who manipulates the trainees towards the production of the desired behaviours. The trainer manipulates external stimuli and provides appropriate consequences of producing these responses (Skinner, Carl, Rogers & Swaim, 1972). For the trainer to be successful in bringing about specific behavioural change, they must have a clear understanding of what behaviour is desired. Steinberg (1986:169-187) argues “if we cannot specify what we would take to be appropriate evidence, then how can we justify the claim to be teaching them anything?” The creation of behavioural objectives helps the trainer to develop criteria for appropriate evidence. The researcher, therefore, argues alongside Steinberg (1986) that by creating behavioural objectives, the trainer can specify precisely what trainees need to be able to do, then create a learning environment that promotes trainees attaining the behaviour.

Furthermore, it is suggested that the specification of such objectives helps both the learner and instructor to have a clear understanding of what qualifies as success as alluded to by Svinicki (1999). Not only do behavioural objectives allow the trainer and the trainees to know precisely what success is. Steinberg (1986) argues that they may also be used to hold trainers and trainees accountable for what they do in the classroom. Some would suggest “a student has learned something if there is a change in behaviour and if his or her response occurs again under similar circumstances” (Elias & Merriam, 1995:88). Behaviourists argue that no matter what the trainer has done in the classroom, appreciating what the trainees have gained from that process can only be understood through the demonstration of behavioural objectives according to Steinberg (1986). Humanists, on the other hand, believe that the behaviour is only a partial demonstration of the learning and that the remaining understanding lies within the consciousness of the individual. Their foundational perspectives and educational implications are explored in the following section.

Therefore, it can be said that in the SAPS, this theory is used and it is beneficial in affording the adult learners to participate in discussions and placing the adult learners with different perspectives against a subject and survey them. Creating a group discussion and the selection of one person as a coordinator in theory sessions can help to shape and strengthen the cooperation. The learner is thus conditioned to react in the correct way of learning stimuli from the environment (Gagné, 1985). Behaviourism promotes learning as an association between stimuli and response, with the learning environment organised in a manner to ensure that specific behaviours occur (Svinicki, 1999). Such a view of learning includes the implementation of controls to modify behaviour in a socially acceptable manner (Elias & Merriam, 1995; Milhollan & Forisha, 1972). Furthermore, the desired behaviour must be defined, and, if necessary, have sequential steps specified (Swaim, 1972). Finally, behaviourists focus on each step to ensure that the desired behaviour is produced, allowing each learner to work towards producing the next desired behaviour at his or her rate (Swaim, 1972). As summarised by Birzer (2003:91), “behaviourist theories equate humans to machines in that, as with machines, if you introduce an input stimulus into a human being and control how that input is processed you will get a predetermined response”.

2.3.3 Social Learning Theory

The Social Learning Theory (SLT) was born in the 1930s at Yale University when Clark Hull taught a seminar on relating learning theory to psychoanalysis (Wilbon, 2001). From then on, some theoretical changes were made, and the guiding belief was that personality is a learned function. In 1977, Bandura (1977), advocated that people learn through observing the behaviour, attitudes and outcomes of others and the outcomes of that behaviour. This occurs when a person learns as a function of observation and this is called observational learning, also known as vicarious learning or modelling (Bandura, 1977). During this process, it is expected that each individual mentee or mentor should also learn as an individual. The Social Learning Theory (SLT) of Bandura (ibid), emphasises the importance of observing and modelling the behaviour, attitudes and emotional reactions of others. Bandura states that learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous if people had to rely solely on the effects of their actions to inform them what to do (<http://fr.webmail.co.za>). Furthermore, the SLT

explains human behaviour regarding the continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural and environmental influences. Bandura (ibid) also states that individuals observe a particular action and repeat this action, so that the frequency of the action increases the individual's capacity to perform the action or process it cognitively. The social constructivist view builds on the belief that individuals produce knowledge socially and culturally and that individuals' activities construct their understanding of real learning as a social process (Kim, 2001).

The theory posits that human behaviour is the collaboration of three different elements: personal factors, the environment and behaviour (Bandura, 1977b; 1986). These three elements are always influencing each other, which Bandura termed reciprocal determinism. Bandura (1986:25-31), recognises that humans are agents that are actively involved in their development and have agency in their actions. He notes that what people think, believe and feel affects how they behave.

SLT includes several general principles. For instance, trainees can learn by observing the behaviour of other trainees; learning can occur without a change in behaviour, and the consequences of behaviour play a role in learning (Bandura, 2001). Cognitive processes are also critical in the Social Cognitive Learning Theory. The cognitive processes of social learning include learning without imitation, cognitive processing or thinking while learning, outcome expectations and an awareness of the response-reinforcement or response-punishment contingencies (Bandura, 1977). An individual has to recognise why the behaviour is being punished before the behaviour is likely to decrease. Bandura (ibid) believes that people are capable of imagining themselves in similar situations, and of incurring similar outcomes. Once the behaviour is learned, it may be reinforced or punished by the consequences it generates. Bandura (ibid), focuses on several fundamental concepts of the operant conditioning theory: reinforcement, punishment and motivation.

SLT explains human behaviour regarding the continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural, and environmental influences. In this case, the individual constructs knowledge not only through interaction within societies on a social level but also through language usage. This knowledge is thus based on shared experiences due to social interaction with other individuals and is more specific to a particular socio-

cultural context where place and time influence meaning. Social constructivists argue that such meaning plays a more critical role than structures. The truth is also found among individuals as a collective due to their shared experiences gained through interaction in socio-cultural activities (Doolittle, 1999).

The researcher argues that from a learning perspective, trainers in the SAPS need to have the ability to assess both the strengths and weaknesses of their leadership skills, reflect on these, and then make adjustments as needed, which is happening in the organisation currently. This assists them in the process, in demonstrating the self-direction that is characteristic of adult learners. The learning process occurs when adult learners learn by constructing their understanding through interpreting present experiences and integrating them with their existing understanding of the world.

From the above discussion on SLT, the researcher argues that social learning seeks to explain how patterns of behaviour are acquired and how their expression is continuously regulated by the interplay between self-generated and external sources of influence as explained by Bandura's Social Learning Theory. Bandura's Social Learning Theory posits that people learn through observing others' behaviour, attitudes, and outcomes of those behaviours. "Most human behaviour is learned observationally through modelling: from observing others, one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed, and on later occasions, this coded information serves as a guide for action" (Bandura, 1977:247).

2.3.4 Constructivist theory

According to D'Angelo, Touchman and Clark (2012:1-20), the Constructivist Theory focuses on how adult learners construct their understanding through their experiences and their reflection on those experiences. In his article on constructivism, Ozer (2004), agrees that humans are better able to understand and internalise information that was constructed by themselves. He further elaborates that learning is a social advancement that involves language, real-world situations and interaction and collaboration among adult learners (ibid).

In cognitive constructivism, the emphasis is on the individual constructing knowledge through the cognitive process of analysing and interpreting experiences. Direct instruction is perceived as stifling the discovery process of learning. The purpose of any social interaction is merely to confirm or test one's understanding. The Vygotskian (1896-1934), perspective emphasises the social interactions with the trainer, and that other adult learners are a significant part of the learning process. Knowledge is not solely constructed within the mind of the individual; instead, interactions within a social context involve adult learners in sharing, constructing, and reconstructing their ideas and beliefs (Balakrishnan, 2001; Jadallah, 2000). The emphasis is still learner-centred and experiential. The trainer is more involved in planning and guiding social interactions that allow adult learners to build and test knowledge within a social context (Jadallah, 2000). Ultimately, these views of constructivism need to be addressed in the field of education.

Constructivism is an epistemological view of learning rather than teaching. Constructivists believe that specific activities and enrichment in the environment can enhance the meaning-making process, such as active learning using kinaesthetic, visual and auditory modalities (Brooks & Brooks, 1993, cited in Osberg, 1997). Constructivism is grounded in adult learners' active participation in problem-solving and critical thinking. It inquires about the importance of taking responsibility in the decision-making process. Knowledge construction is based on building upon previous knowledge experiences. Thus, new knowledge is integrated with the previous intellectual constructs. Integration of such experiences is facilitated through social and collaborative natures of learning such as scaffolding (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Shunk, 1995). The emphasis is on the social and collaborative nature of learning. Collaboration entails sharing responses, ideas about given complex problems that need higher order skills. In such sophisticated learning environments, dialogue facilitates the learning process in constructing knowledge-based on existing knowledge. Also, this applies to dialogue, mental manipulation, visualisation, and the process of developing, testing, and discarding hypotheses (Shunk, 1995).

From the above discussion on theories, the researcher argues that the main proposition of constructivism to be explored in-depth in this study is that learning means construction, creating, inventing and developing own knowledge. Shepard (2000:5-6)

describes the process of creating understanding as adult learners 'constructions of their cognitive maps of the interconnections among concepts and facts'. Learning in constructivist terms is the process and results of questioning, interpreting and analysing information. Furthermore, it is being able to use the information to develop and alter the meaning and understanding of concepts and ideas (Marlowe & Page, 2005:7-9).

2.3.5 Section summary

All four theories are essential to understanding the process of knowledge acquisition. When deciding which strategies to use, it is important to consider: the level of knowledge of the learning process, the processing demands, and the desired outcome generation of new ideas or a single answer. Learning theories are conceptual frameworks that describe how students absorb, process, and retain knowledge during learning. Cognitive, emotional, and environmental influences, as well as prior experience, all play a part in how understanding, or a worldview, is acquired or changed and how knowledge and skills are retained. Although there are many different approaches to learning, there are four basic types of learning theories: behaviourist, cognitive constructivist, social cognitive and social constructivist. This section provided a brief introduction to each type of learning theory. The theories were treated in four parts: a short historical introduction, a discussion of the view of knowledge presupposed by the theory, an account of how the theory necessitates learning and student motivation and finally, an overview of some of the instructional methods promoted by the theory.

2.4 LEARNING THEORIES APPLICABLE TO ADULT LEARNING

Dison (2007) expresses her experience in analysing learning theories. She explicates that learning theories seem to entail various approaches, are interpreted differently and developed in unique ways. Dison (ibid), explains that she views the various learning theories as a continuum and subsequently focus on social constructivist and socially situated or socio-cultural approaches to learning and knowledge. However, Dison (ibid), also reverts to other learning theories on the construction of knowledge such as experiential learning to investigate the research capacity development of lecturers in university research centres. It appears that other researchers find it challenging to rely on a single theory when they study the concept of learning. Such varied approaches to

learning theories have resulted in a superfluity of new theories about learning and development.

Laher (2007), for instance, found three learning theories applicable to adult learning when teaching psychology to undergraduate students. These were theories of andragogy, transformative learning and situated cognition. However, Conlan, Grabowski and Smith Conlan (2003), advocate four learning theories that are related to adult learning. This literature review presents an overview of four critical adult learning theories namely: self-directed learning, experiential learning, transformational learning and situational learning.

2.4.1 Self-Directed Learning

Merriam and Caffarella (1999), describe self-directed learning as a process of learning in which people take responsibility for planning, carrying out, and evaluating their own learning experiences. According to Lowry (1989), self-directed learning is another central concept in adult education and suggests that the locus of control in learning lies with the adult learner who may initiate learning with or without assistance from others. Yi (2005), suggests three methods to foster learning in adult organisations. These are problem-based learning, which seeks to increase problem-solving and critical thinking skills, co-operative learning, which builds communication and interpersonal skills and situated learning, which targets specific technical skills that can be directly related to the field of work. These methods support the assumptions about how adults learn precisely; they are more self-directed and have a need for the direct application to their work, and can contribute to collaborative learning through their experience.

The study mentioned above by Yi (2005), is congruent with Garrison (1997), who suggests that three dimensions indicate adult learners' taking control of and shaping the contextual conditions. Yi further explores that self-monitoring describes adult learners' ability to monitor their cognitive and metacognitive processes, to use a repertoire of learning strategies and to think about their thinking processes (ibid). Merriam and Caffarella (1999), conclude that the majority of self-directed models reflect only the first goal. They further reflect that self-directed learning tends to promote individual freedom based on an established value system. However, it fails to recognise that learning can

be viewed as a social and political process where adult learners change their emancipator knowledge. Knowles (1975), in his study, puts forward three immediate reasons for self-directed learning. He argues that there is convincing evidence that people who take the initiative in teaching proactive adult learners learn more things and learn better than people who sit at the feet of trainers passively waiting to be taught (ibid). The findings revealed that the former type of learner enters into learning more purposefully and with higher motivation. They also tend to retain and make use of what they learn better and longer than the reactive adult learners.

As Merriam and Caffarella (1991) comment, this means the conceptualisation of the way we learn on our own is very similar to much of the literature on planning and carrying out instruction for adults in formal institutional settings. Spear and Mocker (1984, 1988), quoted in Merriam and Caffarella (1991), found, however, that self-directed adult learners, rather than preplanning their learning projects, tend to select a course from limited alternatives which happen to occur in their environment and which tend to structure their learning projects. Brookfield (1995), comments that studies were conducted mostly with middle-class participants; that issues concerning the quality of self-directed learning projects were ignored and that they were treated as disconnected from more extensive social and potential forces.

Self-directed learning typically occurs incidentally and informally when adults can draw on their life experiences to learn lessons from it (Marsick & Watkins, 2001:41). The motivation for learning plays a significant role in self-directed learning and adults. Therefore, it tends to set their own learning goals and determine the process by which they will learn. In the adult learning context, facilitators have to enable this self-directedness by providing the resources for it. The theory finds its strength in the fact that adult learners utilise inductive processes of reflection and action to learn in their daily routines (Conlan et al., 2003:9). However, although self-directed learning is unstructured and independent, it is more efficient when combined with other learning methods to grasp the learning content fully.

2.4.2 Experiential Learning

Kolb (1984) developed the Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) from the writings of Dewey, Piaget, Jung, Lewin, and others, as well as 17 years of his research. He described two dialectical dimensions of learning that take place in the brain; perceiving and processing. Perceiving occurs when a person has a concrete experience. Processing then transforms those perceptions into knowledge in one of two ways, either through reflection or through action.

Experiential learning is the process of learning through experience and is more specifically defined as learning through reflection on doing (Felicia & Patrick, 2011:1003). It posits the learner as a doer and not just a thinker or talker. The learner gets directly and actively involved with the material being studied (Conlan et al., 2003). The learner, therefore has to set goals, think about and plan the task, experiment, make decisions and take appropriate action before observing the end product. Thereafter, the learner then reflects on the process and product and reviews the entire experience. Learning takes place as a result of the adult learners' reflection on their own experience rather than by being lectured (ibid). Experiential learning is the result of generating one's understanding of what happened by drawing from reflective reasoning and uncovering the real meaning of the event, happening or action that he or she was involved in. It builds on the experience of adult learners' real lives. It allows for the transfer of knowledge and skills, primarily when the need for learning is internally situated. Experiential learning draws on the cognitive, emotional and physical aspects of the adult learner, making it a beneficial and holistic adult learning approach within the SAPS.

Learning from experience is therefore increased. Kolb (1984) contends that people choose to reflect deliberately on their experience, connect it to prior knowledge, and plan their future actions. Kolb (ibid) identified a four-stage learning cycle that included both experience and reflection. Effective instructional design, he said, would take trainees through a cycle that addresses all four stages. In the first stage of concrete experience, adult learners begin the learning process by experiencing some activity or event that has the potential to add to or change the knowledge or skills of the learner. This experience could be as simple as a lecture or as real as a traumatic accident.

The second stage of the experiential learning cycle is reflective observation. To make the experience relevant and meaningful to the learner, the learner must review the experience and understand its value. This review also allows the learner to extract the salient features that are cognitive and emotional, which reinforces and clarifies concepts and relationships. In the third stage, abstract conceptualisation, the learner is encouraged to connect the new experience to past knowledge and to generalise the salient features of the experience into enduring concepts or rules. Finally, the fourth stage of the cycle is active experimentation, in which the learner plans to translate this new knowledge into action. The subsequent action becomes the next experience in the experiential learning cycle, thus testing the veracity of the concepts or rules developed during abstract conceptualisation (ibid).

2.4.3 Workplace learning

Matthews (1999), describes workplace learning as a process of reasoned learning towards desirable outcomes for the individual and the organisation fostering the sustained development of both the individual and organisation within the present and future context of organisational goals and individual career development. This definition is similar to that of Jacob and Parker (2009:134), who regard workplace learning as processes and outcomes of experiential learning that individual employees and a group of employees undertake. The purpose is to acquire the competence necessary to meet current and future work requirements (ibid).

Workplace learning, as a social construct, is broadly perceived. Brown and Lauder (2006) and Doornbos et al., (2004), emphasise the demand for better skills levels in the workplace. Thus supporting Mathews' (1999), observation that there is a renewed focus on workplace learning. To this end, Vaughan (2008), asserts that the world of work is becoming more complex and uncertain, which makes it hard to determine the future skills' needs. Workplace learning has subsequently emerged as the tool through which organisations can gain a competitive advantage.

Jacobs and Park (2009), confirm that workplace learning has received much attention in recent years, but the focus is mainly on two major components namely formal and informal learning. Billett (2002a), approaches workplace learning by differentiating

between formal and informal learning, while Vaughan (2008:5), argues that workplace learning can be approached from two different ways. One can study the articulation between education and work to acknowledge all forms of learning; an approach that tends to be individualistic and draws on cognitive theories of learning. There can be a focus on the workplace as a learning environment where learning is a process that is embedded in production and organisational structures and draws from situated learning theories and Cop's.

In this study, the researcher attempted to combine the two directions suggested by Vaughn (2008). However, Billett and Choy (2013), caution the researcher that there are more emerging perspectives to take cognisance of. Authors such as Hager (2004 in Tynjälä, 2008:131), argue that the current understanding of learning in the workplace is based on the fields of cognitive science, learning and development. Similarly, learning in the work environment is multimodal and complicated when the social-cultural nature and boundaries which influence learning are considered (Billett & Choy, 2013:264). Jacobs and Park (2009:134), explain for instance that workplace learning has three interacting variables that centre on the location of the learning, the extent of planning that went into developing and delivering the learning experience and the role of the trainer in the learning process. Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgardner (2007:27) found, in their research, that most adults today mention that their learning takes place through education and training programmes sponsored by the workplace. This mostly refers to formal training programmes. However, much informal learning takes place on a daily basis through experiences and observations.

2.4.4 Section summary

Various methods have been utilised in an attempt to provide an empirical description and explanation of what is involved in self-directed learning. Self-directed learning is a dynamic interplay of interests, motivation, strategies, control and assessment. At the same time, as the results of the studies reported in this chapter show, it is apparently also related to environmental circumstances, as they are experienced. Experiential learning is a method of educating through the first-hand experience. Skills, knowledge, and experience are acquired outside of the traditional academic classroom setting and may include internships, studies abroad, field trips, field research, and service-learning

projects. Workplace learning is always organised and structured and has learning objectives from the learner's standpoint; it is always intentional and the explicit objective is to gain knowledge, skills and competencies. The acquisition of knowledge or skills by formal or informal means that occurs in the workplace rather than knowledge or skills acquisition outside the workplace includes both formal on-the-job training and informal workplace learning.

2.5 CRITIQUES OF ANDRAGOGY

The critics of andragogy include Newman (in Gou & Jamal, 2011:18-30) who suggests that andragogy is not suited to the instruction of individual adult learners and is preoccupied with policies all of which view the individual learner as separate from society. Furthermore, Newman's theory (Newman, 2010) submits that andragogy will lead to adult learners accepting situations, even unfavourable ones, in which they find themselves. This critique suggests that these restrained trainees will not play a part in, or promulgate, social change because as a manner of teaching, andragogy leads to people conforming to the status quo.

Newman's (2010:8), hypothesis is that andragogy was intended for a middle-class, culturally homogenous class and a citizen of the United States of America. By this, he implies that for those who do not have the hardships of diversity and are comfortable in their environment, andragogy may be a useful learning tool. However, to stretch to more than educating the individual adult learner, another model needs to be proposed. Inevitably, a debate about what ensued on the validity of andragogy in the 1980s (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007). Pratt (1993:12) concludes that "while andragogy may have contributed to our understanding of adults as adult learners, it has done little to expand or clarify our understanding of the process of learning, nor has it achieved the status of a theory of adult learning". Smith (2002), points out that Knowles' concept of andragogy is a beginning attempt to try to build a theory of adult learning, and that it is anchored in the characteristics of relationships from humanistic clinical psychology. However, Knowles has also built on the behaviourist theory by encouraging the learner to identify needs, set objectives, and enter into learning contracts. Knowles' andragogy draws from two opposing traditions of behaviourism and humanism.

Andragogy emphasises the role of the adult learners who are responsible for creating a comfortable physical climate as well as a psychological environment of mutual trust and respect, collaboration, support, openness, authenticity and pleasure (Knowles, 1984). Merriam (2001), finds that Knowles agrees with his critics about the limitations of andragogy as a theory of adult learning, but concurs with Knowles that the principles remain valuable perspectives on the adult learner. Everyone is different and is shaped by his or her history. Many variables influence how individuals develop as adults. In practice, the emphasis on adult learning and the difference of it compared to that of pedagogy primarily falls on the experiences of adult learners. Furthermore, Merriam (ibid), argues that many adults are dependent on their trainers, similarly to children being independent or self-reliant learners, contrary to Knowles' second assumption.

Brookfield's (1986), criticism of andragogy refers to the characteristics of adult education. He states that while self-directedness is a desirable condition of human existence, it is seldom found in abundance (ibid). In Brookfield's opinion, this emphasises the importance of focusing on enhancing adult learners' self-directedness in the educational process. He discusses the concept of self-directedness in his book 'Understanding and Facilitating Adult Learning' (1986), and places it in a much broader perspective than does Knowles. Brookfield (1986), states that self-directed learning in adulthood, therefore, is not merely learning how to apply techniques of resource location or instrumental design. It is, preferably, a matter of learning how to change our perspectives, shift our paradigms, and replace one way of interpreting the world with another.

Thus the role of the facilitator not only includes the diagnosing, planning, motivating, methodological, resource and evaluative functions but the responsibility for challenging the learner's way of thinking, behaving and living, and providing alternative possibilities. Brookfield (1986), indicates that most research on self-directed learning has been conducted on advantaged, White middle-class Americans. He states that although these studies provide valuable information about the learning characteristics of this population, it is dangerous to generalise the findings and apply them to all adults. He emphasises that very little research has been conducted on the learning characteristics of working-class adults in America, and almost absent is any research on Blacks, Puerto Ricans,

Hispanics, Asian Americans or Native Americans. This raises the question whether these American studies are at all applicable to the South African educational situation, which is very diverse in social, cultural, financial and racial content. If not, this could imply the need for studies specific to the current South African adult learners' characteristics.

According to Brookfield (1986), some problems can occur when self-directed learning is incorporated into the teaching model, especially in the formal educational context. Firstly, trainers often experience resistance from trainees to the idea of taking control. Some adults find it intimidating when confronted with designing their learning plans, while others perceive the exercise as laziness by the educator and a lack of leadership from the institution's side. Secondly, self-directed learning experiences can be inhibited by institutional policies on curriculum, grading and evaluative criteria. Thirdly, not all of the adults in the classroom or course may be equally ready for self-directed learning. Brookfield, therefore, is of the opinion that it is dangerous to presume that self-directed learning is the best approach for all adult learners under all circumstances (ibid). The only assumption about andragogy that Brookfield (1986) wholeheartedly agrees with is that adults possess a vast range of life experiences that positively aid the learning process and are an essential resource for curriculum development and learning experiences.

Brookfield (1986:99), states that andragogy should be carefully scrutinised for its wide-ranging applicability that adults' learning experiences ought to be structured around life application sequences and should therefore necessarily be competence based. The two assumptions neglect other critical areas of adult learning such as the reflective domain of learning and learning for the sake of pure enjoyment, instinctive fascination and fulfilment. Brookfield (ibid), agrees with Knowles that andragogy is a valuable set of assumptions about adult learning from which some appropriate teaching methods can be developed. Pedagogy and andragogy are both appropriate, at different times and for different purposes, with children, adolescents, young adults, the middle-aged, and the elderly" (Brookfield, 1986). Brookfield (ibid) concludes that, moreover, learning is a far too complicated activity for anyone to say with any real confidence that a particular approach is always likely to produce the most effective results.

2.5.1 Section summary

Critics of learning theories who seek to displace traditional educational practices claim that there is no need for such theories; that the attempt to comprehend the process of learning through the construction of theories creates problems and inhibits personal freedom. Adult learning and andragogy have been subject to criticism from the academic world and practitioners.

2.6 SECTION 2: PROFESSIONALISM

According to Baggini (2005), a professional is one who can deal with the challenges and tasks that are specific to the job they do, using skills, experience and expertise that are specific to that job. For the trainer, Helterbran (2008), states that professionals take ownership of their job responsibilities, assignments and personal conduct. Being a professional is a matter of personally emulating and modelling the qualities demanded of trainees and colleagues.

Rosenholtz (1989) states that there exists a large body of literature about the evolving nature of professional work. This literature indicates that there are different concepts of professionalism. Professionalism is a vital component of this study, as one of the critical areas for undertaking this research was to discover how trainers understand professionalism. Professionalism is defined in many different ways, and it is used both descriptively and prescriptively. Professionalism provides the autonomy and responsibility central to teaching, as trainers must regularly make excellent decisions about the learning needs of individual young people (Connell 2009; Gewirtz, Mahony, Hextall, & Cribb Gewirtz, 2009; Groundwater-Smith & Mockler, 2009). At its ideal, professionalism has the potential to contribute to a robust discourse of quality improvement. The South African Council of Educators (SACE, 2000), states that there is a general agreement that the notions of professional autonomy, accountability, knowledge and professional ethics are central elements of professionalism. Beaton (2010), states that professionalism is as, or perhaps even more relevant today as it was when the concept first emerged centuries ago. Sockett (in Tichenor & Tichenor, 2005:9), describes professionalism as “the manner of conduct within an occupation, how members integrate their obligations with their knowledge and skill in a context of

collegiality and their contractual and ethical relations with clients". Soanes, Hawker and Elliott (2006), argue that professionalism is the ability or skill expected of a professional and consistent demonstration of core values. Professionalism is defined as the practice of some profession but also defines the practitioners of that profession. It includes attitude as well as behaviour. It is not only what the individual does as a professional but also what he or she thinks in such tasking. Thus, it is both the manner and method of performing such tasks within the occupation.

Robson (2006:9) states that their social and cultural environment determines what people perceive as professionalism. Furthermore, it is a compositional and evaluative discourse and a cultural and social practice that supports and reproduces power relations, to ensure control of a body of knowledge in particular institutions. This implies that professionalism changes and develops, and includes interrelated ideas, to produce a way of thinking about occupations. Rizvi (2003), contends that the professionalism of a trainer depends on the quality of the person's work, when considering the different roles that the person fulfils and how professional knowledge is organised and used.

Using composite descriptions of ideal trainers in the classrooms, the SAPS (2007:182) identifies some significant characteristics that a trainer should possess:

- promptness – the trainer, acts immediately, with decisiveness and authority, while following the protocols, in order not to cause any delay in the learning effort
- trustworthiness - the trainer, is always truthful and acts with honesty and integrity within the learning space and beyond their morality should command respect and inspire others to act accordingly and be committed

The trainer's enthusiasm and dedication to the profession of teaching should be self-evident; giving their time and knowledge way beyond the call of duty. SAPS trainers who themselves are regularly involved in continuing education and conscientiously apply best practices are the ones who are consistently rated as most professional by their adult learners.

Police professionalism is the increasing formalisation of police work and the accompanying rise in public acceptance of the police (SAPS, 2007:15). Certain

fundamentals are essential in various professions to achieve “professionalism.” According to Maister (1997:6) “...professionalism means the pursuit of excellence, not just competence....” It is a balancing act between the client, the firm, and oneself. Balance is not only essential but also necessary in becoming competent professionals, seeking superior quality in work, providing the best possible service to clients, adhering to established standards, all in the name of service in doing the right thing. In policing, the firm is the institution and agency one represents; the community and the public wherein one is the client (ibid). The role of professionalism in policing was seen as a vehicle for improving upon the function of policing in providing essential guidelines to ensure policing performs within the framework of the most effective and efficient manner possible. It incorporates the criterion of integrity, training, specialised knowledge, education, and science and technology into the profession. Professionalism in policing aids in helping to define the occupation of policing as unique.

Alvsväg (2010) argues that professionalism is the possession of specialised knowledge and ethical values as core attributes followed by behaviour, caring, self-regulation, altruism, autonomy in practice, and participation in professional organisations. Booyens (2007), describes the characteristics of professionalism as the pursuit of excellence and the desire to regulate one’s performance. Professionalism refers to the extent to which the individual has accepted the culture that is, the values, norms and behaviours of the profession as part of her professional self (Mellish, Brink & Paton, 2010:125). In this study, professionalism refers to the professional attributes, ethics, norms and values maintained by trainers in SAPS.

Hoyle (1980) describes professionalism as the quality of one’s practice. A sense of professional identity was determined to be an antecedent to professionalism (Apesoa-Varano, 2007; Ohlen & Segesten, 1998). An individual who shows consideration and respect for others demonstrates a commitment to professionalism. Likewise, a person who keeps his or her word demonstrates loyalty and exceeds expectations in demonstrating professionalism. This implies that the behaviours exhibited by a principal are what identify a principal’s professionalism. Similarly, Hurst and Reding (in Tichenor & Tichenor, 2005) align specific behaviours with trainer professionalism, namely dressing appropriately, punctuality, use of appropriate language and building strong relationships with colleagues. Morrow (1998), argues that professionalism is the degree

to which one is committed to the profession, and states that trainers have varying degrees of professionalism. For example, a high degree of professionalism would include accepting responsibility for the way a job is done.

The pursuit of police professionalism has two meanings according to Burack (2006). First, it has meaning in the traditional sense of integrity, honesty, and adherence to a code of ethics and established standards. Second, in these more complex times, a more sophisticated version of professionalism is necessary for responding to the community, or institutional needs, in being respectful of human rights, in becoming more effective in policing; achieving a professional model of policing. The professional model of policing seeks to make police work a real profession, similar to the professions of medicine, law, and education (Schneider, 2009:15). In these other professions, practitioners possess a broad range of discretion in their respective occupations: doctors rely on training, experience, and knowledge to treat patients; lawyers rely on training, education, and experience to pass professional judgement regarding case law or legal enquiries. Advocates of the professional model of policing argue that police officers are experts in their professional realm, through training, education, and experience, and thus, should be viewed as stated by Seigfried (1989). Schneider (2009) states that professionalism in law enforcement can result in higher police salaries, a decrease in corruption and deviance in law enforcement, as well as fewer lawsuits.

Green and Gates (2014:81) point out that police work has become increasingly complex and, as a result, educational requirements for police officers ought to be increased. There is also a suggestion that better-educated police officers are more rounded thinkers and they exhibit a more significant humanistic bent (ibid).

Professionalism means the pursuit of excellence, not just competence (Schneider, 2009:24). Schneider (ibid), further points out that police professionalism requires that police officers possess a great deal of specialised knowledge and that they adhere to organisational standards and ethics as set forth by the profession. Police professionalism requires that police officers possess a great deal of specialised knowledge and that they adhere to organisational standards and ethics as set forth by the profession. Professionalism is defined as both the practice of some profession and the practitioners of that profession (Evans, 2008). It includes attitudes as well as

behaviour and is not only what employees do (as professionals), but also what they think during such tasking (Mitchell & Ream, 2014). Thus, it is both the manner and method of performing such tasks within the occupation; it is what they do, how they do it and the spirit of that commitment (Sklansky, 2011; Schneider, 2009). Oosthuizen (2009) argues that employees commit a breach of contract where employees are qualified but lack in dedication or are inattentive or careless in the execution of their duties.

Helterbran (2008) proclaims that professionalism is a process more than an outcome. This statement can be transferred to the experiences and training in professionalism in undergraduate trainer education programmes. For members of professional education organisations, the process of learning and practising professionalism begins through involvement in the organisations. Further, it is carried into the teaching profession. According to Vallicella (2009), trainer professionalism contains three essential characteristics. These are competence, performance, and conduct, which reflects the educator's goals, abilities, standards, and directly impacts on the effectiveness of teaching through the development of these qualities. The characteristic of competence is fundamental in an educator's pursuit of excellence. A discussion on competence focuses on three essential ideas: preparation, knowledge of subject area, and defined pedagogy (Vallicella, 2009).

The first idea, preparation, formulates the professional for the adversity of the classroom. From language and cultural barriers to socio-economic differences, all trainers face deterrents in the classroom that must be broken down by individualised techniques. The second, knowledge of subject area, builds confidence and enables the educator to focus on how to relate subject matter to the trainees and their cultures within classrooms. The final portion of competence is discovering and assuming a defined pedagogy. Ball (2008) states that professionalism is not just about appearance, ethics, and a code of conduct. Professionalism is about having a lifetime dedication and commitment to higher standards and ideals, important values, and continuous self-improvement. Police effectiveness implies a better and more productive police officer, and likewise, a more effective and professional law enforcement agency. Police professionalism is equated with better-educated, highly-trained, rule-oriented police officers. It is not only what the police do, but also how they do it (Schneider, 2009:130).

Professionalism is a built-in guidance system for always doing the right thing, and always standing tall for what you believe.

To understand the tradition and history of policing in this framework, it should be noted that police perform three primary yet varied functions: law enforcement, order maintenance, and community service. However, carrying out such functions ranges across a broad spectrum of policies, protocols, and procedures dependent upon the type of law enforcement agency involved and institution served. Thus, professionalism in policing is more than merely accountability, the clearance rate, or amount of crime in a given jurisdiction. Professionalism in policing infers agency effectiveness. Police effectiveness implies a better and more productive police officer, and likewise, a more efficient and professional law enforcement agency. Police professionalism is equated with better-educated, highly trained, rule-oriented police officers. It is not only what the police do, but also how they do it (Schneider, 2009).

Krishnaveni and Anitha (2007), argue that ethical conduct is both the most fundamental tenet of professionalism and the most challenging and should be the foundation for the three broad areas which are termed skill, concern for others and concern for self. Ethical standards ought to be treated as welcome moral principles guiding a vibrant profession. The SAPS as a whole is struggling to inculcate professionalism into all police officers and using every means possible to influence police officers to develop the ideal professional police identity. The SAPS Code of Conduct (1997) helps to shape the corporate identity by creating an image of the professional police officer and dictating the focus of professional police officers, as they have to commit to achieving a safe and secure environment for all the people of South Africa. Traditional notions of professionalism understand it is hallmarked by specialised knowledge, autonomy and responsibility (Furlong & Maynard, 1995).

The concomitant of these characteristics is relational trust both with clients and within the membership of the profession (Gewirtz et al., 2009). Police professionalism requires refocusing on the communities that the police serve (Schneider, 2009). Any measure of police effectiveness, today, includes citizen satisfaction, which is currently not evident in the SAPS, Northern Cape Province. Evans (2008), is quite adamant that professionalism must be something that professionals do, not something that

government or other agencies want them to do or mistakenly imagine that they are doing to fulfil the service level requirement. This implies that professionalism links with transformational leadership, since police officers, as transformational leaders, are regularly involved in influencing, motivating, encouraging and inspiring others. There has been much debate in recent decades about the concept of 'professionalism' with regard to the police trainer profession.

Green and Gates (2014), define professionalism as belonging to a profession and behaving in a way that is consistent with professional standards. A profession is an occupation that requires extensive training or education or the study and mastery of specialised knowledge. It means having an internal set of standards of performance and behaviour (Green & Gates, 2014:76). Emphasis is placed on the premise that training or education is necessary to master the specialised knowledge required for professionalism. This highlights the importance of training or education provided by the SAPS as a contributing factor to the professionalism of police employees. A profession is organised and characterised by a body of specialised knowledge acquired through extensive education and a well-considered set of internal standards and ethical guidelines that hold members of that profession accountable to one another and the entity they serve (Seigfried, 1989). Police professionalism requires a great deal of specialised knowledge and adherence to established standards and ethics as set by the profession in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996). This includes the SAPS Act, 1995 (Act 68 of 1995) and the SAPS Code of Conduct (1997), as well as relevant national and provincial orders and instructions. Helterbran (2008:126) states: "professionals take ownership of their job responsibilities, assignments, and personal conduct. Being a professional is a matter of personally emulating and modelling the qualities demanded of our trainees and colleagues". The trainers understand professional development as enhancing their pedagogical knowledge. This is done to enable them to grow as individuals and to execute their jobs more effectively.

Kosgei, Kirwa, Odera and Ayugi (2013), also assert that teaching experience is not significant in the effort of improving trainees' achievement. As a professional academic, the professional qualification has a proportional relationship with the mastery of subjects and the expectation of success in the learning process (Nielsen, 1996). Advanced degrees such as Masters and Doctorates have a positive effect on the trainer (Rice,

2003; Wayne & Youngs, 2003). Police professionalism is proactive policing; going beyond traditional definitions of policing (Walker, 1992:12-14). Improved accountability, strong leadership and continual professional development of police are all partnering variables in promoting police professionalism. Positive police-community relations are paramount, and other factors aiding in identifying professional police departments include college incentive pay, community relations training and the percentage of officers who are college educated (Smith & Klein, 1984).

Professionalism in law enforcement can result in higher police salaries, a decrease in corruption and deviance in law enforcement, and fewer lawsuits (Schneider, 2009:28). Police professionalism requires that police officers possess a great deal of specialised knowledge and that they adhere to organisational standards and ethics as set forth by the profession. Professionalism is a crucial component for the success of any profession. Professionals need to demonstrate professionalism for them to discharge their duties effectively and efficiently. Oosthuizen (2009) argues that employees commit a breach of contract where employees are qualified but are lacking in dedication or are inattentive or careless in the execution of their duties. True professionalism in policing is viewed as a recognised indicator and predictor of police effectivity worldwide (Tuffin, 2016). Professional Development (PD) is a broad and comprehensive concept that describes the development, continued progress, change and growth of an individual over the course of a career (Elman, Illfelder-Kaye & Robiner, 2005). Elman et al., (2005), note that PD is more than merely acquiring knowledge, skills and competence, but rather a commitment and theory of continued improvement.

2.7 THE MAJOR ASPECTS OF PROFESSIONALISM FOR TRAINERS

2.7.1 Self-rule

The SAPS Code of Conduct (1997) serves as a guiding document regarding the determination of what is right or wrong versus appropriate or inappropriate behaviour towards the achievement of a framework. Although knowledge of their subject allows professional trainers to exercise autonomy at both an individual and collective level, (Freidson, 1988). It is assumed that this self-governance at a collective level operates as such, as only the profession itself can define and judge the competence and proper

conduct of its members, according to Eraut (1994). Trainers planning their work, which is notably lacking among the junior trainers in the SAPS, experience self-regulation at an individual level.

Organisational deficiencies relate to the inadequate command and control, ill-discipline and noncompliance should be juxtaposed with the SAPSs' Code of Conduct. In a quest to enhance the implementation of ethical conduct in public administration and strengthen constitutional provision, the Public Service Code of Conduct (1997) was developed, and subsequently the SAPS Code of Conduct (1997). Section 195 (1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) provides that democratic values and principles should, in every sphere of government, govern public administration as a practice. It is, however, evident that the organisation has not adequately internalised the SAPS' Code of Conduct. The SAPS' Code of Conduct must permeate all policing activities by providing a practical and moral compass for all members regarding the standard of conduct that is expected of them. The SAPS Code of Conduct (1997) requires the SAPS to operate with integrity by rendering a responsible and capable high-quality service, which is accessible to all members of the public and continuously strives towards improving safety and security.

2.7.2 Ethics

According to Kernaghan and Dwivendi (1983), ethics is that branch of philosophy which concerns human characters and conduct. It is composed of the distinction between right and wrong and one's moral duty and obligations to the community as a whole. From the above definitions, it can be deduced that ethics involves decisions about whether actions are right or wrong when measured against acceptable community values. Friedson (1988) discusses both the regulation of the profession and how the professions regulate themselves and their members. Morality is demonstrated not just through the attitudes that the profession claims to uphold, but also more importantly by the actions that they perform. Intrinsic motivation for a choice of career, as described by Friedson (2001), legitimises the profession but a set of approaches outlined by the profession does not ensure that virtuous behaviour will follow.

Ethics refers to the branch of philosophy that deals with values relating to human conduct concerning the rightness or wrongness of a specific action and the goodness or badness of the motives and ends thereof (Chandler & Plano, 1998). The question of rightness entails what ought to be or what is acceptable to a particular society or a group of that society. This means that ethics is a moral guideline, which guides human behaviour towards the attainment of prevailing ethos in the provision of safety and security to members of the public. Chapman (1993:178) argues that ethics is concerned not only with distinguishing right from wrong and good from bad but also with the commitment to do what is acceptable. According to Ziman (1998:12), ethical issues always involve interests or feelings. He states that ethics is not just an abstract intellectual discipline; it is about the conflicts that arise in trying to meet real human needs and values.

This means that to be distinctly ethical is not a matter of following one's interests or feelings, that is, police officers who follow their feelings may recoil from doing what is right. In essence, one's interests might deviate from what is considered ethical by members of the public. In the case of police officers, this value judgement would be made against the expectation of community needs and would involve acting either in the best interests of the community or not taking the best interests of the community at heart. The ethical conduct is sourced from policies and procedures that govern one's organisation; policies on sexual harassment, whistle blowing and a code of conduct (SAPS, 2007:15). According to Kernaghan and Dwivendi (1983:153), ethics is that "branch of philosophy which concerns human characters and conduct. It is composed of the distinction between right and wrong and one's moral duty and obligations to the community as a whole."

In practice, a code of conduct is a multidimensional concept; some call it credo, others call it a declaration of business principles, value statement, standard of conduct and code of ethics. In the context of this thesis, a code of conduct is a document or an agreement that stipulates the morally acceptable behaviour among individual police officers within the SAPS. It defines the ethical standards or guidelines that need to be respected by all police officers in the SAPS in dealing with both internal customers such as the management, employees, colleagues and external customers such as the members of the public, contractors and other government institutions. It could be

concluded, therefore, that a code of conduct is a set of conventional principles and expectations that are considered binding on any person who is a member of a particular group. The SAPS Code of Conduct (1997), is binding only to functional police officers employed by the SAPS Act, 1995 (Act 68 of 1995). The code of conduct is however, a critical component, which has the potential to effectively contribute to the enhancement of the ethical work practices in the SAPS. Therefore, it could be deduced that a code of conduct has a vital role to play regarding guiding individual police officers about differentiating good from harmful practices.

The SAPS Code of Conduct (1997) provides that the police service should work actively towards preventing any form of corruption and bringing those guilty of unethical conduct to justice. The SAPS Code of Conduct (1997) requires the SAPS to operate with integrity by rendering a responsible and effective service of high quality, which is accessible to all members of the public and continuously strive towards improving safety and security. Police ethics require the adherence to moral duty and obligation that is inherent to police work. Ethics training is integrated into most formal basic law enforcement training programmes nationally. Overall police professionalism is the increasing formalisation of police work and the accompanying rise in public acceptance of the police.

2.8 COMMITMENT TO CHANGE AND CONTINUOUS IMPROVEMENT

Continuous improvement is a philosophy that Deming (1970) merely describes as Improvement initiatives that increase successes and reduce failure (Jergensen, 2000). It involves everyone in an organisation working together to make improvements without necessarily making substantial capital investments. Continuous improvement can occur through evolutionary improvement, in which case improvements are incremental, or through a radical change, that takes place because of an innovative idea or new technology. Shortell, Jones, Rademaker, Gillies, Dranove, Hughes, Budetti, Reynolds and Huang (2001) assert that continuous improvement is a commitment, continuous quality improvement, and a process wherein improvement is dependent on two elements: learning the appropriate processes, tools, and skills and practising these newfound skills on small achievable projects.

Accordingly, the concept of professionalism provides a set of ideals that act as measurements that occupational members use to understand their roles, rights and obligations in the organisation, and to engage in interaction with other members of the profession. Professionalism can improve the coordination of professional work by scaffolding activities, aligning work, and creating a shared perspective among organisational members (Sockett, 1993). The obligation to nurture recruits and pass on institutional knowledge needs to be highlighted to present SAPS members. Employee development encompasses an integrated set of planned programmes offered over a period of time, aimed at assuring that all employees possess the competence required to optimally perform their duties” (Babio & Rodriguez, 2010). Vermeulen (2011) indicates employee development can include competency-based training to obtain knowledge and particular skill to enhancing an academic’s present job performance and to prepare the employee for changing job demands. The SAPS’ continuous improvement is the every-day activities executed by the police to enhance its ability to meet the communities’ demands. Continuous improvement can be achieved by carrying out internal audits, performing management reviews, analysing data, and implementing corrective and preventative actions.

2.9 EFFECTIVE TEACHING CHARACTERISTICS WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE SAPS

Before gaining a better understanding of the characteristics for effective teaching, it is necessary to define what effective teaching is. Effective teaching is defined as systematic (Hativa, Barak, & Simhi, 2001), stimulating, caring (Cohen, 1981; Marsh 1982; McKeachie & Kulik, 1975) well-planned, determined and high expectations (Allan, Clarke & Jopling, 2009; Hativa et al. 2001). Lowman (1996:38) expands the scope of useful teaching by defining it as the process of selecting the materials, resources, teaching strategies and assignments that have the most significant potential to contribute to student learning. Walker (2008), describes dynamic characteristics as the unique personal qualities of the trainer who is most successful in helping trainees to learn; which enables them to become a successful educator. Cruickshank, Jenkins and Metcalf (2003). add that most people would agree that good trainers are caring, supportive, concerned about the welfare of trainees, knowledgeable about their subject matter, able to get along with parents and genuinely excited about the work that they

do. Effective trainers can help trainees learn. Swank, Taylor, Brady and Frieberg (1989) consider trainer effectiveness as increasing academic questions and decreasing lecture.

Murray (1997) defines effective teaching regarding the faculty member characteristics of enthusiasm and expressiveness, clarity of expression, and rapport or interaction. This is consistent with Kane, Sandretto and Heath (2004), who conclude that effective teaching includes the characteristics of personality, skills, subject knowledge, and reflective practice. Rubio (2010), expresses that an effective trainer is considered, sometimes, as a perfectionist, encouraging, approachable and caring, other times as intelligent, but above all, as enthusiastic, funny, smart, capable and understanding, open, and with a relaxed style while teaching.

However, Theall and Franklin (1990) view effective teaching as a complex, multidimensional, dynamic process affected by the individuals who are involved in the process as well as by the circumstances in the classroom. This coincides with Stronge, Tucker and Hindman (2004), who state that a competent trainer is always in a constant learning process due to changes regarding the trainees' characteristics, the curriculum, the community and finance among many others. However, they also add that teaching is vocational and most effective trainers are passionate about their chosen profession. Numerous researchers have conducted studies to reveal what qualities and similar behaviours make for effective teaching (Buskist, Sikorski, Buckley & Saville, 2002; Schaeffer, Epting, Zinn & Buskist, 2003). Effective teaching is complicated, and research indicates that measures of effective teaching are multifaceted and multidimensional (Sheehan & DuPrey 1999; Tang, 1997).

Essential characteristics of effective instructors have been debated in the literature for many years (Oesch, 2005). Some researchers focused on addressing ineffective attributes of teaching which impede student learning and suggest strategies for improvement. Carson (1996), suggests three dominant characteristics shared by ineffective professors are the lack of passion for their subject matter, inability to connect trainees to academic subjects and indifference or hostility to trainees. Arrogance, dullness, rigidity, insensitivity, self-indulgence, vanity, and hypocrisy are stated as the seven deadly sins of teaching (Eble & McKeachie, 1985).

On the contrary, modesty, use of humour, showing care for trainees and respecting others' point of view were attributes that are correlated to highest trainees' rating for instructors (Murray, 1985). This also oppositely corroborates with Ramsden (2003) who emphasises concern and respect for trainees and student learning as one of the six fundamental principles of effective teaching in higher education. Besides appropriate assessment and helpful feedback, making the subject exciting and explaining it clearly, clear goals and intellectual challenge, trainees feeling control over their learning and finally, learning from trainees, being open to change and continually improving are also essential.

Allan, Clarke and Jopling (2009), summarise effective teaching into four domains: providing a supportive learning environment, having high academic expectations, scaffolding learning and providing clear explanations. As part of a trainer assessment project, Collins (1990), was able to determine five criteria for a competent trainer that included their commitment to trainees and learning, knowledge about the subject matter, management of trainees, reflection on own practice and participation in a learning community. Qualities of effective teaching or trainers extracted from a review study by Wotruba and Wright (1975) highlight: communication skills, favourable attitudes, knowledge of the subject, excellent organisational skills, enthusiasm, fairness, flexibility, encouraging trainees, and providing exciting lectures.

2.10 VALUE SYSTEMS, ROLES AND ABILITIES OF AN EFFECTIVE TRAINER

The person selected to train the adult learner needs to have a wide range of skills and aptitudes to be able to effectively transmit both their expertise and knowledge so that the specific outcomes expected by the SAPS can be met. It is important to remember that the trainer is human and as such has their strengths, weaknesses, penchants, prejudices, sentiments and personal needs. Trainers will only be useful at achieving the deliverables of their jobs if their principles and virtues are consistent with their professional obligations (Agochiya, 2002).

2.10.1 Value systems of the trainer

A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence (Rokeach, 1973:5). A value system is an endurance organisation of belief concerning preferable modes or conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance. Agochiya (2002) identifies the principle of a trainer that may positively affect the realisation of a particular training programme, which is a firm belief in the value of training as a tool for progress and improvement.

The SAPS Education and Training Development Act (SAPS 2007) aims to ensure that employees are continuously and adequately empowered with the necessary information, services and approaches to perform their designated functions and duties effectively. Leumer (1998), comments that by helping and facilitating learning processes, the role of the facilitator is to bring out the full potential and creativity of adult learners. The profession of adult trainers and facilitators is to help lift the treasures that lie within people. Moreover, for this challenging task of treasure lifting, it needs skills, focusing on facilitating intellectual development and personal autonomy (Leumer, 1998).

To acquire the necessary skills, facilitators need adequate training. According to Jarvis, Meek and Jarvis (1996), in most courses preparing individuals to become facilitators of adults, considerable emphasis is placed upon a variety of methods with which facilitators should be familiar. However, much less is placed upon teaching styles. Furthermore, Chadwick (1995), points out that in courses dealing with teaching methods, facilitators themselves may retain hints and tips on technique, but fail to apply them in their classes. According to Chadwick (ibid), a move away from the didactic presentation of material to reach goals or outcomes has led towards a more learner-centred approach towards their achievement. In this regard, the approach of the facilitator of adults, based on who he is, as much as on what he knows, is gaining momentum.

An alternative view is that a good trainer is a facilitator of learning, creating situations in which adult learners manage their learning. Although this is not an argument for no teaching ever to be done, instead the teaching-learning engagement is a partnership (Jarvis, 1996). In addition, Chadwick (1995:4-5) mentions that attitudes are of some

importance not only facilitator's attitudes towards adult learners but also their attitudes towards their whole teaching approach. However, Chadwick cautions that attitude change is notoriously slow (ibid). An essential training objective is to stimulate internal change, especially in how the facilitator as the learner comes to view the work. This objective moves a long way from the slowly changing view of teaching trainers how to teach. An important issue is how to cultivate a facilitator's desire to improve and, as an independent learner, continue with self-training to become more sensitive to learners' learning needs and more able to become self-critical as a thinking practitioner.

2.10.2 Role of the trainer

According to the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) 1995 (Act 58 of 1995), a training provider is defined as a body that delivers learning programmes that culminate in specified National Qualification Framework (NQF) standards or qualifications and manages the assessment thereof (SAQA, 2000). In turn, trainers are individuals, organisations or consultants who provide internal and external training to the workplace (Govender & Bisschoff, 2007). Across most training programmes, trainers are expected to fulfil specific roles in the training process. Depending on the emphasis on the training and the specific situation, individual roles can be more predominant than others. Agochiya (2002), has identified training roles as taking up leadership and direction of the training group together with the training team and planning the training programme. Further, managing the training programme; direct and supervise the administrative aspects of the programme and be the initiator of the learning process; this includes preparing the learning environment, organising the resources and facilitating the learning.

There is a need to define the core competencies of trainers. Noe (2008), as cited by Erasmus, Loedolff and Hammann (2010), identifies four unique roles for the practitioner, namely learning strategist, business partner, project manager and professional specialist. He concludes that trainers need to follow combined clusters of competencies to be effective and these are:

- Management Competencies: thinking strategically; project management, organisational development, cost-benefit analysis skills, organisational behaviour

understanding; improving human performance; delegation skills; analysing needs and proposing solutions.

- Interpersonal Competencies: coaching skills, feedback skills, group process skills, negotiation skills, presentation skills, relationship building skills and business writing skills.
- Personal Competencies: demonstrating adaptability and modelling personal development.
- Intellectual Competencies: information search skills; intellectual versatility; model building skills; observing skills, self-knowledge; visioning skills.
- Technical Competencies: adult learning understanding; career development understanding; computer competence; competence identification skills; electronic systems skills; objectives preparation skills; subject matter understanding; training and development theories and techniques; and research skills.

2.10.3 Section summary

This section focused on ethical principles for teaching. It introduced the ethical principles in teaching and explored the ethical teaching practice. Overall, what is most important is that trainers view their practices and the codes of conduct, ethics, and qualities of proficient practice independently and collaboratively. The subsequent section discusses the SAPS training methods that bring the various elements together in offering some strategies for professional development.

2.11 TRAINING METHODS IN THE SAPS

Different training and development needs require different training methods and approaches. A training session is not always the answer to all developmental problems. The nature of the task will influence the training methods at which training is aimed, and most tasks require a combination of techniques. Inappropriate methods lead to ineffective learning, which consequently results in the insufficient transfer of information and skills (Nunes, 2003). The current training techniques used at SAPS are not as effective as they can or should be, due to the transformational changes in the country

and the influence of these on the SAPS as a whole (Van Dyk, Nel, Van Loedolff & Haasbroek, 2001).

The specific training methods utilised are essential. With training techniques and methods, the intervention can be made more exciting and informative. Specific methods may be suited to specific preferences, but most methods can be changed to broaden their appeal for a variety of learning preferences (Milano & Ullius, 1998). Due to this, a significant number of methods and techniques exist that can be used to enhance a training intervention to make it more interesting. More than one method or technique can be used at one time. It needs to be mentioned that a training method or technique is chosen for a purpose. The instructional personnel's underlying philosophy and the urgency of the situation must also be taken into consideration (Haberfeld, 2002).

Currently, all training in the SAPS depends on the above factors. The way a trainer trains his or her class depends on the number of people present and the facility where the training is taking place such as a classroom or in the field. According to Haberfeld (2002), there are more common methods that can be used namely on-the-job training, off-the-job training, job rotation and mentoring.

2.11.1 On-the-job training

On-the-job training, job rotation and transfers (McCourt & Eldridge, 2003:356) as a way of developing employees' skills within the organisation involve movements of employees from one official responsibility to another. On-the-job training has a general reputation as the most effective form of training for vocational work. Laing (2009), defines on-the-job training as an indicator to enhance superior skills, knowledge, capabilities and outlook of the employees that results in effective performance of the workers. The purpose of the on-the-job training session is to provide employees with task-specific knowledge and skills in the work area (Alipoura, 200). The knowledge and skills presented during on-the-job training are directly related to job requirements. On-the-job training, simply states, "two people working closely together so one person can learn from the other" (Levine, 1997:1). This form of training is most useful when the work environment is rapidly changing, complex, or technological, and thus creates a need for highly skilled workers.

Adamu (2008) asserts that on-the-job training is designed to impart knowledge of the job by working with an experienced worker. The trainer or the experienced worker teaches and advises the trainee on specific methods and techniques for doing the job. In some cases, the trainee is expected to learn by watching the master. The trainee is learning and at the same time working, although the trainee's output is not as extensive. The procedure is usually unsystematic, and most times, it is by trial and error. Baum and Devine (2007), opine that it is better for the organisations to give their employees on-the-job training because it is cost effective and time-saving. Moreover, it helps their employees learn practically.

On-the-job training provides a practical and useful way to satisfy the demand for skills in organisations, characterised by a continuous change in technology and competition (Liu & Batt, 2005). On-the-job training allows new employees to acquire firm-specific skills and knowledge that are hard to obtain in the market while allowing incumbent employees to stay abreast of changes in technical systems and product offerings. Second, it may be more effective than classroom training because employees learn through continuous, context-situated learning initiatives, rather than via infrequent or isolated training activities (Sugrue, 2003). On-the-job training is a process through which skills are developed, information is provided, and attitudes nurtured, to help individuals who work in organisations to become more efficient and effective in their work. It is closely related to strategies such as technical skills training and general job skills training, where the training programme must focus on subjects such as decision-making, problem-solving, presentation skills, report writing skills and negotiation skills, to meet staff needs (US Department of the Interior, 2007).

The convenience of on-the-job training normally distracts its drawbacks that are not easy to identify. Dipboye, Smith and Howell (1994), identify that the time used by the experienced trainer is ignored and not calculated as time lost for productivity with regard to the trainer. The cost of errors and equipment that may be broken during the training may impose considerable costs on the organisation. It is said that such costs are sometimes not taken into account in evaluating on-the-job training. Lawson (1997), also emphasises the need to plan on-the-job training. Though very little research has been conducted to find out its impact on bottom line results in companies, an empirical study

by Rothwell and Kazanas (1990), discovered that better results are compromised if structured on-the-job training is not implemented in operations.

The guidelines on the workplace learning programme in the SAPS (SAPS 2013c), define workplace learning as any non-formal structured ETD intervention in the workplace aimed at improving the employee's skills, knowledge and attributes to improve service delivery in SAPS. It refers to non-formal learning as any structured learning that does not offer certificates but is structured regarding objectives, time and support. An ETD training centre does not provide such learning.

2.11.2 Off-the-job training (Away from site coaching)

According to Ezigbo (2011:419), the "understudy is a type of training where an employee works as a subordinate partner with a boss so that eventually the subordinate will assume the full responsibilities and duties of the particular job". Off-the-job training commonly takes place in a classroom and is designed to train groups of trainees rather than individuals (Rothwell & Kazanas 1994). This form of training helps to ensure that trainees graduate into effective and efficient police officers (Edmund, 2001:372). Fiffick (2005:4), proposes private training centres that combine hands-on and practical applications of the subject matter, to provide off-the-job training. The South African Police Service (2007c:14) explains that the "organisation uses these centres, due to the limitations of the SAPS training facilities to provide for training in aspects that are in high demand. Adult learners will have all the materials, samples, slides, videos and experts to provide training on the subject matter."

Robbins (2005:208) refers to interventions such as live classroom lectures, question and answer sessions, substantial group discussions, small group discussions, case studies, simulation exercises, roleplay and coaching methods. SAPS are making use of this method of training because off-the-job training methods allow trainers to process many trainees at a time and it requires the physical separation of the classroom from the workplace. The advantage of the method is that off-the-job training is usually designed to meet the shared learning needs of a group rather than a particular individual's needs. That is why the method applies to SAPS that has some police officers who need to be trained. Off-the-job training methods have become popular due to limitations of on-the-

job training methods such as facilities and environment, lack of group discussion and full participation among the trainees from different disciplines (SAPS, 2007).

2.11.3 Job rotation

According to Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2004), job rotation is a management approach where employees are moved between two or more assignments or jobs at regular intervals of time, to expose them to all verticals of an organisation. This is a training technique that assigns trainees to various jobs and departments over a period of a few years. According to Jorgensen (2005), job rotation is working at different tasks or in different positions for a set period. It is a planned way using lateral transfer, which purposely allows employees to expand their knowledge, skills and competencies. It also can be considered as an on-the-job training technique (Gomez, Balkin & Cardy, 2000).

In turn, Tracey (2004) refers to job rotation as an informal method of training, often used in conjunction with coaching. Furthermore, job rotation is a technique that involves potential adult learners receiving diversified training, and gaining experience under close supervision through rotation between jobs for specified periods of time. The SAPS utilises this method to improve the performance of adult learners in their present jobs and to prepare them for future positions. Job rotation should not be seen in isolation, but rather in conjunction with the concepts of job specialisation and job enlargement. One common method used is to place the learner in different divisions, each time for several months. Job rotation is a job design that enhances motivation, develops views, and doubles productivity in humanised resources. It improves the organisation's performance, and it improves individuals by creating multi-skilled workers and well-applied available capacities and providing new horizons for attitude, through capabilities and skills of workers (Soltani, Van Der Meer & Williams, 2000).

One of the added advantages of job rotation is that people are, later on, willing to assume greater responsibility when they come to fill positions at higher levels (Swanepoel, 2003). For the organisation, the advantage of job rotation is that it leads to the development of the individual, a skilled pool of trained staff, and skilled staff rotating between departments (Bennett, 2003). With job rotation, an inexperienced manager will

gain insight into, and a broad understanding of, the organisation, and allow a specialist to turn into a generalist.

The SAPS makes use of this method regularly by the shifting of an employee from one job to another at regular intervals. Hence, this is where the trainee is given several jobs in succession, to gain experience of a wide range of activities; a graduate management trainee might spend periods in several different departments at SAPS on-the-job strategy (SAPS, 2007).

2.11.4 Mentoring

Mentoring is essential in this study because some trainers are new in the training environment. According to Sundli (2007), what people understand mentoring or mentorship to be, varies from person to person. However, the word mentorship denotes a mentoring situation between two persons, where one is defined as a mentor, and the other as a mentee. The mentor leads the inexperienced mentee in the correct direction that is, the “road to the right goal” (Sundli, 2007). Anibas, Brenner and Zorn (2009), describe mentoring as a long-term relationship between an experienced, knowledgeable and valuable mentor and a unique mentee, who share the same philosophy of education. Mentoring is often defined as a close, intense, mutually beneficial relationship between someone who is older, wiser, more experienced and more powerful, with someone younger or less experienced.

Shulman and Sato (2006) describe mentoring as a complementary relationship built on both the mentor’s and mentee’s needs. This perception on mentoring relationships emphasises emotional support, rather than on ongoing, career-related support. It is facilitation that takes different forms, depending on the context of the mentoring programme, the needs of the mentee, and the abilities of the mentor. The mentor acts as a source of inspiration, a guide, and a role model that forms a bridge between theory and practice (SAPS On-the-job training strategy, 2006). This practice is meant to ensure that adult learners are fully functional once they qualify. The long-term benefits of mentoring are well known and respected by trainers in the SAPS and the researcher notes that this method is widely used and working well. An organisation that values its employees and is committed to providing opportunities for them to remain and grow

within the organisation is an ideal candidate for initiating a mentoring programme. In SAPS, mentoring is implemented as a formal role that directs focus on enabling employees to gain skills during their practice placements.

In the SAPS, employees are placed in the learning environment for skills development and integration of theory and practice to enable them to render quality service. Those with practical and recent experience in policing teach employees in different environments. It is expected of experienced employees, who are presenting the theory, to accompany employees during their learning, as policing workplaces are intense, complex and demanding environments, which ultimately has an impact on learning.

2.11.5 Section summary

In summary, there are several types of training methods used to acclimatise an employee to a new job or even to a new position within his current organisation. These methods include on-the-job training, off the training, job rotation and job mentoring. These methods are suitable for new employees learning a new job or task.

2.12 PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS

Professional standards assume the contested point that trainer learning is linear and staged, rather than sporadic and responsive to the new contexts, opportunities and needs that trainers face in the course of their careers (Aspland & Macpherson, 2012; Webster-Wright, 2010). The binding of professional standards to professional learning is based on some researchers' convictions that professional standards can guide and promote trainer learning and ultimately improve trainer quality (Wenger, 1998). Connel (2009), claims that standards are a list of unconnected substantive senses where dots could be added or subtracted with no overall difference to the framework. Each standard follows the same format: a title, the scope, practice, knowledge and values. The title is described as an action-oriented statement outlining a key aspect of the work of an educator concisely. The scope details what is expected from the educator. The practice comprises some sequenced statements focused on demonstrable performance. This means that these stand as performance statements and so-called performative professionalism according to Beck (2009).

According to the Public Service Commission Act, 1997 (Act 46 of 1997:4), the "role of the Public Service Commission is to investigate, monitor and evaluate government departments and programmes to ensure that they are promoting the values found in section 195 of the Constitution". These values include, among others, a high standard of professional ethics; effective and economical use of resources; accountability; transparency; and responsiveness to the needs of the public.

Governments or states are justified in setting standards and qualification frameworks to regulate a nation's education system. The training provided should be of acceptable quality, so that adult learners at the various levels of the education system can meet employers' and national needs. Accordingly, Groundwater-Smith, Mitchell and Mockler (2007) observe the following; If professional standards in training hold any promise for improving the quality of teaching and learning, then it is through their capacity to foster generative and authentic professional learning. The learning promise will come to fruition. The capacity of any system of accreditation lies not in the quality assurance implicit but in quantifying the professional development 'hour' required to be undertaken by an accomplished trainer. This is not a period, but rather a process that the system utilises for review and accreditation of professional practice.

Groundwater-Smith, Mitchell and Mockler (ibid), also point out that in situations where professional standards have been set for a profession, professionals do not yet see this as an opportunity to establish authentic professional learning. This view implies that professionals who attempt to adhere to set standards and the administrators who develop them and have to see to their implementation, still need to find synergy. Groundwater-Smith, Mitchell and Mockler (ibid) further state that contrary to popular belief, that standards and quality, though related, are not synonymous. In simpler terms, maintaining appropriately high standards leads to the realisation of quality. In other words, it is practically impossible to attain a product or service of high quality in the absence of high standards.

Quality and standard are controversial concepts and are often used imprecisely. The concepts can mean different things to different people and organisations, and legislating a fixed understanding could be a significant error since it can confuse education and

training. This researcher notes that according to SAPS (2007a) the Constitution and the South African Police Service Act (68 of 1995) are responsible for building a democratic, accountable, ethical, useful and efficient police service under the professional command. This makes better policing a constitutional imperative. The researcher notes how far many of the trainers that he interviewed and observed fell from conventional standards regarding the related SAPS policy. In particular, the SAPS is bound by the principles enshrined in section 195 of the Constitution. These include the following: promoting and maintaining a high standard of professional ethics, using resources efficiently, effectively, and economically, providing services that are fair and equal, being responsive to the needs of the public and being accountable.

2.12.1 Academic standards

Mosia (2001) states that academic standards are set as benchmarks against which to measure the attainment or non-attainment of specific academic competence. Educational inputs would typically refer to entry characteristics of adult learners, as well as the quality of the teaching they receive. Furthermore, Mosia (ibid) suggests that the learner should be proficient in all areas of the curriculum including being competent in both instruction and understanding which is especially necessary for these circumstances. Mosia (2001) indicates that standards relating to the education process focus on the learning experience and the progress adult learners make with mastery of the content and the organisation of the curriculum. The educational output standards, on the other hand, focus on the adult learners' inputs and processes and are measured by looking at the knowledge, skills and understanding acquired by the adult learners. Academic standards are set as benchmarks against which to measure attainment or non-attainment of specific academic competence. Assessment ultimately measures the extent to which the learner meets the requirements of the training programme (Mosia, 2001).

Trainers use standards as guides for developing curriculum and instruction that is appropriately engaging, challenging, and sequenced for the adult learners in their care. By nature, acquiring knowledge and skills is a recursive learning endeavour: adult learners revisit concepts repeatedly as they use language at increasingly sophisticated levels. Because of this recursive learning process, progress for adult learners in the

strictly linear way may occur in other content areas. In SAPS, the academic standard at the training centres focuses on the goals of schooling, the destinations at which adult learners should arrive at the end of the training programme. For example, most standards anticipate adult learners to graduate from being able to write for different audiences in different formats such as reports, instructions, literary criticism, and persuasive and reflective essays to demonstrating a command of standard written English.

2.12.12 Section summary

Academic standards help trainers to ensure that their learners have the skills and knowledge they need to be on course towards college or career readiness by providing clear goals for learners at each grade level. Professional standard is when a trainer is expected to demonstrate, consistently, high standards of personal and professional conduct. Trainers ought to possess proper and professional regard for the ethos, policies and practices of the school in which they teach, and maintain high standards in their own attendance and punctuality.

2.13 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF TRAINING IN THE SAPS

In 1913, both a unified and centrally controlled police force, named the South African Police Force (from now on referred to as the SAPF), was formed from several police agencies that were currently operating in the country. This is when the South African Training Depot in Pretoria-West was established. Colonisation played a role in both (SAPS, 2007b:3).

At first, the SAPF was regarded as a paramilitary force, and those enlisted were trained to fight wars in support of the military, for example, World War I (1914 - 1918) and World War II (1939 – 1945). The following SAPF training institutions were all established during the apartheid era according to Hammanskraal (1941). Lavis (1968) was closed in 1998 and re-opened in 2005 and Chatsworth (1991) was closed in 1993 and re-opened in 1994. Policing, as we currently understand it, was only introduced to many policemen and women during 1972 (SAPS 2007b:4). Today the SAPS (2007a:5) provides

preparation for all people concerned by and interested in policing a democratic South Africa, at 21 institutions throughout the country.

With the unbanning of the African National Congress (ANC), the freedom of Nelson Mandela and the introduction of democracy to South Africa, police training transformed (SAPS 2007b:3). The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997 (Government Gazette No. 18340) states that with input and involvement from the international community, a new curriculum for basic police training was established. On 29 January 1995, President Nelson Mandela appointed General George Fivaz as the first National Commissioner of the new South African Police Service. National Commissioner George Fivaz had the responsibility to first and foremost amalgamate the eleven policing agencies from the previous political dispensation (White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery 1997b:2) into a single united South Africa Police Service. Secondly, the purpose was to align the new police service to new legislation and the process of transformation in South Africa.

Following the National Training Strategy Initiative, the South African Qualifications Act (Act number 58 of 1995) announced the commencement of Outcomes-Based Education (SAPS, 2007b:3). The redirection of the organisation further took place when the National Commissioner, George Fivaz, approved the unbundling of the Human Resource Management division in 1999. During the 1990's, Marks (1998) showed that in-service training in the SAPS was already present and effective in nine provinces. Both at the South African Regional Police Chiefs Conference (SARPCC) and through the Division: Training in the SAPS, in-service training played an increasingly important role in the country (SAPS, 2007b:5) and the continent at large (SAPS, 2007a:5).

Notwithstanding this, Rauch (2001) notes that training in the SAPS was inadequate regarding preparing SAPS trainees for the responsibilities that would be demanded of them at police stations. The SAPS (2007b) states that "... as in the rest of South Africa, the skills and experience gap in the SAPS needs to be addressed as a matter of urgency by any means that can help close the gap between skilled and unskilled SAPS members. As stated above, before the elections in 1994, it became clear that no change to democracy could be effected without significant changes to the South African Police Force (SAPF is now called the SAPS). Once this was identified, a partnership between

the SAPS and other role players in the areas of public security and safety was encouraged. Specific emphasis was placed on the development of “soft skills” including, but not limited to, mediation and negotiation (SAPS, 2007b:8).

Before 1994, South Africa had eleven police agencies comprised of the SAPF and ten police agencies in the ‘homelands’. The disparity between these could not have been more pronounced with the well-resourced SAPS conducting all its functions, including training, whereas the other 10 ‘homeland’ agencies were under-funded and ill-equipped for training. After the merger, many police officials remained functionally illiterate and they often remained in the SAPS for up to 15 years. In the light of this imbalance, the recruitment criteria needed to be brought into alignment. Klipin (2002), records that human resources departments faced increasing pressure with all recruitment halted for up to three years as the selection process was streamlined and upgraded.

2.13.1 Section summary

The transformation of the SAPS by the country’s first democratically elected government started over two decades ago, in 1994. At that time, the police were confronted with a severe legitimacy crisis among a majority of South Africans as a consequence of many decades of brutal and racist apartheid policing practices. The organisation reflected its political masters’ racist ideology and police officers not classified as White by the apartheid regime were primarily used and exploited as cheap labour. With the birth of democracy, one of the world’s most significant attempts at police transformation was launched. From a militant and racist organisation serving the interests of the numerically small White elite. Moves were made to transform the SAPS into a democratic institution that would reflect the demographic diversity of the country and serve the interests of all South Africans.

2.14 CONCLUSION

This chapter was divided into two sections. Section one, provided an overview of the traditional and more contemporary learning theories. It elaborated on the social cognitive theory, behaviourist theory, social learning theory and constructivism theory to learning as a backdrop to show where the later theories that are more related to adult learning

are derived from. Workplace learning as a developing theory is closer to constructivist and socio-cultural perspectives. The reason why the researcher provided a brief overview of these theories is that most of the literature that was consulted plunged straight into the workplace learning theory and the researcher found it challenging to make connections with traditional learning theories. Lastly, the researcher drew from various authors to explore the relations between workplace learning and concepts of situated cognition or situated learning, constructivism and CoPs. In Section 2, the researcher explored professionalism because it is one of the critical areas for undertaking this research; ethics of a trainer, training methods in adult learning, professional standards and concluded with an overview of training at SAPS. The next chapter deals with the use of INSET to address the lack of professionalism, and the possibility of using INSET to benefit trainers with regard to improving trainers in the SAPS level of professionalism.

CHAPTER 3

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING AS A MEANS TO IMPROVE TRAINERS' PROFESSIONALISM

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter is critical to the study as it provided the theoretical and conceptual framework to describe the fundamental concepts. This chapter provides a discussion of the aims, objectives and significance of In-Service Education and Training (INSET) and the different approaches utilised to provide training to trainers with specific reference to the South African Police Service (SAPS). In addition, this chapter gives an overview of INSET as it is currently provided to trainers in South Africa.

Police education, training and development are continuously evaluated and assessed to keep track of new political, social and economic changes globally. "Police education and training systems across the globe are in the process of transition (Paterson, 2011:1). In the SAPS, initial training as referred to by Udrea (2014) is defined as an opportunity granted to employees of an organisation to obtain a qualification that could enable them to perform a specific job or function. It is considered the first phase of an employee's professional development and training after the recruitment and selection process has been completed.

Training assists in improving the skills of the employees in such a way that the time required for them to learn is reduced due to training. Qualified trainers assist new employees to learn a particular job, quickly (Sharma & Kurukshetra, 2013:4). Training increases productivity because the new skill that the employee requires to perform the job is acquired through training. Therefore, once the skill level of the employees has been increased, the quantity and quality of the output will also likely increase. Training does not focus on improving the skills and knowledge of new employees, but also enhances existing employees' performance on their current job assignments and prepares them for the future challenges (Sharma & Kurukshetra, 2013:8). Regarding the South African Police Service Act (Act 68 of 1995, Chapter 5, Section

11 [e]), the National Commissioner of the SAPS shall, among others, “establish and maintain training institutions or centres for the training of police officers”. Scott (2011:1-2) affirms that the SAPS has the obligation to provide “post-school education and training”. As is the case in the mentioned, departments, the mandate of the SAPS is to establish and maintain its training institutions to provide not only basic training to trainees but also in-service training in leadership and management to its members (Scott, 2011).

Lino (2004), also affirms the importance of continuing education and training for police members, claiming that police education and training is the main prerequisite for law enforcement agencies to provide a more secure environment to the community. He indicates, moreover, that at the end of the day, police education and training have a positive effect on the quality of the community as a whole. In this sense, police work is antagonistic because, while democracy demands freedom, police are asked to restrain outlaw behaviours. The ability to maintain such complex and dynamic behaviours within certain limits is the ultimate in policing. To acquire the knowledge needed, police officers must develop their skills in a multi-cultural learning pattern. Mille and Das (2008:185) agree with Lino that the dichotomy in policing involves the maintenance of a balance “between the pressure to get things done and the pressure to get things done correctly”. Criminal justice in a democratic community often demands the execution of crime control measures on one hand while simultaneously protecting the rights of the suspect on the other hand.

Afshan, Sultana, Sobia, Irum, Kamran, Ahmed and Nasir Mahmood (2012), point out that employees are a crucial but expensive resource. Therefore, it is necessary that the skills and knowledge of employees be maximised to achieve the aims and goals of the organisation and to sustain economic growth and adequate performance. Van der Westhuizen and Wessels (2011), emphasise that training interventions are usually identified and scheduled in a coordinated way. The emphasis is also made in that the contents of these training interventions are updated continuously to make provision for the changing needs of the particular institution. Therefore, training and development interventions are part of the process of transforming an individual employee into a professional.

Training in the SAPS is complex and different, reflecting the diversity of workplace training affirmed in the White Paper for Post-School Education and Training (2013). Since training and development in the SAPS is organisation-specific, it is essential to customise both to the requirements of a specific job and or to the current needs as identified by senior management. Only then would police officers be able to effectively execute the duties assigned to the police service regarding the current legislation. Given the scope of the White Paper for Post-School Education and Training (2013), police officers as adult learners need to acquire a range of knowledge and skills in different fields. Such fields could be on human behaviour, law, tactical skills, crime prevention and detention, as well as specialised areas such as forensic science, criminology, psychology, economics and management sciences.

Monappa and Saiyadain (2008), define training as the teaching or learning activities carried on for the primary purpose of helping members to acquire knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes needed by that organisation. It is the act of increasing the knowledge and skill of an employee for doing a particular job. Training, therefore, needs to be seen by the management of every organisation as a long-term investment in its human resource. Dessler (2008), further sees training as the means of giving new or current employees the skills they need to perform at their various jobs. Continuing, he sees training as the hallmark of proper management and thus when managers ignore training, they are doing so to the significant disadvantage of the organisations they are managing. This is because having high potential employees does not guarantee they will perform on-the-job and why every employee must know what management wants him to do and how he must do it. Training is, therefore, necessary to ensure an adequate supply of employees that are technically and socially competent for both departmental and management positions (Mullins, 2007).

Meyer (2007), specifies that training entails the transfer of specific skills to an employee so that a specific job or task can be performed. Training is concerned with skills acquisition and work performance, rendering it task oriented. Police education, training and development are continuously evaluated and assist in keeping track of the new political, social and economic changes occurring globally. Internationally, attempts are currently made to change approaches to policing. According to

Kumpikaite and Ciarniene (cited by Eleve, 2013), training and development of employees help the organisation to meet competitive challenges and environmental changes. Afshan et al., (2012), state that training is necessary for employees to ensure that they are competent in all aspects including progressing in their careers, and moving into specialised departments and management positions. Therefore, staff development is a critical element that should be emphasised as an ongoing process. Further, training fulfils an integral part of this process.

Bernardin (2010:247), concurs with the previous authors in this context and defines training as “any attempt to improve employee performance on a currently held job or one related to it”. This usually means changes in specific knowledge, skills, attitudes or behaviours. The author clarifies that for the training to be practical it should involve learning experience, be a planned organisational activity and ought to be designed in response to identified needs. Preferably, training ought to be designed to meet the goals of the organisation while simultaneously meeting the goals of individual employees.

Training is a short-term process that entails the transfer of specific skills on an employee so that he or she can perform a particular job or task, and is mostly imparted to non-managerial personnel (Chatterjee, 2009). The focus is on improvement in performance after training with a perceptible behavioural change and improvement of strategic knowledge. Training usually takes place when a particular training need has been identified, such as a gap in performance or the introduction of new technology which requires new skills such as computer language, machine operations, playing tennis, and so on (Cascio, 2010; Jyothi & Venkatesh, 2006). Apart from the need to provide training that is aligned with organisational goals and vision, training related to career development should also be tailored to the career needs of individuals. This means what employees know, how they work on their attitudes towards their jobs, co-workers and the organisation as a whole (DeCenzo & Robbins, 2010). White and Escobar (2008), identify emerging issues in police officer training. They point out that police officers argue that the training given in police academies is irrelevant to real police work. In the police experience, the researcher often hears a seasoned veteran telling the rookies that the first thing they need to do is to forget everything they just learned in the academy (White & Escobar, 2008). He asserts that

learning can be accelerated and made more systematic by relevant training that brings the reality of police work into the academy (ibid).

Bernardin (2010), concurs with the previous authors in this context and defines training as an attempt to improve employee performance on a currently held job or one related to it. This usually means changes in specific knowledge, skills, attitudes or behaviours. The author clarifies that for the training to be adequate; it should involve learning experience, be a planned organisational activity and be designed in response to identified needs. Preferably training should be designed to meet the goals of the organisation while simultaneously meeting the goals of individual employees. Ahmed, Sultana, Irum, and Mohamood (2012), point out that employees are a crucial but expensive resource. Therefore, it is necessary that the skills and knowledge of employees be maximised to achieve the aims and the goals of the organisation and to sustain economic growth and adequate performance.

Yigit (2008), states that INSET activities aim to offer trainers an opportunity to add to their professional knowledge and improve their professional skills to educate adult learners more efficiently. The researcher proposes that in-service training can help and support trainers in the SAPS to expand their current knowledge of a subject, acquire new knowledge and engage with colleagues at their current training establishments. Importantly, INSET helps trainers to plan and develop their work efficiently. Training is aimed at enhancing an organisation's standing through the improvement of service delivery (SAPS, 2007c).

The definitions show two aspects of INSET; the increasing of employees' capabilities, training, with the latter part being the enhancement of competence and performance. Development is defined as a managerial function used to preserve and enhance employees' competencies by improving their abilities, knowledge, skills and other relevant characteristics (Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2011). The focus is on a wide variety of skills, abilities and knowledge. In addition, Kanyane and Mabelane (2009), identify two types of development: career development where performance data are used to decide on which employees should be promoted and development planning which assists employees in areas of poor performance. Planning for development in an organisation is conducted under the auspices of

training and development. Training and development are terms that are used synonymously. However, Grobler et al., (2011:340), differentiate between the two. Training is a process that results in people acquiring capabilities to assist in the achievement of organisational goals. With this process, employees gain skills and information tailored to a specific process or workplace. One of the main purposes of training and development is to improve the performance of an organisation (Grobler et al., 2011).

Pannel and Sheehan (2010), state that policing is a challenging and complex occupation, which requires continuous development. Police officers must have intensive skills in criminal law, investigation and risk effective decision-making. They ought to also possess investigative knowledge and other skills as they advance in their career. Lack of training and development may result in financial losses associated with inadequate investigations, which often lead to case dismissals or wrongful convictions. The SAPS has a constitutional and police act mandate to ensure that it increases the number of skilled personnel to meet future requirements and challenges by providing training to its employees on a continuous basis. In the SAPS, the capacity of employees is also developed through training provided by both internal and external service providers. The SAPS in the Northern Cape Province currently consists of five clusters. There are training units in each cluster that cater for training to ensure that employees have relevant skills, knowledge, values and competencies that they require to perform their duties.

The Research and Development Division is responsible for the development of learning programmes in the SAPS. They are responsible for the curriculum design of the learning programmes in the SAPS. In the South African Police Service, members attend learning programmes on a continuous basis to enhance their skills and abilities. As such, adult learners and learning programmes are evaluated on a continuous basis in the SAPS. The ultimate objective of members attending learning programmes is that they will transfer the learning to their work environment. Police officers need to be able to implement their learning in the work environment. Additionally, the SAPS have various policy documents that guide the HRD function. However, there is no curriculum design policy for the development of learning programmes in the SAPS. The SAPS has various policy documents that guide the

HRD function within. Based on the above definitions and arguments, it is imperative that once training has occurred, development should be seen as a long-term change that broadens individuals' insight so that organisational objectives are achieved.

3.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF INSET

The primary aim of INSET is to increase the quality of performance of employees through development, training and non-training intervention procedures and programmes (Erasmus, Loedolff, Mda & Nel, 2008). In addition, Werner and Desimone (2009), argue that the main aim of INSET is to improve organisational performance and to change employee behaviour. Two kinds of behaviours can be classified: those that are central to performing the job and those that are less vital but still contribute to organisational effectiveness. Continuous development of personnel has explicitly been designed to meet the challenges and demands of a democratic South Africa in the twenty-first century (RSA, 2007). The dispensation is in line with the National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS III) which encourages employee organisations to use the workplace as an active learning environment and to provide employees with the opportunities to acquire new skills. However, Noe (2008), provides a broader definition of training and refers to training as planned activities on the part of the organisation targeted towards increasing the job knowledge and skills. It is also aimed at modifying the attitudes and behaviours of employees in ways that are consistent with the goals of the organisation and the requirements of the job. The author adds that these competencies include knowledge, skills, or behaviours that are essential for successful job performance (ibid). Further, the subsidiary aims of INSET include improving the performances of employees who do not meet the required standards of performance (RSA, 2007).

The general assumption is that organisations that give priority to employee training will be better placed to succeed than others over time (Jayawarna, Macpherson & Wilson, 2007). South Africa has had to implement training policies as a means of addressing the skills shortages and training needs of its population after years of apartheid rule (Van Dyk, Nel, Loedolff & Haasbroek, 2001). This is done with the aim that training and education will promote skills development for employability and counterbalance the effects of skills shortages. Training has also been viewed as a

tool for change management. For instance, Ivancevich (2007), states that training can be used to alter employee behaviour to conform to the achievement of organisational goals. However, despite the intended benefits that training can bring to an organisation, Brum (2007), points out that there is still a significant amount of arguments among scholars and professionals on the impact of training on both the employee and the organisation as a whole. Some studies have shown that the type of training implemented has an impact on employee attitude (Benson, 2006).

The purpose of INSET could be seen from the perspective of activities or functions in HRM, which are mainly individual development, organisational development, career development, and performance improvement, which can be described as interrelated functions within HRD (Chatterjee, 2009). Chatterjee (2009) further states that INSET could be seen from the perspective of activities or functions in HRM which are mainly individual development, organisational development, career development and performance improvement, which can be described as interrelated functions within HRD. According to Kumpikaite and Ciarniene (cited by Eleve, 2013), training and development of employees helps the organisation to meet competitive challenges and environmental changes. Training and development are regarded as an essential tool considering the growing complexity of the work environment. It ensures that employees have the necessary knowledge and skills to perform their duties efficiently and take on new responsibilities that will assist to adapt to changing conditions (Ndulue, 2012). Khan, Riaz, Ziauddin, Farooq and Ullah (2010) indicate that employee performance depends on various factors, but the most critical factor of employee performance is training. This means what employees know how they work, their attitudes towards their job, co-workers and the organisation as a whole according to DeCenzo and Robbins (2010). Training is not for individual benefit alone but the organisation as a whole. Therefore, training intervention needs to ensure that employees gain the skills that the organisation will require (ibid).

Pannel and Sheehan (2010), state that policing is a challenging and complex occupation; it requires continuous development. Police officers must have intensive skills in criminal law, investigation and risk effective decision-making. They also require investigative knowledge and other skills as they advance in their careers (ibid). Lack of training and development may result in financial losses associated with

inadequate investigations, which often lead to case dismissals or wrongful convictions. In-service training and development (INSET) are for ensuring higher and lasting performance in any institution that is concerned with its outputs. INSET provides a framework for self-development, training programmes and career progression to meet an organisation's skills requirements (Stare & Klun 2008). Sharma and Kurukshetra (2013), further explain that INSET also assists in ensuring the standardisation of procedures, which further allows high levels of performance. If employees are trained, they work intelligently and make a few mistakes because they possess the required skills and knowledge.

An excellent trainer is one who is dynamic; one who reads widely around the subject, continually develops training materials and regularly attends conferences. Trained personnel utilise material equipment better and more economically, thereby reducing wastage and accidents. When employees are trained, the rate of accidents and damage to specific machines and equipment are reduced. The reduction in accidents contributes to the increased cost savings and overall economy of the operations of the organisation (Sharma & Kurukshetra, 2013). INSET also assists in ensuring the standardisation of procedures, which further allows high levels of performance. If employees are trained, they work intelligently and make a few mistakes because they possess the required skills and knowledge (Sharma & Kurukshetra, 2013). According to Nel, Werner, Haasbroek, Poisat, Sono and Schultz (2010), INSET serves a dual role in that it helps management to meet its human resources requirements, while at the same time increasing the market value or marketability of those undergoing training. They also believe that personnel at the appropriate management and supervisory levels need to receive training in the application of policies and procedures.

According to the SAPS Act 1995 (Act 68 of 1995), the SAPS' vision is to create a safe and secure environment for all people in South Africa. Its mission is to prevent anything that may threaten the safety or security of any community. It is also aimed at investigating any crimes that threaten the safety or security of any community and ensure that criminals are brought to justice and participate in efforts to deal with the causes of crime (SAPS Act, 1995: Act 68 of 1995). Therefore, the SAPS should equip

its personnel with the necessary skills and knowledge to perform their duties (Masilela, 2012).

The high rate of criminal activities committed in this country, require the working force of the SAPS to be highly vigilant and effective in combating and investigating crimes. This can be enhanced through proper training and development (Sultana et al., 2012). These matters suggest that the SAPS require properly trained and equipped employees who will be able to deal with such challenges (Burger, 2013). This is in line with the research problem of 'how could the levels of trainers' professionalism within the SAPS be improved'? The high rate of criminal activities committed in this country requires the working force of the SAPS to be highly vigilant and effective in combating and investigating crimes. This can be achieved through appropriate training and development (Ahmed et al., 2012:625).

It is clear from the above arguments that INSET encompasses a range of events and activities through which working trainers can expand their personal, academic or practical teaching skills, their professional competence and their understanding of educational principles and methods. INSET could include such aspects as updating trainers' skills and knowledge without a change in their role. It could also include the preparation for new roles and positions, upgrading and improvement of professional and academic qualifications and external or internal provision. It focusses on pedagogical issues and needs and programmes available throughout the careers of the trainers. INSET is provided for the benefit of employees of SAPS so that they can perform their task with maximum efficiency.

The aims of INSET, as discussed above, provide a theoretical underpinning of the principal objectives of HRD as encapsulated by organisations, individuals, departments and society at large. The enhancement of employees' development is significant because it identifies their desired needs such as knowledge and skills so that they may perform to the best of their abilities, and consequently rate their actual performance for improvement.

3.3 THE OBJECTIVES OF INSET

The constant changes in technology require that employees acquire the relevant competencies and abilities to face the changing world or to cope with the new processes and production techniques (Laing, 2009). Training increases productivity because the new skill that the employee requires to perform the job is acquired through training. Therefore, once the skill level of the employees has is increased, the quantity and quality of the output also increases. Training does not focus on improving the skills and knowledge of new employees, but also on enhancing existing employees' performance on their current job assignments and prepares them for the future challenges (Sharma & Kurukshetra, 2013).

Training assists in improving the skills of the employees in a way that the time required for them to learn is reduced through training. Therefore, there will be no need for them to waste time by learning through the observation of other colleagues. Qualified trainers assist new employees to learn a particular job quickly (Sharma & Kurukshetra, 2013). Sharma and Kurukshetra (ibid) further state that trained personnel utilise material equipment better and more economically, thereby reducing wastage and accidents. These authors continue and state that when employees are trained, the rate of accidents and damage to individual machines and equipment is reduced (ibid). The reduction in accidents could contribute to the increased cost savings and overall economy of the operations of the organisation. The authors continue to highlight that if employees receive proper training, the morale increases and this shapes employees' attitudes towards achieving the objectives of the organization, while generating better cooperation and greater loyalty. Issues of dissatisfaction, absenteeism and turnover can also be reduced among employees (ibid).

Through proper and adequate training of employees, the managers can identify employees with exceptional skills, and they could be groomed to handle positions of responsibility in future. Once employees are provided with the opportunity for self-development, they put forward their best effort to contribute to the growth of the organisation (Sharma & Kurukshetra, 2013). Based on the information that has been discussed above, it is clear that training can be an essential element and can play a

significant role in every organisation if training procedures, standards and policies are followed as required.

The South African Police Service (2007) has the following training interventions that are determined by the divisional commissioner from time to time. In addition, they may be implemented through education, training and development institutions within the organisation:

- Entry-level training: This training is an essential training-learning programme for entry-level constables, which consists of institutional and field training over a period of two semesters.
- Reservist training: This is a theoretical education, training and development as well as on-the-job training that reservists are expected to undergo, and it is presented in phases.
- Lateral entrant training: This includes a basic training programme that lateral entrants undergo for the initial police training learning.
- In-service training: It is provided to develop functional competencies and skills of employees in support of the strategic objectives of the service.
- Animal training: The dogs, horses and other animals in SAPS must be competent to do the job; therefore, they undergo the necessary training.
- Management and leadership training: This is the training that provides management with relevant updated changes in education and training to ensure adequate, productive and ongoing communication.
- ABET: This training is provided to employees whose education and training levels are below further education and training (Grade 10 to 12) standards (SAPS, 2007).

Such training interventions are meant to assist employees in acquiring the skills required for them to be able to perform their duties to an acceptable standard (SAPS, 2007). The effect of training on police officials improves the capabilities, knowledge

and skills of the talented workforce to be a significant source of competitive advantage in a global market. Botha et al., (2007) state that training is the specific way of facilitating learning in an institution. Formal learning in an institution forms the necessary foundation for programmes and improves attitudes and beliefs, knowledge or skills and behaviour through experiences. To prepare their workers to do their work as desired, SAPS provides training to optimise their employees' potential.

The divisional commissioner for training determines the requirements that employees must fulfil to be admitted for training programmes. Training in the SAPS is offered in the form of learning or skills development or short courses. In most cases, the duration of the training programmes may vary, depending on the nature of the training and its outcomes. The assessments of adult learners undergoing training or learning programmes ought to also be done as determined by the divisional commissioner for training (SAPS, 2007).

In the final analysis, it must be taken into consideration that definitions of INSET may vary; INSET itself remains a central element. It provides for the individual needs and aspirations of trainers. It contributes immensely towards maintaining a competent and vibrant corps of trainers and simultaneously improves the quality of education.

3.3.1 General objectives of INSET

According to Hacer and Uysal (2012:42), INSET can take different forms when attempting to achieve different objectives to bring about changes in training. Hacer and Uysal (ibid) further add that INSET activities can be classified into three groups, which are professional education, a widening and deepening of the trainer's theoretical perspectives through advanced study and professional training.

Development occurs when ongoing learning opportunities are created so that employees can improve and maintain high levels of performance according to DeCenzo and Robbins (2010). Development often takes place to assist the employees to keep abreast of the changes and trends in the working environment or a particular field. Once employees are developed, the organisation will be able to achieve its business goals. Development usually focuses on future jobs in the

organisation as in when their career progresses; employees will need new skills and abilities to perform such jobs (DeCenzo & Robbins, 2010). Masilela (2012) refers to skills development as an excellent personal and professional development of each employee.

The division training develops skills development in the SAPS to ensure that education training and development is appropriately channelled. The organisation enhances the skills and competencies of employees by providing opportunities that will assist them to be capable and competent within the organisation (SAPS, 2007). Based on the above definitions and arguments, it is imperative that once training has occurred development should be seen as a long-term change that broadens the individuals' insight so that organisational objectives are achieved.

Training assists in improving the skills of the employees in a way that the time required for them to learn might be reduced through training. Therefore, there will be no need for them to waste time by learning through the observation of other colleagues. Qualified trainers will assist new employees to learn a particular job quickly (Sharma & Kurukshetra, 2013). INSET refers to all educational programmes that professional trainers go through (Mtika, 2008). It begins with their pre-service academic, professional training, teaching practice and later in their teaching lives continuous professional development programmes (Loughran, 2006).

This could enable the learning encounter that is provided to the mature adult learners to be directly related to the responsibilities and tasks that they will be executing in their work positions. In the development of organisations, training plays a vital role, improving performance as well as increasing productivity, and eventually putting companies in the best position to face competition and stay at the top. This means that there is a significant difference between the organisations that train their employees and organisations that do not (April, 2010). There exists a positive association between training and employee performance. Training generates benefits for the employee as well as for the organisation by positively influencing employee performance through the development of employee knowledge, skills, ability, competencies and behaviour. Training generates benefits for the employee as well as for the organisation by positively influencing employee performance through the

development of employee knowledge, skills, ability, competencies and behaviour (ibid).

Employees' training polishes the dusted abilities of employees. One of the sources of employee satisfaction is consistency learning. Timely training develops their capabilities to learn more and perform well. Only learned employees are better performers, according to Al-Anzi (2009). Cook and Meyer (2007) relate employee performance to the workplace where employees experience learning of skills and development of their capabilities. An environment enriched with employees' learning capabilities tends to prepare them to be more goal oriented and producing healthy results. Sharki (2009) investigated that those environments attain the benefits of their potential employees who care a lot and manage their work performance. The only possibility to have this is to pay more heed and apply the resources to develop their skills. Employees who perform efficiently and effectively have the sense of job security and empowerment in their mind as focusing and achieving the goals will assure their prolonged stay in the workplace (Tjosvold, Law & Sun, 2006). Al-anzi (2009) confirms that it is the quality of workplace environments that directly influence the employees' satisfaction, motivation and consequently their performance.

Every sector requires consistence assistance to maintain the performance of its workforce. Every employee will follow the legal obligations and defined rules if he has proper information and training to abide by those rules (Kennedy, 2009). It is the reason why only disciplined employees are active and real performers. Training is aligned with organisational objectives of any firm as it supports in minimising the gap between the employees' capabilities and their targets (Karodia, Cowden & Kum, 2014). Improved capabilities, knowledge and skills of talented employees have proven to be a significant source of competitive advantage in the Global World (Mckinsey, 2006).

A trend is increasing in most of the firms around the globe that they are applying long-term planning, investing in building new skills by their workforce, enabling them to cope with the uncertain conditions they might face in the future (Elnaga & Imran, 2013). Various efforts are made to develop the workforce to meet the future needs of coping with modern techniques and technology. Only trained employees can meet

their goals and perform to accomplish them, and such employees are rewarded and appreciated. Therefore, top management should look into their concern to achieve their short term and long-term targets (Lee Groysberg & Nohria, 2008).

In addition, Grobler et al., (2011) add that training is about improving the knowledge, skills, abilities and characteristics which enhance the competence of employees. The SAPS Education Training and Development Act (SAPS, 2007c) is aimed at ensuring that employees are continuously and adequately empowered with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to perform their designated functions and duties effectively. This includes whether these are of an operational or support nature. The SAPS offers all employees' development as learning opportunities designed to assist employees to grow within a job or position for a specific employee concerning employees' personal growth and personal goals. In accordance with Chapter 11 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996), it is to ensure a safe and secure environment for all, in accordance with the needs that are identified in specific communities. It is also to render an efficient and productive service to the communities. The SAPS ought to, therefore, equip its personnel with the necessary skills and knowledge to execute their duties. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) guarantees the right of all persons to be developed to the fullest of their capacity.

Based on the above, it is clear that training can be an essential element and can play a significant role in every organisation if training procedures, standards and policies are followed as required. In a climate of rapid educational change, requiring new knowledge and skills to implement centrally directed curriculum initiatives and education reforms, the importance of having a teaching force committed to personal and professional development has been inescapable. The division on training develops skills in the SAPS to ensure that education, training and development are appropriately channelled. The organisation enhances the skills and competencies of employees by providing opportunities that will assist them to be capable and competent within the organisation (SAPS, 2007). DeCenzo and Robbins (2010) state that development occurs when ongoing learning opportunities are created so that employees can improve and maintain high levels of performance. DeCenzo and Robbins (ibid) further elaborate that development usually focuses on future jobs in

the organisation as in when their career progresses, employees will need new skills and abilities to perform such jobs.

3.3.2 Specific objectives of INSET

Training is significant for police officials to be competent in their duties. However, at times, training in the SAPS is treated as something that should be added far ahead, and it appears to be reactive (Scheepers, 2008). Lynton and Pareek (2011) state that training is sometimes initiated because of pressure to improve performance in specific areas of work. Botha, Kiley and Truman (2007) argue that to improve employee performance, it is common that employees who perform poorly have a deficiency in skills; these employees ought to always be targeted for skills training. It is known that training cannot always be a solution to all the problems related to poor performance, but sound training and development can assist in reducing such challenges. The SAPS division for training is mandated to provide Outcomes-Based Education, training and development for all employees of the SAPS to support the strategic objectives of the organisation (SAPS, 2007). The SAPS provides formal learning through both internal and externally accredited service providers. However, this formalised learning is at times inadequate to cater to the demands of the workplace (SAPS, 2007). Currently, the SAPS provides formal learning to its employees, and most of these courses are provided away from the workplace. The organisation also provides in-service training through both internal and external service providers. These formal courses and workshops are registered with the Training Administration System (TAS), and some are accredited by SETAs. The SAPS Division Training Education, Training and Development Education Committee approves all learning programmes for structured formal training (SAPS, 2007).

According to Ivancevich (2010), training and development is a process that attempts to provide employees with information, skills and understanding of the organisation and its goals. Additionally, training and development aid an employee to continue to make the necessary positive contributions to the success of the employing organisation regarding his or her excellent performance on-the-job. To start this whole process is the orientation and socialisation of employees into the organisation. In the SAPS, there are some different types of training used to engage an employee. These

types are usually used in all steps in the training process orientation, in-house, mentorship, and external training. The training utilised depends on the number of resources available for training, the type of training and the priority the SAPS places on training. Depending on the type of job, training will be required. In all situations, a variety of training types are used, depending on the type of job. Safety training is essential to ensuring that an organisation meets the OSHA standards.

In the SAPS, admission to a training programme is determined by the requirements that employees must meet. Training is offered in the form of courses depending on the nature of the desired outcomes, and the Divisional Commissioner: Human Resource Development determines the assessment (SAPS, 2007). The document describes a learning programme as structured activities designed to meet the needs of a curriculum, leading to the achievement of a particular qualification or a unit standard. Learning programmes are meant to transfer knowledge and skills to course participants in an effort to close the vast skills gaps (SAPS, 2007).

A study by Colombo and Stanca (2008); Cooke and Meyer (2007) directly and positively relates the employees' productivity with the quality of labour which is very much influenced by training. Training is one of the most significant and dependable human resource techniques to improve organisational and employee efficiency (Elnaga & Imran, 2013). It assures that training has a significant impact on employee commitment, which in turn influences their performance (Anwari & Amin, 2011). To complete organisational assignments and develop employees' performance, training programmes ought to be planned in such a way that they must polish skills and improve the knowledge of trainees. Companies and workers can accomplish their goals if learning skills are transferred successfully to the place of work (Bhatti & Kaur, 2010).

Organisations throughout the world make investments in their training events with the prospect of developing the competencies and abilities of their employees. Saks and Belcourt (2006), declare that it enables them to work in challenging environments and therefore results in compensating the investments made by the organisations in training. Training is necessary because it attempts to alter or change the knowledge,

skills, and behaviour of employees in such a way that the organisational objectives are achieved (Amos, Ristow, Ristow, & Pearse, 2008).

Nourishing the employees' work, assigning and assisting them in tasks of mounting importance consistently play a crucial role in the development and survival of the organisations. Hence, managers around the world focus on building, utilising organisational resources cordially, and producing the excellent and desired outcomes through employees' commitment and work performance (Ajlouni & Diab, 2015).

3.4 THE IMPORTANCE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF INSET

Ahmed, Sultana, Irum and Mohamood (2012), argue the importance of training as a central role of management that has long been recognised. The one contribution a manager is uniquely expected to make is to give others the vision and ability to perform. Training is necessary to ensure an adequate supply of staff that is technically and socially competent and capable of career development into specialist departments or management positions. There is, therefore, a continual need for the process of staff development, as training fulfils an integral part of this process. Training should be viewed, therefore, as an integral part of the process of total quality management. The recognition of the importance of training in recent years has been heavily influenced by the intensification of competition and the relative success of where investment in employee development is considerably emphasised (ibid).

The purpose of INSET could be seen from the perspective of activities or functions in Human Resource Management that are mainly individual development, organisational development, career development and performance improvement, which can be described as interrelated functions within HRD (Chatterjee, 2009). Werner and DeSimone (2009:4), define HRD as "a set of systematic and planned activities which are designed by an organisation to provide its members with the opportunities to learn necessary skills to meet current and future job demands". It seeks to develop employees' knowledge, expertise and productivity. Programmes developed by HRD must respond to changes in jobs and encompass organisational

strategies and long-term plans to ensure adequate and effective use of resources. In specific instances, HRD is used synonymously with training and development.

For Burma (2007), the main focus of INSET is learning with its main aim being to attain the objectives of both the organisation and the individual. In this regard, development takes place over time with the emphasis on learning, development and training opportunities to improve individual, team and organisational performance. Training has also been viewed as a tool for change management. For instance, Ivancevich (2007), states that training can be used to alter employee behaviour to conform to the achievement of organisational goals. Cox, McCamey and Scaraamela (2014) argue that police officers can never have enough training. Training is a career-long commitment because of the continually changing world within which the police officers must continuously respond.

In-service training or continuing professional education is one of the forms of learning, which is regarded as a cornerstone of professionalism. The increase in the use of computers, forensics and crime analysis indicates that the need for training pervades all levels of policing. Dempsey and Forst (2010), emphasise that in-service training is used to update the skills and knowledge base of police officers because laws and developments in policing are changing and officers need to be kept up to date. Scheepers (2008) concurs with Cox et al., (2014) that the profession of the SAPS is becoming more specialised. Therefore, police officers have to be trained in critical techniques and at the same time, training must empower police officers on advances in technology.

The training division develops skills development in the SAPS to ensure that education training and development are appropriately channelled. The organisation enhances the skills and competencies of employees by providing opportunities that will assist them to be capable and competent within the organisation (SAPS, 2007). The SAPS Strategic Plans 2014 to 2018 (SAPS 2010:28) and 2014 to 2019 (SAPS 2014f) adhere to the guidelines as presented in the Constitution as professionalism and HRM practices are included in the plans above. According to the SAPS' strategic plan, optimising employee utilisation includes the efficient selection, appointment and placement of employees and the development, maintenance and implementation of

conditions of service (SAPS, 2010). Therefore, in this strategic plan, the SAPS commits itself to acknowledge employees as its primary asset in achieving its objectives.

The SAPS is also required to subscribe to the guidelines set in the National Development Plan 2030 (NDP), the government's leading policy regarding planning and action for the democratic and developmental state. The NDP states that one of the primary challenges in South Africa is the poor quality of public service (RSA, 2013a). It is proposed in Chapter 12 of the NDP that urgent action must be undertaken to rectify the situation.

Botha, Kiley and Truman (2007), state that the National Skills Development Strategy seeks to develop skills of all the employees in South Africa so that the workplace can be utilised as an active learning environment. One of the prerequisites of the employer as per government mandate is to provide employees with the opportunities to acquire skills and use the workplace as an active learning environment (Skills Development Act 97 of 1998). The Act forms part of the National Skills Development Strategy, which aims at addressing social and economic problems in South Africa.

Skills development is the process of enhancing employees' competencies that they apply in their working environment. This is done by improving knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes through formal education, skills training and continuous development. There are important reasons why skills should be developed and to improve employee performance. It is common that employees who perform poorly have a deficiency in skills. These employees ought to always be targeted for training. It is known that training cannot always be a solution to all the problems of poor performance, but sound training and development can assist in reducing such challenges.

Skills development legislation makes provision for the development of individual groups. Furthermore, INSET instruction is applied by police officers wishing to assimilate three main proficiencies which are: communication skills, verbal and non-verbal, methods of risk management and the control of losses law and procedures. This includes ordinary police activities including community policing and problem-

solving (SAPS, 2007). For Swanepoel, Erasmus and Schenk (2009), the main focus of INSET is learning with its main aim being to attain the objectives of both the organisation and the individual. In this regard, development takes place over time with the emphasis on learning, development and training opportunities to improve individual, team and organisational performance.

When employees perceive that they have access to training opportunities within the organisation, they feel that the organisation cares for them and is willing to invest in them. In turn, this enhances their productivity, attachment and display of loyalty towards the organisation (Bulut & Culha, 2010). What matters in this respect is the education and training of employees to be able to attain organisational goals, which should inevitably not separate appraisal and development. Professional development is one of the learning outcomes at work; something that people learn or acquire at work, including self-management, building and sustaining relationships and the ability to learn from experience (Tynjälä, 2008). While individual and group development is advocated, it is important to note that organisational success depends on the casual relationship that exists between the two. The researcher's definition of INSET is that; it is the professional development of employees by providing them with performance skills, knowledge and correct attitudes to perform their work better and consequently promote the culture of teaching and learning within the SAPS. The provision of performance tools, conducive working environment, adequate funding and learning styles all add value to the professional development of employees.

Christie, Butler and Potterton (2007) argue that INSET programmes are of critical importance because they move trainers forward, away from old-fashioned and outdated pre-service training and assist them to develop and improve their skills, knowledge and practical competencies. Byars and Rue (2000) agree that training and development involve the acquisition of knowledge, skills and abilities, such as the interpersonal and communication skills necessary to perform a job. The particular focus of the act is to improve the employment prospects of the previously disadvantaged persons through education and training (Van Dyk, Nel, Loedolff & Haasbroek, 2001).

Millie and Das (2008) agree with Lino that the dichotomy in policing involves that maintenance of a balance between the pressure to get things done and pressure to get things done correctly. It is common knowledge, nationally and internationally, that police training and development is currently a public concern, hence the outcry from Charles (2000) that it is critical in the police profession as elsewhere that law enforcement personnel learn how to think critically, conceptually, and creatively. This applies when confronted with situations needing analysis and when developing solutions to problems. They must also have the needed skills to learn from their experience.

In the final analysis, it must be taken into consideration while definitions of INSET may vary; INSET itself remains a central element. It provides for the individuals' and trainers' needs. It contributes immensely towards maintaining an active and vibrant corps of trainers and simultaneously improves the quality of education. In conclusion, the above discussion shows that although trainers undergo initial educator training courses, it is crucial that they receive various types of professional development training to update their qualities to remain useful in the teaching and learning process. Robinson and Latchem (2003) assert that for many unqualified trainers, in-service training may be the only training they receive and for others, pre-service education may well have been generally an extension of their secondary education with some study of education thrown in for good measure. This statement is also applicable to trainers in SAPS who are unqualified.

3.5 GUIDELINES FOR CONDUCTING INSET EFFECTIVELY

As asserted by the SAPS (2007c), teaching in all police agencies is of immense importance because it unequivocally influences service delivery. The training programmes should be specifically developed for adult learners. These should address the requirements for training, the funds for training and the needs-driven content of the training programme. This must be presented in a suitable and applicable way, with an excellent knowledge transfer from trainer to learner and into the workplace. The training methods to be used should be appropriate, mainly taking into account that the adult learners are grown-ups (ibid).

Indeed the entire success of the training programme depends on the effectiveness of the essential areas listed above (Scheepers, 2008). This is why it is vital that one recognises the following guidelines for realising effective in-service training, as presented by Molone (in Mathekga, 2005). According to Kgati (2013), people need time and assistance to grow and as such organisations, such as the SAPS, should assist employees to identify goals for improvement towards personal growth. Rao (2010) mentions that growth opportunities inspire employees towards peak performance. In this regard, the SAPS plays a vital role in bridging gaps between employees' expectations and organisational needs by adopting appropriate human resource strategies and practices. It is in this respect that the role of line managers in respective sections is essential in directing the strategic performance measures by individuals and groups of employees.

The literature presented above acknowledges the complexity of the provision of INSET programmes which assist both employees and the organisation. Extensive interrelated support between employees and the department is needed, and which should be attained through a framework of organisational development. From all of the above, it becomes quite clear that training and development is a very crucial element in the improvement process of the organisation's performance. This leads to an increase in the level of individual performance, which finally leads to organisational competence. Training, therefore, bridges the gap between what should happen and what is happening; the desired goals or standards and the actual level of performance. An organisation that therefore facilitates learning, growth and development of individual employees must have training as an integral part of its business strategy.

3.6 APPROACHES TO TRAINING

Ivancevich (2010) says training is an attempt to improve the current or future performance of an employee and it is essential for both new and current employees. He further states that training is a systematic process of altering the behaviour of employees in a direction that will achieve organisational goals. Training is related to present job skills and abilities. It has a current orientation and helps employees to master specific skills and abilities. The SAPS training division has a range of relevant

adult education training programmes. These programmes engage the adult learners from which to choose to effect the transformation that is necessary for the organisation.

3.6.1 Pre-service trainer training

Pre-service training serves only as a preparation for entry into the training and development profession for the duration of the training career. Robinson and Latchem (2003) highlight that INSET in South Africa requires an enabling policy framework that links pre-service education, training and development in a continuum of trainer development. Trainers in the SAPS undergo initial training preparation in education institutions before they begin their practical teaching occupation. In the SAPS, training is in line with what Robinson and Latchem (ibid) highlight regarding training and development in a continuum of trainer development. In the SAPS, the SAPS training and development strategy (2014/2018) guide training. The SAPS training strategy is an attempt to improve current or future employee performance by increasing an employee's ability to perform through learning, usually by changing the employee's attitude or increasing his or her skills and knowledge. The training strategy ensures that programmes which support the organisation's strategy are provided and that these are linked to the goals and objectives of the organisation (Werner & DeSimone, 2009).

On condition that experienced trainers provide such pre-service training-for-trainers opportunity, Levin and Rock (2003) assert that institutions will have an adequate personal development programme. Within the SAPS, employees who have specific experience, as well as the SAQA or Safety and Security, Sector Education and Training Authority (SASSETA) qualifications, are assigned as full or part-time trainers (SAPS, 2007:4).

Korthagen et al., (2001) explain that pre-service training provides the trainer with the requisite knowledge and skills to begin a career but cannot equip the adult trainer for life. Trainers will have to develop their academic skills on their own. They have to use their initiative to prepare for class or to conduct independent research. They also need

to continue supporting their adult learners after regular office hours, show more collegiality and rely less on instruction to obtain cooperation among fellow trainers.

3.6.2 In-service training

According to Nel, Werner, Haasbroek, Poisat, Sono and Schultz (2010), training serves a dual role in that it helps management meet its human resources requirements, while at the same time increasing the market value or marketability of those being trained. Van der Westhuizen and Wessels (2011) emphasise that training interventions are usually identified and scheduled in a coordinated manner. According to Ryan and Cooper (2010), HRD is a theory that encompasses the efforts of both employees, the organisation and its departments, so that individual employees improve their skills and competencies. In this regard, employees' workplaces must become 'learning organisations', where the set goals and priorities are driven by the desire to assist them to get past their performance barriers and see them in pursuit of knowledge and expertise (Bluestein, 2010).

Employees' training plays an essential role as it enhances the efficiency of an organisation and helps employees to boost their performance efficiently. Many reasons create the barriers to perform the task such as organisational culture and politics. Some of the employees have a lack of skills, abilities, knowledge and competencies due to this they fail to accomplish tasks on a timely basis (Zuhair Abbas, 2014). Skilled employees can handle the critical situation in a well organised manner. Training empowers employees to meet their existing job requirements. Training may also help employees to increase their productivity and meet their future responsibilities. Zohair Abbas (2014) highlights training as an essential element to an employee for the development of the companies because some of the employees have a lack of knowledge skills and competencies; hence, they fail to accomplish tasks on a timely basis. Appiah (2010) suggests that training enhances knowledge, skills, attributes, competencies, ultimately worker performance, and productivity in the organisation.

Swanson and Holton (2009) define Human Resource Development (HRD) as a process of developing and unleashing expertise to improve individual, teamwork

process, and organisational system performance. HRD can also be defined as all of the processes, methods, systems, procedures and programmes an organisation can employ to develop its human resources (Meyer, 2007). In this regard, HRD encompasses both training and non-training interventions, which can be continuous and often applied daily. For Swanepoel, Erasmus and Schenk (2008), the main focus of HRD is learning with its main aim being to attain the objectives of both the organisation and the individual. In this regard, development takes place over time with the emphasis on learning, development and training opportunities to improve individual, team and organisational performance.

The emphasis is also made in that the contents of these training interventions are updated continuously to make provision for the changing needs of the particular institution. Therefore, training and development interventions are part of the process of transforming an individual employee into a professional. The South African Police Service has training interventions that are determined by the divisional commissioner from time to time. Education, training and development institutions within the organisation (SAPS, 2007:15) may implement it. The training in the SAPS is offered in the form of learning or skills development or short courses. In most cases, the duration of the training programmes may vary depending on the nature of the training and its outcomes. The assessments of adult learners undergoing training or learning programmes ought also to be done as determined by the divisional commissioner for training (SAPS, 2007).

The most effective way to obtain and maintain maximum proficiency of officers is by adequate and continuous training (Chuda, 1995). It is also advised that personnel must be retrained for some reasons wherein different positions, new technology and new crime tendencies are but a few. This means that training is essential for officers to do their jobs. Attitude change, knowledge of abstract ideas and concepts and skills are developed through training. The enhancement and development of knowledge, skills and attitudes is the primary goal of all training, and this emphasises the importance of training. Officers can be leaders, and they can identify a career path through the right training.

As stated in chapter one, there is still a considerable number of unqualified and underqualified trainers in the SAPS division training and development (SAPS, 2007c) which is of concern as education, teaching and progress are essential to first-rate policing. Effective training gives officers self-confidence so that they “perform” many of the tasks expected of them by providing unambiguous instructions. This causes the officers to respond more consistently and automatically under emerging conditions. Because discretion is vital when police officers are operating in critical situations, for example arresting or shooting suspects, report writing and the like, the nature of their work means that they encounter a wide range of characters. Ongoing training is essential to the police service members to be able to do their work with excellence, and this is true across all positions within the SAPS.

According to Newman et al., (2009), there are significant benefits that an organisation can achieve regarding a committed workforce if training and development activities are encouraged by supervisors and managers. The need for training exists at every level of an organization; from entry-level all the way up to senior management. The need for training is also applicable to long-term employees and to employees who have just joined the SAPS, irrespective of their qualifications or positions in the organisation.

3.7 NEED FOR TRAINER TRAINING IN THE SAPS

The researcher argues that the professional development of a trainer is a process during which the forms of delivery are administratively, organizationally, conceptually and sequentially discrete. To enhance the professional status of the trainer effectively, the said trainers must commit themselves to INSET as part of their professional development and as an integral facet of their conditions of service. Training skills are mastered mainly through practical experience, without any specific training (Korthagen & Lagerwerf, 2001). In other words, the acquisition of teaching skills alone is no longer sufficient; it is now vital for the trainer to be more well-rounded (Robinson & Latchem, 2003). The statement is in line with the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service. Trainers need to be empowered for research modules that require fieldwork. Moreover, the power relationship that is inherent in the trainer-trainee relationship needs careful

consideration as power discrepancies may negatively affect the trainee's progress (Frick et al., 2010).

In practice, within the SAPS, a trainer's role is primarily concerned with actual direct training. It is a role that involves the trainer in helping people to learn, providing feedback about their learning and adopting course designs to meet trainees' needs. The trainer's role may involve classroom teaching and instruction, laboratory work, small group work, supervision of individual project work and all those activities that directly influence direct learning experiences. In effect, the trainer is a learning specialist (SAPS, 2007).

3.7.1 Role of the trainer in training and learning

The SAPS Education and Development Policy Framework (2007) guides trainers in the SAPS. The above requirements are adhered to in the training environment. The trainers' purpose is to improve employee performance on a currently held job or one related to it. Nel, Gerber, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner (2001), view education as those "activities directed at providing the knowledge, skills, moral values, and understanding required in the normal course of life." Education focusses on a broad range of activities rather than on providing specific knowledge and skills for a limited field or activity. It may include the development of sound reasoning processes to enhance one's ability to understand and interpret knowledge. From a policing perspective, Engelbrecht, Oswald and Forlin (2006) elaborate that education may be viewed as a process with the prime purpose of imparting knowledge and developing the way mental faculties are used to provide a general foundation that prepares the individual for life.

3.8 THE IMPACT OF TRAINING ON ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Both theoretical and empirical studies have shown that training can influence performance, at both organisational and individual levels. As the global economy shifts from the industrial era to one that is becoming increasingly based on knowledge (Bassi, Ludwig, McMurrer & Burren, 2002), employee knowledge and skills have become more critical to the performance and competitiveness of an organisation

(Theranou, Saks & Moore, 2007). This is the premise for the substantial increase witnessed in employee training among organisations. Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) postulate that organisations make these training investments with the expectation that it will lead to an improvement in organisational performance.

The relevance of training to a workforce cannot be over-emphasised. Thang et al., (2010) state that training affects employee outcomes such as skills, knowledge, behaviours, attitudes and employees' motivation. Consequently, it is these employee outcomes that have a direct impact on organisational performance such as productivity, profit, increased sales and market share, reduced labour turnover, as well as absenteeism. Newman et al., (2009) propose that a proper way to evaluate training would be to appraise its relationship with organisational commitment. Given this, several researchers in the field of training have tried to emphasise the benefits of training in the performance of an organisation. To equip employees with the skills necessary to do their jobs and to optimise employee potential, there is a need for organisations to train their employees (Sahindis & Bouris, 2008). According to Newman, Thanacoody and Hui (2009), employees perceive the provision of training by an organisation as the organisation seeking to go into a social exchange with them. This creates a strong psychological bond between the employee and the employer. Training is viewed as a tool for eliciting and altering desired responses from employees (Ivancevich, 2007), which may include organisational commitment. Employees exposed to more training opportunities are more likely to exhibit higher levels of organisational commitment (Anvari, Amin, Ismail & Ahmad, 2010).

However, despite several studies and findings concerning the benefits of training and its effect on employee outcomes, there is a whole new body of emerging literature contesting the benefits organisations derive from employee training in this era of intense employee mobility (Sahindis & Bouris, 2008:68). Employers are more often confronted with the challenge of employees using training acquired to increase personal market value and employment opportunities at the expense of the organisation (Sahindis & Bouris 2008:68; Bowra, Sharif & Niazi, 2011). According to Tharenou, Alan and Celia (2007), the goal of training is to enhance the organisation's effectiveness. It also demands an influence on employee's performance, as well as in relation to organisational performance, which is mediated using the employee's

performance. Aguinis and Kraiger (2009) say that training improves the overall organisation's profitability, effectiveness, productivity, and revenue and other outcomes that are directly related to training in improving the quality of services.

Thang and Drik (2008) argue that human resources determine the success of the organisation, probably not physical resources. It is highly endorsed to increase the organisation's investments in training to offer superior expertise, knowledge and features about employees rather than their competitors' relationship between training and organisational performance. ALDamoe, Yazam and Ahmed (2012), claim that organisational performance is measured through financial and non-financial measures, quality of service, the productivity of the organisation, the satisfaction of employees and commitment. These factors can increase through training. Olaniyan and Lucas (2008), believe that training enhances the employees' capacity to contribute optimal performance to the organisation.

According to Thang, Quang and Buyens (2010), there is an increasing awareness in organisations that training can enhance organisational performance regarding productivity, increased sales, market share and a reduction in labour turnover, absenteeism and conflict. Despite this awareness, organisations are sometimes reluctant to train. This could be due to a lack of evidence of the value training has created for the organisation (Caudron, 2002). However, Bassi, Ludwig, McMurrer and Van Buren (2002) argue that investment in training may require some time to translate into productivity gains, as it might take time for employees to respond to the new acquired skills.

3.9 TRAINING ON IMPROVING THE PERFORMANCE OF EMPLOYEES

In the real world, organisational growth and development are influenced by some factors. In light of the present research during the development of organisations, employee training plays a vital role in improving performance as well as increasing productivity. This, in turn, leads to placing organisations in better positions to face competition and stay at the top. This, therefore, implies the existence of a significant difference between the organisations that train their employees and organisations that do not. Training has been proved to generate performance improvement related

benefits for the employee as well as for the organisation by positively influencing employee performance through the development of employee knowledge, skills, ability, competencies and behaviour (Appiah, 2010).

Training is considered as the process of improving the existing skills, knowledge, exposure, and abilities in an individual. According to Saleem and Mehwish (2011), training is an organised increase from the know-how skills and sensations needed for staff members to efficiently execute the offered. Moreover, it also enhances the capabilities of a panel of employees in convenient ways by motivating them and transforming them into well organised and well-mannered workers, that ultimately affects the performance of the organisation. Laing (2009), defines training as an indicator to enhance superior skills, knowledge, capabilities and outlook of the employees that results in the effective performance of the workers. However, he adds one more thing that training extends the production of the organisation. Massod (2010), argues that training is an active means to enable the individual to make use of his capability and his potential capability.

According to Brum (2007), training is the strategy to improve the employee's determination towards organisational performance. Akhtar, Ali, Sadaqat and Hafeez (2011), discovered that training has a positive association between motivations along with job engagement involving personnel doing work in organisations. Muzaffar, Salamat and Ali (2012), indicate that to increase the employee's performance; it is crucial to inspire the employees by means of satisfying the space in between skills necessary and the owned or operated staff through delivering appropriate training. Training is essential and a crucial tool for the organisation to revamp the performance of all the personnel for organisational growth and success. It is beneficial to both employers and employees. Alternatively, development refers to systematic efforts affecting individuals' knowledge or skills for purposes of personal growth or future jobs or roles (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009).

It has mainly been argued in the literature that training helps employees improve their efficiency in their current job role and helps them to perform to a standard that enables the organisation to gain a competitive advantage in its market (Dumas & Hanchane, 2010). According to McDowall and Saunders (2010), training is a focused and time-

framed activity that helps build more interpersonal and organisational skills. Training also changes behaviours that could lead to improved individual, team, and organisational performance. A large number of studies have shown that training has a positive impact on the employee's job performance (Awang et al., 2010).

Although the above literature provides evidence regarding the benefits of training and its positive influence on employee performance, Cheramie, Sturman and Walsh (2007), argue that management mostly feels hesitant while investing in its human resource due to various reasons. Noe (2008) and Qayyum, Sharif, Ahmad, Khan and Qayyum (2012), suggest that it is an organisation's management responsibility to facilitate the workforce through training and development to remain competitive in their profession. They support their argument by saying that allocating resources and funds for training the employees, is in the very interest of the organisation as it has a positive effect on productivity. As highlighted in the literature review section, there is a relationship between training and developing employees in their job performance.

3.10 IMPACT OF TRAINING ON HUMAN RESOURCE OUTCOMES

Human Resource outcomes of training can be classified as including employee attitudes, employee behaviour and human capital such as skills, knowledge and competencies (Tharenou, Saks & Moore, 2007). Employee training is assumed to have a direct effect on the skills, knowledge, attitude and behaviour of employees, which affects their performance and, consequently, leads to enhanced performance (Thang, Quang & Buyens, 2010). Bartlett (2001), suggests that given the challenges associated with measuring performance, a more productive way would be to examine the relationship between training and desired workplace attitude. Sahinidis and Bouris (2008) establish that a significant correlation exists between training and employee attitudes such as commitment, job satisfaction and motivation. However, the behaviour, which has most frequently been measured in the SAPS to assess the impact of training, is labour turnover or retention as supported by Theranou et al., (2007).

Theranou et al., (2007) state that the majority of the studies reviewed on training have demonstrated that training is positively related to lower turnover and higher retention.

Training has also been positively linked to organisational citizenship behaviour, which leads to the effective and efficient functioning of the organisation (Ahmad, 2011). Employees who participate in formal training are less likely to engage in neglectful behaviour and less likely to consider leaving their employer (Pajo, Coetzer & Guenole, 2010). Organisations that train more have employees with more operational skills and competencies (Theranou et al., 2007) as well as employees who are more committed to the organisation (Bartlett & Kang, 2004).

3.11 INSET AS A METHOD FOR RESTORING PROFESSIONALISM AMONG TRAINERS

Sockett (1993) makes an appropriate, accurate, distinction between two aspects of professionalism as applied to trainers. It is those who have a solid grasp of subject knowledge and those who have the instructive knowledge and skills to educate adult learners. He believes that the latter pedagogical knowledge extends beyond subject knowledge to include an awareness of the teaching context. Formal learning in an institution establishes the foundation for programmes and advances attitudes and beliefs, knowledge, skills and behaviour through experiences. Career development, post-qualification INSET training, however, act as motivators leading to both personal and organisational benefits (Van der Waldt, 2004). Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) submit that effective and high-quality in-service training available to all training staff, harmonise the education system, and will significantly improve the quality of teaching and learning outcomes. Botha et al., (2007) further emphasise this by stating that training is the specific way to facilitate learning in an institution.

The public sector also has recognised the significance of in-service training. However, it is crucial that the value of training should not be based on filling the skills gaps. Nonetheless, it should preferably primarily focus on ensuring that the skills levels are sustained in line with the organisation's core strategic objectives (Van der Waldt, 2004). Training increases productivity because the new skill that the employee requires to perform the job is acquired through training. Therefore, once the skill level of the employees has been increased, the quantity and quality of the output will also likely increase. Training does not only focus on improving the skills and knowledge of new employees but also enhances existing employees' performance in their current

job assignments and prepares them for future challenges (Sharma & Kurukshetra, 2013).

Training and development are all about investment in human capital. According to Erasmus et al., (2010), the lack of investment in human resources has a negative impact on employees. Given this situation, the following trends may be noticed: low productivity, older staff members becoming redundant, high staff turnover and fear of technological advancement. A combination of these may lead to an illiterate workforce within the organisation. DeCenzo and Robbins (2010) are of the view that equal training opportunities must exist for all the employees of an organisation, as training programmes may be required for the next promotion within the organisation. In the SAPS training of managers, officers and administrative personnel are the responsibility of the Skills Development Facilitators (SDF). All provincial personnel, stations and units have an SDF to ensure that all members attend training programmes impartially regarding the skills audit of the organisation. The trainers or facilitators have to be suitably accredited by the Education, Training and Development Practitioner's (ETDPs) requirements (SAPS, 2007c).

Well-trained employees typically require minimal supervision. It does not, however, eliminate the requirement for supervision. However, well-trained employees will be aware of their strengths. They could be self-sufficient and reliable because they know what to do and what is expected of them. Well-trained employees always put their best efforts into contributing towards the advancement of the organisation regarding Sharma and Kurukshetra (2013). In addition, through the proper and adequate training of employees, management can identify the employees with specialised skills. They can be groomed for handling positions of responsibility in the future. Cox et al., (2014) argue that police officers can never receive enough training.

The researcher argues that training is a career-long commitment because of the continually changing world within which the police officers must respond. Officers are not merely told about the risks they face. They are shown painfully vivid, heart-wrenching dash-cam footage of officers being beaten, disarmed, or gunned down after a moment of inattention or hesitation. They are told that the primary culprit is not the felon on the video, but the officer's lack of vigilance. Moreover, as they listen to

the fallen officer's last, desperate radio calls for help, every cop in the room is thinking the same thing: "I will not ever let that happen to me." That is the point of the training.

Advances in technology, including crime analysis and forensics as well as the increased use of computers, indicate the urgent need for training at all levels of policing to empower staff in these critical techniques. Scheepers (2008), Dempsey and Forst (2010) and Cox et al., (2014) all emphasise that in-service training must be used to update the skills and knowledge base of police officers to keep up with the rapidly changing laws and developments in policing.

3.12 THE INSET MODEL

Sound theoretical knowledge of the INSET models could contribute towards the achievement of training objectives by trainers. It is for this reason that INSET models, which bear relevance to this study will now be discussed. Charles (2000) explains that training models that can be applied in the police service are the military, quasi-military and non-military training. Within a military environment, the armed forces are in command and within that controlled setting standing at attention, saluting superiors, shouted drills, forced exercise, unquestioning obedience to orders and punishment for misdemeanours is expected (Charles, 2000). It is a harsh hierarchical environment where control is the ultimate aim of the superiors and no creative thinking, teaching or decision-making takes place.

A quasi-military environment is a recruit training facility where discipline is taught via intimidation, bullying and fear (Charles, 2000). Before 1994, all SAPS training was conducted in this manner. It had the advantage of delivering disciplined police officials placed at stations who performed their duties according to orders given and without any questions asked. The disadvantage was that police officials could not think for themselves and could make irreparable mistakes on their duties. In addition, no community policing took place, which caused the public to distrust the SAPS (Rauch, 1992).

Now, with the new democratic dispensation of the country, both the military and quasi-military approaches are unacceptable and cause huge problems if administered. The

quasi-military environment is comparable to a boot camp for straightening out young offenders. Discipline is taught through intimidation, punishment requiring physical exertion, demeaning behaviour by instructors towards recruits and a traditional approach to teaching. It is required of them to do only what they are told to do. Recruits are not treated as responsible adults, and physical exercise is used as a form of punishment (Charles, 2000).

There are several approaches to INSET provisioning worldwide. An alternative view is that of Pather (1995) who considers the philosophy underlying professional development and the context guiding its planning and implementation. He classifies INSET models into five (5) categories, namely: job-embedded, where the emphasis is on actual performance in the classroom. Another one is job-related, where INSET is closely related to the job but does not take place while teaching is going on. There is also a general professional, which consists of experiences to improve general competence rather than more specific needs and career credentials, which assists with preparing for a new role or obtaining a new credential. Lastly, there is the personal model, which facilitates personal development. Sound theoretical knowledge of INSET models and approaches can also ensure the more effective management of INSET. Two of the models of INSET from the international comparative study that has relevance to this research will now be briefly summarised as follows:

3.12.1 The traditional INSET model

The traditional In-Service Training (INSET) model comprises courses that are pertinent to the SAPS' training provisioning plan, their object being to explain syllabus changes and changes in an institution's organisation. Organised as lectures or workshops, this model includes once-off courses that are regarded to have certain limitations. The researcher states that this model is in use in the SAPS. It is important to remember when tackling problems that the amenities, resources, qualifications and skills of the trainers will all vary between the training complexes.

3.12.2 Assumptions of the deficit model

The deficit model, a term initially coined by science studies' scholar Brian Wynne (1995), refers to approaches to science and engineering communication and outreach that are based on the belief that the public is critical and not interested in science and engineering. Bucci and Neresini (2008) explain that this model has emphasised the public's inability to understand and appreciate the achievements of science, owing to prejudicial public hostility and misrepresentation by the mass media. They have adopted a narrow, pedagogical and paternalistic view of communication to argue that the quantity and quality of the public communication of science should be improved (ibid).

Some of the features of the military model have been retained in the non-military model, which the police service has adopted including weapons training and drills. However, the overall feel is more relaxed and creates an environment better suited to adult learners. This improves police training and allows the police officers to learn and work to their full potential, according to Scheepers (2008). Since 1994, the SAPS has turned into a more service-oriented organisation, and community policing has been initiated (ibid). Charles (2000) concurs and indicates that these softer training environments lead the police personnel to grow in self-assurance, accountability and decision-making.

Other relevant factors such as ideology, social identity, trust, culture, and worldviews should be taken into consideration largely. The researcher argues that explanations based on the proposed factors sometimes implicitly reintroduce the deficit model type of thinking. The strength of the factors is that they broaden the explanations to concern moral issues that are the central argument types and show the central role of moral values. Thus, as long as arguments are seen to affect the attitudes of the general public, the role of moral values should be made explicit in the explanations concerning their attitudes.

Nevertheless, the problems of the deficit model do not imply that the level of knowledge is entirely irrelevant or that it has no effect on attitudes. Thus, an excellent critique of the deficit model consists of claiming that ignorance has been given too

significant a role in explanations concerning the negative attitudes of the general public. Other relevant factors should largely be taken into consideration. Kahan et al., (2009) assert that the commonly proposed factors draw on ideology, social identity, trust, culture, economic factors, age, education, social and political values, risk perception, and worldviews of the general public. The basic idea then is that these many factors together with the level of knowledge, form a sufficient explanation for the attitudes of the general public.

3.13 THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A CULTURE OF TRAINING AND LEARNING

The most significant challenges facing training establishments today are to establish and manage a learning culture that will create ideal conditions with specific reference to the SAPS. These establishments must be healthy and physically safe places where trainers can teach adult learners. Peters (2008) points out that training and learning have changed radically over the past forty years. A culture of training and learning refers to the attitude of trainers and adult learners towards teaching and learning. It also refers to the spirit of dedication and commitment in a training centre, which arises through the effect of centre management and the input of trainers. The personal characteristics of adult learners, factors in the family life of adult learners, and work-related and societal factors are also included (Calitz, Fuglestad & Lillejord, 2002). Calitz, Fuglestad and Lillejord (ibid), further explain that a culture of training and learning is the way things are done (ibid) in training centres during the situation of training and learning. Professionalism, with its emphasis on impartiality, accountability, specialised knowledge and ethical standards, offers an alternative set of values and ways of thinking to replace that of the current police culture (Trovato, 2008).

According to Hallenberg (2012), academic education plays a vital role in the cultural change of the police service. It will, however, be difficult to change the perceptions and scepticism of police officers and the current police culture where the police are more concerned with decision-making and management of practical tasks, as opposed to academic education that focuses on analysis and broadening one's perspective (Paterson, 2011). Hallenberg (ibid) remarks that in the past, training expectations were restricted to presenting programmed lessons with answer keys

and objective tests accompanying textbooks. This made it possible for trainers to execute their various responsibilities efficiently (ibid). About educating the adult learner, the contact and cooperation between the adult learner and trainer should take the form of a partnership. The only practical way to unite the tasks of these adult learners is to consider them as partners in creating a culture of learning in an environment that is conducive to learning and training.

3.13.1 Culture of training and learning

According to Wiewiora, Murphy, Trigunarsyah and Brown (2014), culture influences the transfer of knowledge, which could mean that for HRD to be successful, the organisation needs to ensure that its culture is supportive of its HRD. Adequate training and learning occur through the application of a whole range of approaches from a formal didactical approach, content-accented to an experimental approach according to Nieman and Monyai (2011). Mohlamme (2001), describes training as a systematic and planned process to change the knowledge, skills and behaviour of employees in such a way that organisational objectives are achieved. A culture of learning and training, as defined by Calitz, Fuglestad and Lillejord (2002), is the approach of the trainers and adult learners towards the learning and training. An attitude of commitment and enthusiasm in a training institution arises when the trainers, adult learners and management all display integrity and dedication.

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003), contend that the primary goals of a training establishment with effective teaching or training are to teach adult learners values and proper conduct and to promote consistent discipline. However, Joubert (2003) asserts that the goals of a training establishment with a good culture of training and learning are not always fulfilled due to structural factors in the training establishment environment, such as large classes and the lack of individual attention.

3.13.2 Culture of training and moral dimension

According to Van der Horst and McDonald (1997), every trainer hopes that his or her training will lead to changes in the adult learners' behaviour and attitude. However,

some changes in this regard will occur only if the lesson material is assimilated and mastered by the adult learners. The training aims to improve current work skills and behaviour, whereas development aims to increase abilities about some future position or job, usually a managerial one (Dowling & Welch, 2004). The most difficult problem with which training centres have to grapple with is forming an encouraging ethos that is favourable to training and learning (Lethoko, Heystek & Maree, 2001). Merriam and Mohammed (2000), point out that the culture of a society is the glue that holds members together through aspects such as dress, values, beliefs, aspirations and challenges, among others. Van der Westhuizen (2002), views culture as the total of inherited ideas, values, beliefs and knowledge that determines a social structure and motivates people to enhance and cultivate traditions. Busher (2006), advises that organisational culture well serves some functions. These include giving meaning to human behaviour, generating shared values and assumptions, and ensuring consistency of action among members of a group (ibid).

Thomas (2000), advises that research on teaching as a culture should be perceived in the context of improving trainers' quality by providing better opportunities for trainer development. Davis (2006), notes that the culture of the educational organisation shapes and moulds assumptions that are basic to understanding what it means to be a trainer. The culture informs the trainers as to what it means to teach, what teaching methods are available and approved for use, what adult learners are like, what is possible and what is not. The culture also plays a significant role in defining the trainers' commitment to the task; it evokes the energy of the trainers to perform the task and secures their loyalty and commitment to the organisation and its ideals.

3.14 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the role of INSET was addressed. It is apparent from the discussion of definitions of INSET that there is no unanimity about the definitions, underlying assumptions or focus regarding INSET. In effect, INSET should not merely be a reaction to an educational predicament. INSET most certainly holds trainer power issues: the trainer is the 'custodian' and 'gatekeeper' of learning and is the only one who can articulate severe and forceful changes in the lecture room. INSET is provided to ensure that the personal needs and aspirations of trainers may be met as well as

those of the system in which they serve. INSET is provided to ensure that both the trainers and the adult learners have their ambitions met. Without a doubt, training is an essential interventionist strategy and an important technique to facilitate the development of knowledge, skills and the competence of employees in the workplace. In the following chapter, the research design and methodology of this empirical study are discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 focused on the literature which was reviewed with the specific intent to identify how the levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service (SAPS) could be improved. This chapter aims to describe the research design and methods used in the study. It also aims to provide an explanation as to why the selected methods were appropriate for gathering the information needed to answer the questions emanating from the research problem. This chapter also pays particular attention to the research strategy, the qualitative research approach, the population, the sample size, the sampling procedure, the data collection techniques as well as the data analysis and interpretation.

The research design, data-collection methods, such as interviews, open-ended questionnaires and focus group discussions were discussed. Methods used to select the sample of participants for this study were also discussed. This is followed by an analysis of the target population, the sampling technique and sample size. The processes about data collection, interpretation and analysis are described. The chapter is concluded with an exposition of the ethical principles adhered to during the study.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The study, therefore, leans towards a combination of explorative and descriptive approaches, rather than being explanatory or correlational. The exploratory design is the means to understand and gain insight into a situation, community, individual or phenomena under study (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delpont, 2012). Yin (2009) proposes a “case study design in an empirical inquiry which investigates a phenomenon in its real-life context”. For this inquiry, the qualitative case study was utilised to find answers to the main research question and the sub-questions. The qualitative case study was utilised as it fitted the description by Yin (2009) and sought, in this descriptive study, to understand and describe the experiences of trainers and manager in the SAPS.

The exploratory design was used to gain insight and understanding of the phenomena under study. The design assisted the researcher by posing probing questions based on the interview guide. According to Burns and Grove (2011), the descriptive study is designed to gain more information about the characteristics of a particular field of study. Its purpose is to provide a picture of a situation as it naturally occurs. In this study, the researcher obtained in-depth, rich information from the trainers and middle managers. This descriptive information, in conjunction with the answers revealed by the exploratory interview process, makes for a thorough investigative process and a reliable piece of research.

The research design was applied so that suitable research methods were used to ensure the attainment of the goals and objectives set out in chapter one, thus the rationale for a discussion of the research design and methodology. The research design serves as a plan for the execution of the study. Cooper and Schindler (2014), define a research design as a plan and structure of investigation aimed at obtaining answers to research. The author further argues that it is a blueprint for fulfilling the objectives and answering the research question. Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2008), define a research design as the plan and structure of investigation concerned with obtaining answers to the research question. This plan is regarded as the overall scheme of the research, which includes the outline of what the investigator intends doing from writing the hypotheses and their operational implications for the final analysis of data. This enabled the researcher to anticipate the appropriate research design, to ensure the validity of the final results.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

4.3.1 Qualitative research paradigm

The researcher's purpose determined the nature and scope of the settings including the groups that yielded the most insights. Schram (2003), explains that a qualitative researcher operates from the belief that all constructs are equally important and valid when undertaking a qualitative study.

The research design also involved a qualitative research paradigm in that it emphasised the importance of exploring how the different stakeholders in a social setting constructed their beliefs and expressed their feelings (Check & Schutt, 2012). The researcher placed particular emphasis on understanding the participants' responses, analysing them within their social setting in respect to the central question. The research question was, how could the levels of professionalism by trainers within the South African Police Service be improved? The researcher achieved this through the process of face-to-face interviews and focus group interviews conducted by the researcher in the research setting (Check & Schutt, 2012).

4.3.2 Basic characteristics of a qualitative research design

Qualitative research is exploratory, and researchers use it to understand a topic or phenomenon in-depth (Creswell, 2009). The research study intends to meet the essential characteristics of a qualitative research study as stated by Creswell (ibid). In the order of importance, Creswell (ibid) states that it is usually conducted in natural settings. Natural settings such as classrooms, schools and sports fields are the overwhelming preference for qualitative studies. Data collection is in the field at the site where the participants experience the issue or problem under study. The researcher conducted the interviews, did the data collection and observed the behaviour of trainers. Hence, Welman and Krueger (1999) note that the phenomenologists are concerned with understanding social and psychological phenomena from the perspectives of the people involved. It is for this reason that the setting and the focus of the study were the police officers involved in training within the SAPS. Through the inductive data analysis, the researcher builds patterns, categories and themes from the bottom up by organising the data into increasingly more abstract units of information. This may be combined with a deductive approach in certain instances that are linked to concepts in the literature.

The research design for this study took all of the above-stated characteristics into account. Qualitative approaches have domains of inquiry with associated strengths and weaknesses. Hence, we deal with not only conceptual frameworks but also questions of epistemology, legitimacy, ethics, power relations and justification (Burman & Whelan, 2011). The researcher was conscious of these words of caution from Burman and

Whelan (ibid) and realised that all these factors in qualitative research ought to be acknowledged and navigated in this research practice.

4.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this section, the researcher deliberated on the selection of participants for the study and the methods used to collect data, including one-on-one interviews and focus group interviews. The research methodology is a strategy of enquiry, which moves from the underlying assumptions to the research design, and data collection (Myers, 2009). Leedy and Ormrod (2010) concur with Babbie and Mouton (2008), stating that the research methodology refers to the researcher's general approach to carrying out the research project. According to Domegan and Fleming (2007), qualitative research aims to explore and discover issues about the problem at hand, because very little is known about the problem. There is usually uncertainty about the dimensions and characteristics of the problem. It uses 'soft' data and gets 'rich' data'.

According to Myers (2009), qualitative research is designed to help researchers understand people and the social and cultural contexts within which they live. Such studies allow the complexities and differences of worlds-under-study to be explored and represented (Philip, 1998). Methodology refers to the ways of discovering knowledge, the systems and rules for conducting research. Mouton (2001), views research methodology as focusing on the research process and the kind of tools and procedures to be used. The point of departure was the specific data collection task, the individual steps during the research process, and the most objective procedures to be employed.

4.4.1 Study population

The population refers to the scope of possible subjects that could be included in the study (De Vos et al., 2011). The population of the study consisted of 21 participants who included senior management, middle management and trainers. This research was limited to members of the SAPS in the Northern Cape Province. Four districts were covered, namely Frances Baard District Municipality, John Taolo Gaetsewe District Municipality, Namakwa District Municipality and Pixley ka Seme District Municipality.

The researcher was satisfied with the proxy of the research group because all the participants were directly involved in training and development within the SAPS. Participants were purposively selected. The research sample refers to a selection of participants in a population that best represents the views and opinions of the population.

4.4.2 Purposeful sampling

According to Gall, Gall and Borg (2007), purposive sampling is a technique that is aimed at selecting a sample that is considered to be information-rich with regard to the purpose of the study. Robbins (2009), asserts that an appropriately selected sample is most likely to lead to an accurate display of the characteristics of the population being studied. A sample, according to Thamarasseri (2009), is a small proportion of a population selected for observation and analysis; and the process of selecting a sample from the population is called sampling.

A purposive sampling technique was used to select cases that were better positioned to provide the best information to meet the purpose of this study (Check & Schutt, 2012). The researcher had to do comprehensive work to determine the sample needed for this case study to generate meaningful results. Purposive sampling was used to identify senior managers, middle managers and trainers of the police service as they were regarded as having the knowledge and skills that could best fit the objectives of this study. In such an instance, the researcher handpicked the participants to be included in the sample by the relevance of data they could offer (Cohen et al., 2005).

4.5 DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES

Interviews and observations were selected as data collection methods suitable for qualitative research, based on Lodico, Spaulding and Voegtler (2006). These authors indicate that qualitative data are often gathered in the form of words, pictures, or both. These research tools, also known as data collection methods, produce data that allow for rich and thick descriptions of the phenomena being studied (Lodico et al., 2006). Data collection is a series of interrelated activities aimed at gathering useful information to answer emerging research questions, in order to meet the objectives of

this study (Letsoalo, 2007). Knowledge of data collection methods is essential for researchers so that they obtain standardised information from all participants in the sample of the study by administering the same instrument to all the participants. To yield data for the qualitative investigation, different measuring instruments were employed. Measuring instruments included various types of interviews using semi-structured questions (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). The following section provides details of the various data collection tools that were utilised in this study.

4.5.1 One-on-one interviews

Numerous authors have defined what an interview is. Some have shared views whereas others have opposing views. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011), an interview is a flexible tool for data collection that enables multi-sensory channels to be employed in the process. Semi-structured interview schedules were, therefore, used for both individual and focus group interviews. This enabled the researcher to prompt the interview participants since this technique enabled him to discuss issues at length with interviewees and made elaboration possible.

The researcher used one-on-one interviews in administering semi-structured interview schedules for the six senior managers at SAPS. It is important to note that one-on-one interview techniques may offer the opportunity to ask follow-up questions based on participants' responses to previous questions (Johnston & Vanderstoep, 2009). The researcher used a set of predetermined questions to engage the interviewees who were the main participants during the one-on-one interviews and did the probing on some of the responses for clarity where the need arose (See Appendix B). For this study, the structured part of the interview was developed according to the research objectives already stated in chapter one.

The role of the interviewer is a demanding one as he or she has to ask questions, record answers and keep the interview session exciting and worthwhile for the interviewees (Po Verma & Mallick, 1999). The interviewer also had to become adept at using the probe that is a follow-up technique that encourages the participant to elaborate further or clarify a point of discussion (Ruane, 2005). Recording of the responses was done through short notes, and audio recordings to save time after seeking consent from the

respective participants. This was after the researcher explained the purpose of the study to the participants and assured them of the confidentiality of their information.

4.5.1.1 Strength of qualitative interviews

Flick (1998), suggests that the interest in face-to-face, semi-structured interviews is linked to the expectation that the interviewed participants' viewpoints are more to be expressed than they would be in a non-face-to-face questionnaire. McMillan and Schumacher (1993) claim that qualitative research involves interviews that have open-ended questions, to obtain data from participants' meanings. This includes how individuals perceive their world and how they explain or make sense of the crucial events in their lives. In this research, qualitative interviews as described by Mouton (2001), were used to emphasise the relativism of culture, the active participation of the interviewer, and the importance of giving the interviewee a voice. One-on-one interview methods were, therefore, preferred to quantitative methods as they give intricate details of the qualitative phenomena. Macmillan and Schumacher (1993), maintain that qualitative research, commonly, presents facts in a narrative format.

Interviewers can reach sample size targets, and quotas can be adapted (Muijs, 2004). Leedy and Ormrod (2001), say that interviews yield the highest response rates. Unlike questionnaires, interviews allow the researcher the chance to evaluate the quality of the responses of the participants, and to observe if an item has not been adequately understood. It is aimed to reassure and encourage the participants to sufficiently provide an answer to an item (Walliman, 2001). During the interview, the researcher can present visual signs such as nods and smiles that can influence or motivate the participant to provide complete and reliable responses.

For this study, one-on-one, in-depth, semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions were conducted to elicit the views and opinions of the participants. In addition, the interviews enabled the researcher to obtain rich, descriptive data that would help him to understand the participants' construction of meanings and knowledge. The aim of qualitative research is to build a complete detailed description of the data. The researcher knows roughly in advance what he is looking for and the researcher is the data gathering instrument. The data is in the form of words, pictures or objects (Neill,

2007). The qualitative approach was aimed at gaining depth. It allowed for different views of the theme that was being studied and provided the participants with an open-ended way of presenting their views.

4.5.1.2 Semi-structured interviews – focus group interviews

A focus group is a qualitative research technique in the form of a group interview that relies on the interaction within the group to discuss a topic or topics supplied by the researcher. Further, it is aimed at yielding a collective instead of an individual view (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011). A distinct advantage of using focus groups is that they save time and money (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick (2008) maintain that focus groups are also useful in generating a rich understanding of participants' experiences and beliefs. Suhonen (2009: xii) posits that “a common approach in focus interviews is to invite a group of experts to discuss the research topic”. As defined by Aluusatari, Bickman and Brannen, Alasutari (2008), a focus group is understood to be a group of six to 10 participants, with an interviewer or moderator who asks questions about a particular topic. The authors continue to state that focus group interviews are in-depth group interviews consisting of relatively homogenous participants to provide information about topics that are specified by the researchers. In this study, the researcher invited the middle managers in division training and asked them to discuss their experiences and challenges regarding trainer professionalism in the SAPS. This pattern is suggested by Kreuger (1988), when mentioning that focus groups can be used at the preliminary or exploratory stages of a study. As explained above, in this study, focus groups were preceded by individual interviews.

4.5.1.3 The strength of focus group interviews

Focus group interviews provided the researcher with an opportunity to ask probing questions that lead to a clear understanding and insight on trainers' experiences, perceptions, feelings and understandings (Hatch, 2002), of the topic. By creating a social environment in which group members are stimulated by the perceptions and ideas of each other such as in focus groups, one could increase the quality and richness of data through a more effective strategy than during one-on-one interviewing (McMillan &

Schumacher, 1997). Mazibuko (2007), also notes that focus group interviews provide the researcher with insight on what to pursue further in individual interviews. Patton (2002), contends that focus group interviews enable participants to hear each other's responses and to make additional comments beyond their original responses. Focus group interviews have some advantages when used to collect qualitative data.

Polit et al. ,(2010), state that a significant advantage of a group format is the fact that the researcher effectively obtains the viewpoints of many individuals in a short period. They state that focus groups encourage participants to react to what is being said by other participants, thereby potentially creating a more productive or more profound expression of opinions. In addition, focus group interviews are usually stimulating to participants. Holloway and Wheeler (2010:127), concur that the ultimate goal for the researcher is to understand the reality of the participants, and not to make decisions about a specific issue or problem, although future actions may be determined by the findings of the focus group interviews. Focus group interviews were conducted with four middle managers (See Appendix C).

Polit et al., (2010), argue that focus group sessions are carefully planned discussions that take advantage of group dynamics for accessing rich information in an effective manner. Typically, the people selected for a group are reasonably homogeneous to promote reasonably healthy group dynamics. People usually feel more at ease expressing their views when they share a similar background with other group members. Therefore, when the general sample is diverse, it is usually best to organise focus groups for people with similar characteristics regarding race, ethnicity, age, gender or experience. This approach does not rely merely on the ideas of the researcher and a single participant. Instead, the members of the group generate new questions and answers through verbal interaction.

4.6 THE QUESTIONS

According to Stewart and Shamdasani (1990), the questions should grow directly from the research sub-questions that are presented in the study. The authors further suggest that when formulating an interview guide, the following principle should be taken into consideration. This principle orders that questions be ordered from the general to the

more specific and those questions of greater importance should be placed near the top of the guide. Those of a lesser significance should preferably be placed near the end. The researcher adhered to the above principles by asking open-ended questions and then probing further on the same issue (See Appendix B). In this study, the questions were in line with the main question and sub-questions posed in chapter one.

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Carpi and Egger (2011), state that data collection is the systematic recording of information, while data analysis involves working to uncover patterns and trends in data sets. Data interpretation involves explaining the patterns and trends. They further state that scientists interpret data based on their knowledge and experiences. Thus, different scientists can interpret the same data in different ways. By publishing their data and the techniques they used to analyse and interpret that data, scientists give the community the opportunity to both review the data and use it in future research (ibid). Analysis of data begins from the specific and builds towards general patterns, and the researcher's responsibility is to look for relationships among the different dimensions in the collected data (Johnson, Larry & Christensen, 2012). The fieldwork, observations and interviewing undertaken to collect data were followed by the interpretation of the data through the process of qualitative data analysis. Analysis of qualitative data is concerned with organising and working with the data, breaking them into manageable units, coding and synthesising them and searching for patterns.

For this study, the researcher used the content analysis method such as 'coding and categorisation' around central research questions. According to Bowen (2009), content analysis is defined as the process of organising information into codes and categories related to the central questions of research. Content analysis was deemed appropriate for this study as it allowed the researcher to transcribe interviews critically and then analyse them. The themes of the study were the expected levels of trainer professionalism, current levels of trainer professionalism and proposed improvements in the levels of professionalism within the SAPS. The categories were senior management, middle management and trainers.

The interview schedules also solicited comments from the participants, and these were also analysed qualitatively. After transcribing information from the tape recorder with the help of a qualitative expert, trainers' and knowledgeable persons' interviews, the answers for each question were put together; similarities were observed, and themes were worked out. The researcher then used the themes to make generalisations as well as to conclude.

4.8 PREPARING THE DATA FOR ANALYSIS

Data in this study were derived from the interviews with the participants. Audio-recorded data and field notes were transcribed. It was subsequently coded by the researcher and an independent expert in qualitative research after which consensus was reached during a meeting. The data from the interviews were transcribed verbatim after the researcher had listened to them several times from the audiotape, and then coded the findings. This was done after the researcher had read and reread the raw data from the interviews. Using the information from the transcripts and notes, the researcher then analysed the information from the participants' perspectives. After comparing data from the interviews and the notes, the researcher coded the data with the view of forming categories and sub-categories which were then used as headings and sub-heading when the researcher interpreted the data.

Qualitative analysts develop categories that are based on the scrutiny of actual data. Developing a high-quality category scheme involves the careful reading of the data, with an eye to identifying underlying concepts and clusters of concepts with the purpose of facilitating the coding process as explained by Polit et al., (2008). Data obtained in this study were structured into themes, sub-themes and categories (See Diagram 5.1).

4.9 MEASURES OF TRUSTWORTHINESS

4.9.1 Credibility

The researcher has 27 years' experience in the South African Police Service:14 years as a trainer and manager in division training, during which extensive knowledge and experience in respect of training and development were acquired. This background

was used to validate the data that were collected during the study. The researcher's past experiences, bias, prejudice and assumptions should be stated from the outset to provide an understanding of the researcher's position, approach and interpretations (Noble & Smith, 2015). There was no specific bias, prejudice or assumption relating to the research topic or research questions that could influence the approach, interpretations or findings of the researcher.

The topic was approached objectively, working with facts and information from the researcher's working environment, and the perspectives of participants. Member-checking was also used to ensure the credibility of the findings of the study. Participants were promised the provision of interview transcripts and the findings of the study after the interviews and feedback were obtained in respect of the accuracy and credibility thereof. Engagement with the data recordings and transcripts was done intensively to demonstrate clear links between the data and the interpretations. Anney (2014:276) defines credibility as "the confidence that can be placed in the research findings". In this study, the Hawthorne Effect may have had an effect on the integrity of the findings and is seen as a possible limitation of the study. The Hawthorne Effect is a phenomenon in which individuals alter their behaviour in response to being observed, and usually refers to positive changes. Workers participating in a study may have, for example, temporarily become more productive as a result of being observed.

4.9.2 Dependability

"Dependability seems more related to reliability" (DeVault, 2015). Dependability is a method that qualitative researchers use to show the consistency of findings. Qualitative researchers describe, in detail, the exact methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation. This is done so that the study can be auditable to describe the situation, and for future researchers to follow the study (Malakoff, 2012). Dependability refers to data stability over time and conditions, and there can be no credibility in the absence of dependability. The researcher made use of standard interview schedules to guide interviews with participants. Interviews were recorded, and participants' responses captured verbatim. The researcher transcribed the audiotape, and this was cross-checked with the field notes taken by the researcher. The purpose of this test was to show indications of stability and consistency in the process of inquiry. Care was taken

to ensure that the research process was logical, traceable, and documented reflexively by giving a detailed account of the research process.

4.9.3 Conformability

Conformability refers to the neutrality of the data, that is, the potential for congruence between two or more independent people about the data's accuracy, relevance or meaning (Polit & Beck, 2006). Researcher bias should be neutralised by using strategies such as triangulation and clarifying preferences the researcher might have had. A detailed audit trail of the research process, data collected, data analysis and the researcher's interpretations and conclusions are critical to meeting the requirement of confirmability (Given, 2008). To achieve this, the researcher used a research diary and maintained a proper audit trail of the entire research process. An audit process was implemented by working forward, as well as back through the research process, to ensure that the data and interpretations of the findings were sound and confirmed findings. The intention of the interpretation process was not to generalise findings to a population but to identify accepted principles and trends related to the research topic.

4.9.4 Transferability

According to DeVault (2015:1), "transferability is a generalisation of the study findings to other situations and contexts." Transferability refers to the extent to which findings from the data can be applied to other settings or groups and is thus similar to the concept of generalisability (Polit & Beck, 2006). It was also indicated that participants were experienced police officers who possess experience and knowledge in line with the training facilitation methods. To evaluate transferability, the researcher provided a dense description of the research process by giving exceptional details of all aspects observed. The trustworthiness of this research phase was ensured by applying the following criteria: credibility, dependability, confirming and transferability. The description of the qualitative research process of what was done; how it was done; and why it was done as well as adherence to the identified criteria for qualitative research, ensured the authenticity and trustworthiness of this research phase.

4.10 DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

4.10.1 Delimitations

According to Hofstee (2010), delimitations explain everything that the researcher is responsible for examining and detailing and that which the researcher is not responsible for investigating. They limit the scope of the study, leaving conclusions that are not applicable under certain circumstances. According to Collis and Hussey (2003:128), delineation refers to the particular area on which a study is focused. This research was limited to members of the SAPS in the Northern Cape Province and covered four districts, namely Frances Baard District Municipality, John Taolo Gaetsewe District Municipality, Namakwa District Municipality and Pixley ka Seme District Municipality. The reason for this delimitation is that 21 participants took part which included senior management, middle management and trainers. The researcher was satisfied with the proxy of the research group because all the participants were directly involved with training in SAPS. Participants were selected using non-probability sampling.

The study faced the following constraints: the busy schedules of the participants could have delayed the data collection process. Therefore, the researcher designed short interview schedules that were not time-consuming and participants were given space to choose the most suitable time for the interview sessions. The research sample included senior managers, middle managers and trainers in the SAPS. The expected cost of research was high as the sample was spread throughout the entire Northern Cape Province. It can be assumed that this study was valid for the specific industry in which it was conducted and could, therefore, only apply to the SAPS environment.

4.10.2 Limitations

Theoretically and practically, this research contributed to a sustainable research knowledge generating learning organisation and workplace practices. There were, however, some limitations. Limitations affect how the researcher can generalise the conclusions or how confident the researcher was restricted to the SAPS environment and included representation from all the institutes as well as from all levels within the

institutes. The fact that the study was conducted only in the Northern Cape Province is a limitation on its own because it is not representative of the country's nine provinces. The Northern Cape is only one province of the nine provinces in South Africa thus this study is not representative of the entire national SAPS. It is, therefore, understood that because the project was circumscribed and situated in a specific context, claims to generalisability of its findings would not be feasible. Marshall and Rossman (2011:252) however, argue that although no qualitative studies may be generalised in the statistical sense, their findings may be transferable. The study had a few significant limitations commonly seen in studies. The sample drawn for this study was restricted to the SAPS environment and included representation from all the institutes as well as from all levels within the institutes. The fact that the study was conducted only in the Northern Cape Province is a limitation on its own because it is not representative of the country's nine provinces or the whole of South Africa. The Northern Cape, is only one of the nine provinces in South Africa thus this study is not and cannot be seen to be representative of the entire national SAPS. It is, therefore, understood that because the project was circumscribed and situated in a specific context, claims to generalisability of its findings would not be feasible. Marshall and Rossman (2011) however, argue that although no qualitative studies may be generalised in the statistical sense, their findings may be transferable.

Constraints that limited the size of the sample were the duration of the study and the geographical area covered. The study was confined to a few senior managers, middle managers and trainers at the training centres. The limitations of this study relate to the fact that this was undertaken over a more extended period. Time is an essential factor in research and can affect research findings positively or negatively. To carry out comprehensive research on the issue, funding, just like time, is equally important in research. The researcher used personal resources to finance the research activities and was combining work with research.

The researcher also believes that the Hawthorne Effect may have an effect on the integrity of his findings. The Hawthorne Effect is referred to as the observer effect and is a type of reactivity in which individuals modify an aspect of their behaviour in response to their awareness of being observed. Reactivity is a phenomenon that occurs when individuals alter their performance or behaviour due to the awareness

that they are being observed. Literature and proven research are not very common, and while this could be a limitation, it may provide an opportunity to add value to the current body of knowledge.

4.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Welman and Kruger (2010:8) cite that, “the principles underlying research ethics are universal and concern issues such as honesty and respect for the rights of individuals.” Behaving ethically increases the chances of maintaining a positive relationship between the researcher and participants for the duration of the study (Burton, Brunrett & Jones, 2008). The study was conducted in accordance with the above principles as well as the SAPS Code of Conduct regarding matters of protocol. Accordingly, the researcher consistently adhered to the code of ethics that is prescribed at UNISA (UNISA, 2007), as well as the code of conduct as stipulated in Articles 70 and 71 of the Police Act (Act 68 of 1995). Also, due deference was paid “to the rights, needs, values and desires of all participants by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa” (Act 108 of 1996) (RSA, 1996). The names and identities of all participants were kept private and confidential. The participants were informed that they could withdraw from this study whenever they wished.

Therefore, appropriate steps were taken to adhere to strict ethical guidelines in order to uphold participants’ privacy, confidentiality, dignity, rights and anonymity. Given the preceding discussions, the following section describes how ethical issues in conducting this research were addressed.

i) Informed consent

The researcher informed the participants of the purpose, nature, data collection methods, and extent of the research before commencement. Further, the researcher explained to them their typical roles. In line with this, the researcher obtained their informed consent in writing in the format given in Appendix H.

ii) Harm and risk

In this research study, the researcher guaranteed that no participants were put in a situation where they could be harmed as a result of their participation; physically or psychologically as stated by Trochim (<http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/>).

iii) Honesty and trust

Adhering strictly to all the ethical guidelines serves as a standard on the honesty and trustworthiness of the data collected and the accompanying data analysis. The participants' dignity and feelings were respected at all times, and they were given the inherent dignity and respect they deserve. Their anonymity was guaranteed because of their willingness to voluntary participation.

iv) Privacy, confidentiality and anonymity

As the study included a test-retest reliability check, total anonymity was not possible. However, the researcher ensured that the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants would be maintained through the removal of any identifying characteristics before widespread dissemination of information. The researcher made it clear that the participants' names would not be used for any other purposes, nor would information be shared that reveals their identity in any way.

v) Voluntary participation

Despite all the precautions mentioned above, it was made clear to the participants that the research was only for academic purposes and their participation was entirely voluntary. No one was forced to participate.

Finally, the researcher presented letters of approval from the UNISA ethics committee (see Appendix A) and an approval letter from the SAPS management (see Appendix E). The reason for this was to ensure that the participants understood the purpose of the

study and that they were aware of their rights as participants in particular that they were voluntary participants in the research study.

4.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter captured the rationale and execution of the study. To this end, this chapter focused on providing an exposition of the qualitative design of the study. After that, the chapter concentrated on presenting a display of the study's qualitative design, whereby data were collected making use of one-on-interviews and focus group interviews. All attempts were made to ensure that the study complied with the requirements of a scientific research study by ensuring that a sound process was followed from the beginning to the end and that the ethical standards were adhered to. In the following chapter, the researcher offers the empirical data and a discussion thereof to explicate the meaning of such data about the study's research questions.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the presentation of findings, analysis and an interpretation of the qualitative data collected using the research techniques discussed in chapter four. The following data collection techniques were used:

- Interviews: These were utilised to collect data from senior managers and middle managers in SAPS who work at provincial training centres.
- Focus Group interviews: These were conducted to unearth the views of the trainers at the training centres under investigation.

The researcher in this study adopted a qualitative approach. Gill, Stewart, Treasurer and Chadwick (2008:192) believe that “qualitative methods, such as interviews, are believed to provide a 'deeper' understanding of social phenomena that would be obtained from purely quantitative methods, such as questionnaires”.

This study set out to explore one main question and three sub-questions to gain more insight into workplace trainer professionalism in the SAPS. The main question of the study was to identify how the levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service could be improved. The researcher intended to find the answer by asking the following sub-questions:

- What are the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service?
- What are the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Services?
- How could the levels of professionalism within the South African Police Service be improved?

This chapter, therefore, builds on the literature review in chapter two, the theoretical perspectives on trainer professionalism in the South African Police Service in Chapter 3. In-Service Education and Training (INSET) as a means to improve trainers' professionalism and chapter four, the research design and methodology of the study. Chapter five offers the integrated data that were collected through one-on-one and focus group interviews.

5.2 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

The demographic data of the participants who contributed to this study are presented hereunder. This is personal information that describes the participants. Knowledge of the participants' attributes made it possible for the researcher to draw informed conclusions and assumptions and to make recommendations on the involvement in adult learning. The biographical information enabled the researcher to compile a profile of the study population as well as to draw comparisons between different groups relevant to this study. The table below summarises the biographical data of the senior managers who participated in the study:

Table 5.1: Biographical data of sampled senior managers

DIMENSION	PARTICIPANTS
Gender	04= Males 02= Females
Qualifications	01= Master's Degree in Education and Training 03= Bachelor's Degree in Policing 02= Bachelor's Degree in Social Sciences
Expertise	03= 05 – 25 years 03= 26 – 30 years
Positions	02 = Provincial Heads of SAPS 04 = Section Heads

Table 5.1 shows the biographical data of the senior managers who participated in the interviews as well as reflecting the presentation of the participants at the sampled centre.

The qualifications of the participants show that one participant had a Master’s Degree in Education, three had Bachelor’s Degrees in Policing, and three had Bachelor’s Degrees in Social Science. The work experiences of the participants show that three participants had 30 years’ expertise in the police service. The other three participants had between five and 25 years working experience in the service. All six participants were in senior management positions; post level 12 and upwards. It was essential to include these participants in the study to obtain the perspective of senior management on continuing professional development as they were experienced in training.

Table 5.2: Biographical data of sampled middle managers and trainers

DIMENSION	PARTICIPANTS
Gender	08= Males 07= Females
Qualifications	05= Bachelor’s Degree in Policing 02= Bachelor’s Degree in Social Science 06= National Diploma in Policing 02= Matric
Expertise	09= 05 – 25 years 06= 26 – 30 years
Positions	04 = Sub-Section Heads of SAPS 01= Training Centre Commander 10 = Trainers

Twenty-one participants were selected from Post Level 7 and Post Level 14 for data collection using individual interviews and focus group interviews. For the focus group interviews, there were two separate groups, each made up of five middle managers and ten trainers (See Appendix C). These participants worked at the coalface, as it were, dealing with training at the centres, moulding and transforming the adult learners to become competent, current and active in their workplace.

Table 5:3 Research questions addressed by data themes

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	THEMES	SUB-CATEGORIES
What are the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service?	THEME 1: Expected levels of trainer professionalism	Senior management Middle management Trainers
What are the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Services?	THEME 2: Described current levels of trainer professionalism	Senior management Middle management Trainers
How could the levels of professionalism by trainers within the South African Police Service be improved?	THEME 3: Improving the levels of professionalism within the SAPS	Senior management Middle management Trainers

From the above questions, the themes emerged according to which all the participants expressed their views. Their opinions were later grouped into categories and sub-categories. The questions assisted the researcher to group the responses of participants into three themes, namely, expected levels of trainer professionalism, a description of current levels of trainer professionalism and improving levels of professionalism, all within the SAPS. The three questions were directed during the one-on-one conversations with participants as well as to the two focus group interview participants. Semi-structured questions were asked to allow the participants to give detailed, thoughtful, answers from their knowledge and their feelings and to boldly share their opinions on the subject with no sense of fear, reticence or retribution.

The collected data were analysed in a specific sequence. Firstly, a theme was introduced by clarifying the purpose of the enquiry. After the topic had been introduced, a synopsis of the participants' responses in each cluster, starting off with senior management, followed by the middle management and lastly the trainers was provided.

After each synopsis, selected verbatim quotes of all participants from the interviews were given to provide a more comprehensive insight into the analysed data.

5.3 EMPIRICAL DATA

The researcher used letters of the alphabet to represent the names of the participants. For example, the senior managers were coded SMP1, SMP2; the middle managers were coded as MMP1, MMP2 and forth and the trainers were coded as TP1, TP2, and so on. The information given above is crucial because it enriched the whole process of the research in the sense that the researcher was able to identify a trainer from the data that was harvested. This information also helped the researcher to distinguish data according to the demographic nature of the population. Findings are presented in the form of a discussion, with the evaluation and argument followed by word-for-word extracts from the participants' actual responses to support the analysis and interpretation and emphasise key points. The research findings are presented according to the participants' responses to the questions. It is worth noting that the questions were formulated to correspond with the research aims that the researcher hoped to accomplish and objectives of how he planned to reach the study's aims.

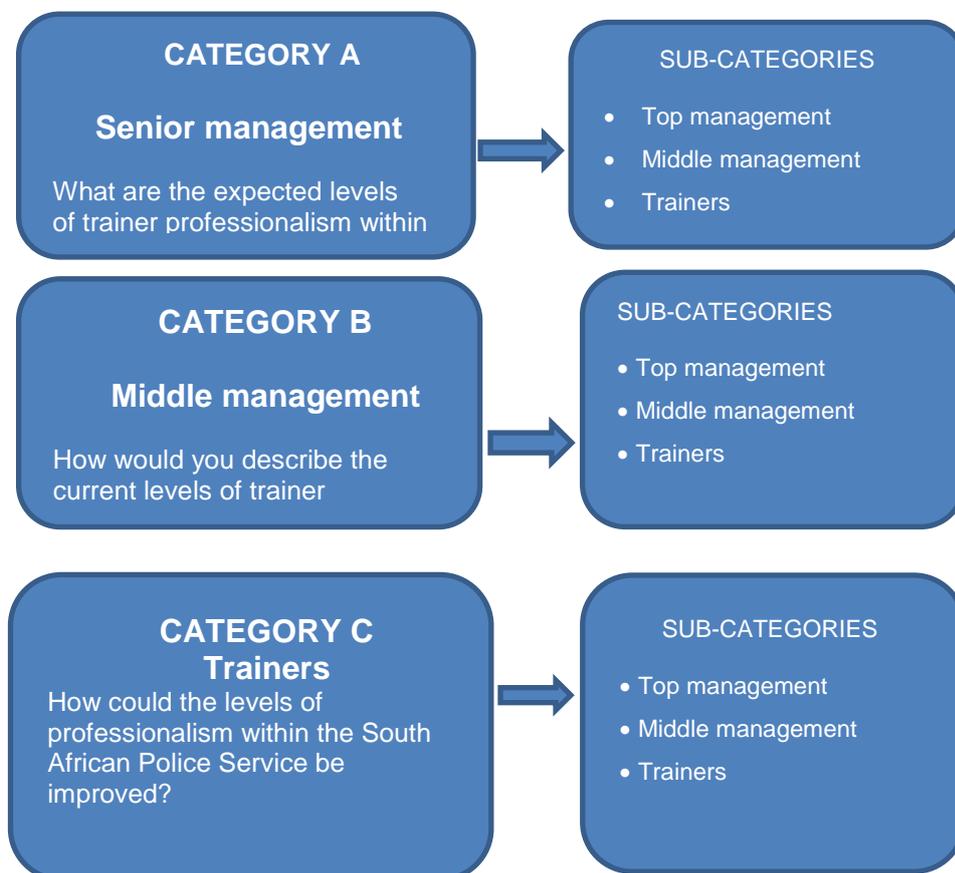


Diagram 5.1 Categories and themes transposed onto the data collected

After each synopsis, selected verbatim quotes of all participants from the interviews were given to provide a more comprehensive insight into the data being analysed. The views of the participants in respect of the themes, categories and sub-categories as set out in Diagram 5.1, are presented and analysed, using the constant comparative method. This approach provides for generating theories that clarify how one or more particular mechanisms of social groups are the size and are ideal for the purposes as the researcher requires robust theoretical features to emerge. The participants' verbatim responses have been typed in italics, and the researcher did not do any alterations as they were transcribed verbatim. This process included all the extraneous sounds such as "Ummm", "ah", that occur in free speech, because those sounds give greater insight into what the participants were feeling and what they meant.

5.4 THEME 1: Expected, accepted or anticipated levels of trainer professionalism

This theme gives responses to sub-question 1: What are the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service? This sub-question was formulated in chapter one.

5.4.1 Category A: Senior management

Data from one-on-one interviews as explained, a total of six senior managers' responses are presented below.

SMP1: was a senior manager who had 27 years of experience in the SAPS, confidently regarded himself as a consultant in the SAPS and contended that he was continually providing support and solutions to workplace problems in the workroom. SMP1 had more years of experience than other managers in the workplace. He based his consultant identity on his vast experience and intimate knowledge of different aspects of a lifelong vocation in the SAPS, which meant that he was both skilled and capable. SMP1 explained that he was both a professional police officer and an academic because of his involvement in presenting leadership courses, research methodology classes and supervising senior police officers in research projects. SMP1, therefore, associated the

activity of teaching and supervising research with being an academic. SMP1 had high expectations of trainer professionalism and further remarked that:

*...a professional trainer is a person who is better-educated, highly-trained, rule-oriented and is equated with the professionalism of a police officer. It is not only **what** the police do, but **how** they do it. A professional trainer is a person who has advance knowledge through research and sharing. He disseminates knowledge to benefit SAPS and the community. He furthermore, expands by stating that it is expected that trainers must be skilful, knowledgeable and must have the necessary experience.*

SMP1 associated a professional trainer with someone who was better-educated, highly-trained, rule-oriented, and equated with the professionalism of police officers. A professional trainer, according to the participant, must be a person who is skilful, knowledgeable and must have the necessary experience.

According to SMP2, a senior officer with a degree in social work, employed at the provincial office, identified with being a professional police trainer as:

...a person who is respectful, knowledgeable and skilful to present classes professionally. A person who had developed the best qualities of an officer; and facilitate self-study and workplace learning this contribute to the professionalisation of police training. Officers in training posts, for example, are required to exhibit competencies in training needs identification and training-related counselling; curriculum planning, implementation and evaluation; and instructional coaching-facilitation skills [sic].

SMP2 responded that a professional trainer is a person who is respectful, skilful and has the knowledge to present a class professionally. A person with best qualities as an officer and facilitates self-study, and workplace learning contributes to the professionalisation of police training. The participant stated that a professional trainer should complete all the required courses in the SAPS to be appointed as a trainer. He stated that a trainer must set a professional example for other members of the SAPS so that they can deliver professional services to the community.

SMP3, a senior manager with 27 years of experience, responded to the question about his perception of the expected levels of trainer professionalism presently within the SAPS:

...it is expected that trainers must be skilled, knowledgeable and have the necessary experience. Skilled in the workplace and as a trainer and therefore must be developed by the employer. Their knowledge must be of such that adult learners will respect him/her in classrooms and trust his/her knowledge. In conclusion trainers in SAPS encompass the roles of a facilitator and instructor as a result experience in the field gives the edge which makes a trainer believable and trustworthy.

SMP5, was a senior officer in the SAPS who had 31 years of experience in the SAPS. SMP5, who was a senior manager described himself as:

...a professional trainer ...a person with excellent communication skills, ability to work with others and holds positive values. Trainers should maintain up-to-date knowledge an understand professional duties of a trainer and statutory framework within which they work. Participant concluded by stating a professional must be committed to a collective base of ethical values which must be reflected in how the individual represents the profession at work and in public domains [sic].

The response that SMP5 provided was a confident, positive, outlook and inspiring enthusiasm all of which are characteristics of a commendable leader. SMP 5 permeated the whole spectrum of training and development and was capable regarding training, including integrity management and professional sensitivity, which is provided at all levels and embedded in all training institutions. He regarded himself as an expert in division training and argued that he always provides support and solutions to workplace problems in the centres. SMP5 had more experience than all managers and trainers in the workplace and based his expertise on his vast experience and knowledge of different aspects of work in the SAPS.

SMP5 was a senior officer in the SAPS who was the head of training in the Northern Cape Province with 28 years of experience in the SAPS. He regarded himself as a sessional officer:

...a professional trainer is an individual who is enabling effective learning whether for young people or adults in training centres. Adult learning in work-based settings requires high levels of expertise of trainer, trainers, assessors, work supervisors, community mentors and related roles. The quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its trainers'. The learning professionals are the backbone of the system as they make the difference for individual adult learners to succeed. As a result, a professional trainer should be a person with the highest standards for teaching, training and learning, supported by the professional body over a career; the adult learners' and public interest should be central and uphold professional ethical values.[sic]

SMP5 defined a professional trainer as a person with high-quality in education and training. According to the participant, a professional trainer should be a person with deep knowledge, conceptual understanding and expertise in the teaching and learning processes, which they can apply in a diverse range of contexts for a diverse population of adult learners.

SMP6 was a senior manager who works at HRD with five years of experience. She was experienced in the crime prevention environment, responded positively to the question about her perception of the expected levels of trainer professionalism presently within the SAPS by stating that:

...a professional trainer should be a person with a passion for lifelong learning, for themselves, their adult learners and the wider public. Engaging in learning about all kinds enriches individual lives but also communities and wider society. This is a principle which applies equally to practitioners as it does to the adult learners who they teach. The ability for practitioners to instil a passion for lifelong learning can be just as powerful and beneficial as the curriculum being delivered.[sic]

The answer that SMP6 gave was that opportunities ought to be afforded to trainers who will enable them to be lifelong adult learners including through their ongoing professional

development, as the more they learn and reflect on learning, the better they can become educators and trainers. Continuing professional development is central to the professional education and training practitioner.

From the evidence of the responses, it emerged that trainers need to lead by example to ensure effectiveness concerning teaching and learning. There was clarity among the participants that better qualified, skilled, knowledgeable and experienced trainers are required at division training. In chapter two, Schneider (2009:28) points out that police professionalism requires that police officers possess a great deal of specialised knowledge and that they adhere to organisational standards and ethics as set forth by the profession.

5.4.2 Category B: Middle Management

Quotes from one-on-one interviews as explained, a total of five middle managers' responses are presented below.

MMP1 was a police officer with 21 years' experience in the SAPS. She explained that she was both a professional police officer and an academic because of her involvement in presenting classes for managing and supervising senior police officers in the organisation. MMP1 explained her understanding regarding a professional trainer as:

...first educator and then as a police officer, there's no reason that training cannot be fun. The best of trainers maintain a balance between laughter, intensity and credibility, adult learners demand credibility from their instructors. It is important that a trainer's credibility be developed before the training, maintained throughout the training, and reinforced after the training; exceptional knowledge trainers are hungry for knowledge. In time, they become a resource of knowledge in the disciplines they teach for everyone from recruit to chief, however, occasionally someone will ask a question that would stump a master and passion-we've probably all heard a trainer start a class by saying, this class is kind of boring, so hang in there, and I'll try to get you out of here early.[sic]

MMP1 was a middle manager who regarded herself as an educator and a police instructor. The participant stated that a professional trainer should encompass the

qualities of an educator, which include a passion for teaching, formulating clear aims and intentions for a lesson and managing class discipline. He stepped into the police officer role at times when the authority associated with her higher rank was required to control a situation in a class. MMP1 regarded a professional trainer as a person with integrity, credibility and who is professional in his or her right. She further stated that a professional trainer should be a person with a sense of humour, as there was no reason that training should not be fun.

MMP2 was a middle manager with a Master's Degree in Education Management and years of experience in policing and training. MMP2 stated that:

...trainers must be respectful, honest and considerate of their adult learners and conduct themselves in a way that earns the adult learners' respect and admiration for them. "The foundation of credibility in teaching, in courtroom testimony and in life is, to be honest. It is perhaps the easiest thing a trainer might overlook when trying to impress his or her class. Be honest with yourself, first and foremost, and everything else falls into place without confusion, conflict or corruption, preparedness a trainer must be prepared for the part of being a trainer. Preparation means checking and rechecking everything from the venue to audiovisual equipment as well as a rehearsal of scripts, dress and personal appearance. Inspirational the trainer must breathe life into the officer because the officer will 'move towards and become like' the most dominant picture that is placed in front of the learner. The brain will actually be changed at the neuron level by what the learner sees practices and remembers, Adult learners only respond to information that is relevant and practical to them. The trainer must effectively determine learner needs by many processes, then create the belief in the learner that this in or goal is desirable.[sic]

MMP2 further emphasised that the level of professionalism of SAPS trainers was dictated to by the Service Delivery Charter of HRD, including the SAPS Code of Conduct and the regulatory framework. The researcher noted that for this participant, the sense of duty and accountability to the charter and the responsibilities listed therein was a powerful motivator to strive for excellence in his lessons. Honesty, morality and honour ought to be adhered to. MMP2 also listed the dress code and behaving with impartiality at all times as critical features of an adult educator in the SAPS.

MMP3 was a mid-point administrator and regarded herself as a professional, a specialised and proficient lecturer, and a career instructor. She explained as follows:

...you know I am a professional trainer but not registered with any professional body of professionals. Trainer's style is a blend of professionalism, humour, skilled, understandable language, and body language that effectively helps a trainee acquire knowledge or develop skill in a manner that piques the trainee's interest and keeps him wanting more. An instructor with style may even leave the adult learners feeling a bit sad that the training session ended. Trainees should walk away realising that they learned more than they had anticipated. Then they eagerly look forward to the next opportunity to attend training with that instructor. [sic]

The researcher noted that MMP3 saw herself as a professional without being registered to a body of professionals. The participant stated that a professional trainer's style is a blend of professionalism and body language that effectively helps a trainee acquire skills and knowledge.

The following participant logged as MMP4 was a middle manager and a registered professional who previously worked in a non-military environment. MMP4 regarded herself as a police trainer who was closely related to being a police officer, although she stepped into the police officer role at times when the authority associated with her higher rank was required to control a situation in a class. MMP4 explicated her view regarding her professional trainer identity as:

...a bit of an identity crisis, but I do not see myself as an ordinary trainer. I see myself as a lecturer. I do not have any problem with switching my line of thinking...you know, I worked outside before I came to the police service and I know the set-up of, you know, presenting a class. I'm a professional in my workplace, and I behave myself as one. Law enforcement trainers are in the business of teaching skills and concepts to adults and not children, and to facilitate learning, the instruction should be learner-centred rather than trainer-centred. We, as trainers, must be able to conceptualise learning and what it means to be a facilitator of learning instead of a transmitter and evaluator. Knowledge should be transmitted by inductive discussion, inductive games, or role-playing,

debriefing experiences, relevant discussion, and active elaboration. In other words, some frank discussion and case studies of the realities of field decisions. Dedication, a trainer, must be willing to arrive early to set up, stay at the breaks and after class to answer adult learners' questions, be available and willing to listen at all times. Lesson plan preparation often takes many hours of research and preparation to finalise one hour of class presentation time.[sic]

MMP4 regarded himself as a lecturer and not as an ordinary trainer. He further stated that a trainer should be someone with a purpose. The participant concluded that trainers must be able to conceptualise learning and what it means to be a facilitator of learning instead of a transmitter and evaluator.

MMP5 was a middle manager who was the centre manager and had twelve years of policing experience and six years of training experience. He responded:

...a professional trainer should be a person with the ability and space to make judgements and decisions based on knowledge and experience and so practice with autonomy, trust and accountability. Trust from adult learners is necessary and deserved as it is coupled with individuals having serious professional responsibility for high-quality services for adult learners [sic].

This requires more than a professional relationship between practitioners and their employers. MMP5 stated that a professional trainer should be a person with the ability and space to make judgements and decisions based on knowledge and experience and so practising with autonomy, trust and accountability. There was clarity among the participants that a professional trainer should be a person who is enthusiastic about knowledge, a person with a sense of humour, skilled, knowledgeable and respectful. Police professionalism is the increasing formalisation of police work and the accompanying rise in public acceptance of the police (SAPS 2007:15). Police professionalism requires that police officers possess a great deal of specialised knowledge and that they adhere to organisational standards and ethics as set forth by the profession. The middle management team were office bearers at the provincial office, and they were not at the training centres daily to evaluate or see the trainers' unprofessionalism.

5.4.3 Category C: Trainers

Focus Group interviews as explained, a total of two different groups of interviews' responses are reported below.

TP1 described himself in the following manner:

...I am a professional trainer and police officer, in the way that I have pride in the organisation in which I work. So, I wear my uniform with pride. I see myself as an academic in the organisation ... because of, the way that I present classes and the way I deal with my adult learners and my subordinates.

TP1's sentiments were similar to those that were expressed by MMP4: middle management participant four. The participant stated that trainers should wear uniform with pride in the SAPS, and have a positive attitude because it may in turn positively affect the trainees in their classes. This participant was a middle manager who was responsible for skills development in the Northern Cape, and he responded as such.

...a professional trainer in SAPS should be a person with a personal commitment to use their expertise and skills for the benefit of the public at all times and be determined that their work uphold the values of equality and diversity. Education and training practitioners in SAPS are drawn from a diverse group of police officers to work in training, both regarding background and experiences as well as their subject or vocational areas [sic].

According to TP2, a credible profession aims to be accessible to people from all backgrounds and none more so than in education and training. A trainer's background and life experiences matter in a teaching and learning context and so attracting diverse individuals into the teaching and training profession to reflect the diversity of adult learners is essential. Professional education and training practitioners are determined that every learner has a meaningful and enriching experience of learning and is successful, whatever their background.

TP3 saw herself as a professional police officer and trainer; she regarded the trainer as a person who encompassed the roles of a trainer, facilitator and instructor. In this case, the trainer's identity was elevated to a higher level. She saw herself as an enabler and helper together with the trainer and occasionally giving orders was a mirror of what all police officers were called to do: to serve, support, coach, drill and sometimes command. P2 explained further:

I am a trainer ... sometimes when you are busy with a lecture, you must change your role as a facilitator, at times, and you change to instructor and a law enforcement officer. So, I will say that I am an educator in the police environment. A person who has a personal commitment to reflect on and share expertise with professional colleagues, to innovate and learn from the best national and international practices, and through professional body membership.[sic]

TP4 trainers in SAPS are in-house trainers as police trainers and not academics, as some do not meet the requirements in terms of academic qualifications or lecturer standards set by the police service. The participant stated that a trainer is a person who has a personal commitment to reflect on and share expertise with professional colleagues, to innovate and learn from the best national and international practices, and through professional body membership.

Interviewer: So my question is how would you describe yourself currently in your workplace and professional capacity?

TP4: Currently, I am a trainer.

Interviewer: Do you sometimes wonder if you are a police officer, or whether you are just a trainer, or do you struggle with that role that you play?

TP4: No, I do not struggle. However, now that we are becoming a university, it is a bit confusing.

Interviewer: Why do you say so?

TP4: Because we do not know who is qualified to be a lecturer and what happens to a person if you do not qualify.

Interviewer: So, when you talk about a lecturer, what is the difference between a trainer and a lecturer then?

TP4: Hmm...a trainer has to be professionally trained. You attend courses where they train you as on how to do training and how to train our adult learners. However, now we do not know what is going to happen with the lecturing if we are lecturers. They only tell us about having a certain qualification. So we do not know whether, after qualifying, we will be trained again on how we must lecture or what is going to happen. As a result, we are not professional trainers as trainers or lecturers at universities, and we do not belong to a professional body of professionals.

TP4 moved away from being called a trainer or facilitator as she consciously distanced herself from the police officer identity when in class. TP4 regarded the police identity as inappropriate in a learning environment because of the authority associated with police ranks. Her responses were in line with those given by MMP3 and may cause some sense of identity crisis and the resultant sense of insecurity. As TP4 teaches junior ranking police officers, she avoided perceived barriers to learning such as wearing a uniform due to its rank insignia that emphasises an unequal power relationship as it might be intimidating to adult learners. However, she explained that while both 'police officer' and 'trainer' roles were professional, she did not want to be known or thought of as a 'trainer' as it related to giving instructions to subordinates as police officers do.

In her words TP5 argued:

...both are professional, but in class, I want to remove that perception that I am a trainer. I'd rather be a trainer in front of police officers. That has a professional trainer must have the ability and space to make judgements and decisions based on knowledge and experience and so practising with autonomy, trust and accountability. SAPS trainers operate in a professionalised environment in which, where it is the responsibility of leaders and managers to ensure a collaborative culture which secures excellence, resting on trust and confidence.[sic]

From TP5's perspective, it was clear that she distinguished between the identities of police officers as enforcers of law and of trainers who were police officers who facilitated learning through trainer-learner relationships without any consideration of police ranking.

TP6 had always planned to become an architect but joined the SAPS as his second choice. TP6 was a police officer, an instructor whose task was to inculcate military discipline and culture through drill instruction, salute and compliment. This was TP6's duty at basic training academies where young recruits were trained to be police officers. He strongly identified with being a professional police trainer or instructor:

...a person who has leadership and managerial skills, he must be responsible for ensuring a collaborative culture which secures excellence, resting on trust and confidence. The level of professionalism of trainers in SAPS must be on a higher level so that they can provide training at a high level. The participant concluded by stating trainers must be committed to a collective base of ethical values which must be reflected in how the individual represents the profession at work and in public domains [sic]

TP7 was proud to wear the police uniform and explained that the neat appearance of the police uniform defines him. He stated that:

...a professional trainer must be a person who makes a personal commitment to use their expertise and skills for the benefit of the public at all times and be determined that their work upholds the values of equality and diversity. Experience, expertise and views are shared generously to inform proper national and local policy. In conclusion, a person with in-depth knowledge, conceptual understanding and expertise in teaching and learning processes and contexts, matched with expert subject knowledge and skills [sic].

TP7 responded that SAPS trainers were not professionals. TP7's comments and those of TP1 were that wearing the SAPS uniform fills these trainers with pride in their image and determination not to let the service down. The uniform fosters unity and team spirit and of course promotes the 'brand' of the SAPS.

TP8 further stated that:

...a person with a personal commitment to their own professionalism, to share expertise with professional colleagues, to innovate and learn from the best national and international practices through the professional body. Trainers have a responsibility for their own professionalism membership. Commitment to collaboration is integral to the professional identity and roles of all teaching and learning practitioners and to the work of the professional body in fostering this, as well as leaders and managers. Continuing professional development keeps us all on the top of our game and encourages us to maintain our development as trainers and prevents stagnation by keeping up to date through CPD courses and having to declare what has been achieved each year [sic].

Grounding and thorough training were of utmost importance both for the trainers and the trainees who make TP8's experience as alarming and disappointing.

TP9 who had been a trainer for seventeen years identified and confirmed that:

...professional trainers present classes to adult learners that provide the adult learners with a sound foundation of SAPS mandate, obligation and police authority to perform policing duties proactively. The participant stated that a trainer should have professional qualification at least Level 6 in learning and teaching. Education and training professionals improve their practice from their very first work with adult learners. The ability and space to make judgements and decisions based on knowledge and experience and so practising with autonomy, trust and accountability. A hallmark of any professional is recognition of their ability to make judgements and decisions based on knowledge and experience [sic].

TP9 further stated that training equips police officials with the knowledge and skills about different approaches, methods and techniques that can be used efficiently to address crime problems within communities.

TP10 who had been a trainer for 18 years and had experience in the crime intelligence field but currently working in the training division said:

...a professional trainer should be a person with a collective base of ethical values which must be reflected in how the individual represents the profession at work and in public domains. Trustworthiness, integrity and honesty are vital values, as is the unconditional belief that individual adult learners all have great potential for succeeding with the right kinds of teaching or training and support.

TP10 saw a professional trainer as a person who was in a position of profound trust and responsibility, including young people and vulnerable adults. The social context of learning is crucial to its success, and professional educators and trainers need the right attributes, values and qualities to build effective social relations that accelerate learning. The institute for learning upholds its code of professional practice and investigates alleged breaches of the code in the public interest.

The participants acknowledged, in their responses, the importance of a professional trainers in the training division. The participants also accepted that a professional trainer should be a person who is professionally trained as a lecturer, attended courses, has a specific qualification and must be a person on a higher level to present training. The pursuit of police professionalism has two meanings (Burack, 2006). First, it has meaning in the traditional sense of integrity, honesty, and adherence to a code of ethics and established standards. Second, in these more complex times, a more sophisticated version of professionalism is necessary for responding to the community or institutional needs.

5.5.4 Discussion

It is apparent from the participants' responses that trainers in the SAPS are not professionals. The majority of participants in the study were of the same opinion that trainers' professionalism could contribute towards improving the organisation. Alvsväg (2010) argues that professionalism is the possession of specialised knowledge and ethical values as core attributes followed by behaviour, caring, self-regulation, altruism, autonomy in practice, and participation in professional organisations. Trainers are operationally trained police officers. This requires them to wear and work in police uniform. As a result, they also have to undergo two physical fitness assessments per year to prevent their physical appearance from becoming an embarrassment to the

SAPS and to keep them operationally ready for deployment. Trainers are also expected to maintain their firearm handling and shooting competence.

A professional trainer is a person who is better-educated, highly-trained, rule-oriented and is equated with the professionalism of a police officer. It is not only what the police do, but also how they do it. A professional trainer is a person who has advanced knowledge through research and sharing. A trainer disseminates knowledge to benefit the SAPS and the community (SMP1:153). Trainers must be respectful, honest and considerate of their adult learners and conduct themselves in a way that earns them adult learners' respect and admiration (MMP2:157).

McCourt and Eldridge (2003) state that training is a way of developing employees' skills within the organisation and involves movements of employees from one official responsibility to another (cf. chapter 2 par.2 p. 66). Police education, training and development are continuously evaluated and assessed to keep track of new political, social and economic changes globally. "Police education and training systems across the globe are in the process of transition (Paterson, 2011:1) (cf. chapter 3 par.2 p. 78). Laing (2009) states that training has a general reputation as the most effective for vocational work (cf. chapter 2 par.2 p. 66).

It is expected that trainers must be skilled, knowledgeable and have the necessary experience (cf. chapter 5. SMP5. par. 3. P.144). Skilled in the workplace and as a trainer and therefore must be developed by the employer. Training increases productivity because the new skill that the employee requires to perform the job will be acquired through training. Green and Gates (2014:81) point out that police work has become increasingly complex and, as a result, educational requirements for police officers ought to be increased. There is also a suggestion that better-educated police officers are more rounded thinkers and they exhibit a more significant humanistic bent (cf. chapter 2. par. 1. P.50). Therefore, once the skill level of the employees has been increased, the quantity and quality of the output will likely increase. Training does not focus on improving the skills and knowledge of new employees, but also enhances existing employees' performance on their current job assignments and prepares them for the future challenges (Sharma & Kurukshetra, 2013:8) (cf. chapter 3. par. 3. P. 79).

Their knowledge must be such that adult learners will respect them in classrooms and trust their knowledge (cf. SMP2. p. 156). The ability to maintain such complex and dynamic behaviours within certain limits are the ultimate in policing. To acquire the knowledge needed, police officers ought to develop their skills in a multi-cultural learning pattern. Mille and Das (2008:185) agree with Lino (2004), that the dichotomy in policing involves that maintenance of a balance “between the pressure to get things done and the pressure to get things done correctly” (cf. chapter 3. par. 2. p.79). According to TP10, Booyens (2007), Mellish, Brink and Paton (2010) professionalism is the pursuit of excellence and the desire to regulate one’s performance. Professionalism refers to the extent to which the individual has accepted the culture that is, the values, norms and behaviours of the profession as part of her professional self in this study. Further, professionalism refers to the professional attributes, ethics, norms and values maintained by trainers in SAPS. Hoyle (1980) describes professionalism as the quality of one’s practice (cf. chapter 2. par. 4. p.50-51).

Sockett (in Tichenor & Tichenor, 2005; Soanes, Hawker & Elliott (2006) argues that professionalism is the ability or skill expected of a professional and consistent demonstration of core values. Sockett further describes professionalism as “the manner of conduct within an occupation, how members integrate their obligations with their knowledge and skill in a context of collegiality and their contractual and ethical relations with clients” (cf. chapter 2. par. 24. p.49). Booyens (2007); Mellish, Brink and Paton (2010) argue that the characteristics of professionalism are the pursuit of excellence and the desire to regulate one’s performance. Professionalism refers to the extent to which the individual has accepted the culture that is, the values, norms and behaviours of the profession as part of her professional self” (cf. chapter 2. par. 4. p.51).

A sense of professional identity is determined to be an antecedent to professionalism (Apeso-Varano, 2007; Ohlen & Segesten, 1998) (cf. chapter 2. par. 2. p.49-50). An individual who shows consideration and respect for others demonstrates a commitment to professionalism. Likewise, a person who keeps his or her word demonstrates loyalty, exceeds expectations, and demonstrates professionalism. An explicit discussion taking place on professionalism in law enforcement can result in higher police salaries, a

decrease in corruption and deviance in law enforcement, and fewer lawsuits (Schneider, 2009) (cf. chapter 2. par. 1. p.51).

According to Vallicella (2009:n.p), trainer professionalism contains three essential characteristics, competence, performance, and conduct, which reflects the educator's goals, abilities, and standards, and directly impacts the effectiveness of teaching through the development of these qualities. The characteristic of competence is fundamental in an educator's pursuit of excellence. A discussion on competence focuses on three essential ideas: preparation, knowledge of subject area, and defined pedagogy (Vallicella, 2009) (cf. chapter 2. par. 3. p.52).

Robson (2006) argues that professionalism is determined by the social and cultural environment. Furthermore, it is a compositional and evaluative discourse and a cultural and social practice that supports and reproduces power relations, to ensure control of a body of knowledge in particular institutions. This implies that professionalism changes and develops, and includes interrelated ideas, to produce a way of thinking about occupations. Rizvi (2003) contends that the professionalism of a trainer depends on the quality of the person's work, when considering the different roles that the person fulfils and how professional knowledge is organised and used (cf. Chapter 2. par. 2. p. 49).

Helterbran (2008), proclaims that professionalism is a process more than an outcome. This statement can be transferred to the experiences and training in professionalism in undergraduate trainer education programmes. For members of professional education organisations, the process of learning and practising professionalism begins through involvement in the organisations and carried into the teaching profession. According to Vallicella (2009:n.p), trainer professionalism contains three essential characteristics; competence, performance, and conduct, which reflects the educator's goals, abilities, and standards, and directly impacts the effectiveness of teaching through the development of these qualities (cf. Chapter 2. par. 2. p. 51).

Professionalism is a crucial component for the success of any profession. Professionals need to demonstrate professionalism for them to discharge their duties effectively and efficiently. Oosthuizen (2009), argues that employees commit a breach of contract where employees are qualified but lacking in dedication or are inattentive or careless in

the execution of their duties. True professionalism in policing is viewed as a recognised indicator and predictor of police effectivity worldwide (Tuffin, 2016) (cf. Chapter 2. par. 3. p. 52).

The characteristic of competence is fundamental in an educator's pursuit of excellence. A discussion on competence focuses on three essential ideas: preparation, knowledge of subject area, and defined pedagogy, according to Vallicella (2009). The first, preparation, prepares the professional for the adversity of the classroom. From language and cultural barriers to socio-economic differences, all trainers face deterrents in the classroom that must be broken down by individualised techniques. The second, knowledge of subject area, builds confidence and enables the educator to focus on how to relate subject matter to the trainees and their cultures within classrooms. The final portion of competence is discovering and assuming a defined pedagogy (cf. Chapter 2. par. 2. p. 51).

Further, Ball (2008), states that professionalism is not just about appearance, ethics and a code of conduct. Professionalism is about having a lifetime dedication and commitment to higher standards and ideals, essential values, and continuous self-improvement (ibid). Professionalism is a built-in guidance system for always doing the right thing, and always standing tall for what you believe. Professionalism in policing infers agency effectiveness. Police effectiveness implies a better and more productive police officer, and likewise, a more effective and professional law enforcement agency. Police professionalism is equated with better-educated, highly-trained, rule-oriented police officers. It is not only what the police do, but also how they do it (Schneider, 2009). The first objective of the study was to identify the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service. It became apparent from the responses of the participants that the level of professionalism in the SAPS division training was not up to standard. Against this background of very diverse perceptions of their professional identities at work, the SAPS have to enable the construction of professional academic identities within the trainers towards becoming professional trainers (cf. chapter 2. par. 1. p. 53).

According to Vallicella (2009), educator professionalism can be defined as the ability to reach adult learners in a meaningful way, developing innovative approaches to

mandated content while motivating, engaging, and inspiring young adult minds to prepare for ever-advancing technology. The South African Council of Educators (SACE 2006:1) states “there is a general agreement that the notions of professional autonomy, accountability, knowledge and professional ethics are central elements of professionalism”. It means to this research that the responsibility for maintaining these high professional standards rests exclusively with the party holding the position of trust, power and authority in the SAPS (cf. chapter 2. par. 1. p. 50).

Krishnaveni and Anitha (2007), argue that ethical conduct is both the most fundamental tenet of professionalism and the most challenging. It should be the foundation for the three broad areas: skill, concern for others and concern for self. Ethical standards ought to be treated as welcome moral principles guiding a vibrant profession. The SAPS as a whole is struggling to inculcate professionalism into all police officers and is using every means possible to influence police officers to develop the ideal professional police identity. The SAPS Code of Conduct (1997), helps to shape the corporate identity by creating an image of the professional police officer and dictating the focus of professional police officers, as they have to commit to achieving a safe and secure environment for all the people of South Africa (cf. chapter 2. par. 4. p. 53).

5.5 THEME 2: Current levels of trainer professionalism

This theme will provide responses to question 2: How would you describe the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service?

5.5.1 Category A: Senior Management

Quotes from one-on-one interviews as explained, a total of six senior managers' responses are presented below.

SMP1, a senior manager in training, responded that:

...currently SAPS trainers are not professional because they do not belong to an organisation that promotes their profession above personal gain and the trainers must have an NQF 6 qualification. The trainer must be of a higher standard than the learner.

The participant furthermore, argued that a professional person is a person with a specific style in the workplace base on his/her values and professional behaviour [sic].

SMP1 stated that trainers' professionalism is based on qualifications; trainers registered with an accredited body of professionals, having high values and professional behaviour at work.

SMP2 responded by saying:

...trainers are not professionals; a professional trainer is a competent person who diagnoses and prescribes options for educational success and significance. Professional trainers believe their work is a vocation and calling rather than an occupation where one merely occupies space. In conclusion, professional trainers recognise that change is the norm.[sic]

SMP2 stated that a professional trainer is a competent person who diagnoses and prescribes options for educational success and significance. Professional trainers believe their work is a vocation and calling rather than an occupation where one merely occupies space.

SMP3 responded that:

...trainers in SAPS are not professional. Trainers in SAPS are not value-driven, guided by principles, passion, and a purpose bigger than themselves. Trainers are not growth-oriented and don't consider themselves lifelong adult learners and contributors. In conclusion, trainers should promote cohesiveness, collaboration, and team-building in the workplace which is lacking in the workplace. Trainers to be catalysts in promoting calculated risks that advance their profession and enable everyone access to success.[sic]

SMP3 stated that trainers in SAPS were not professionals. Trainers in SAPS are not value-driven, guided by principles, passion, and a purpose bigger than themselves. Trainers are not growth-oriented and do not consider themselves lifelong adult learners and contributors. In conclusion, trainers are advised to promote cohesiveness,

collaboration, and team-building in the workplace which is lacking. Trainers ought to be catalysts in promoting calculated risks that advance their profession and enable everyone access to success.

SMP4 responded by saying:

...trainers in SAPS are not professionals, trainers don't create a climate of ownership by ensuring that everyone involved in the educational process is invited to participate. Trainers to promote the "we are better together philosophy". In conclusion, trainers to become climate creators, recognising that the conditions that surround learning contribute to learning.[sic]

SMP4 stated that trainers in SAPS are not professionals. Trainers do not create a climate of ownership by ensuring that everyone involved in the educational process is invited to participate. Trainers should promote the "we are better together philosophy". In conclusion, trainers should become climate creators, recognising that the conditions that surround learning contribute to learning.

SMP5 responded that:

...trainers in SAPS are professionals; they display courtesy; trainers` are dependable, co-operative and committed to their work. SAPS trainers are catalysts in promoting calculated risks that advance their profession and enable everyone access to success. Trainers create a climate of ownership by ensuring that everyone involved in the educational process is invited to participate. Furthermore, trainers act with integrity; they are considerate and empathetic to the adult learners.[sic]

The researcher noted that SMP5 associated professionalism with courtesy, dependability, cooperation and commitment to their work. He further stated that a professional trainer must be considerate and empathetic to the adult learners. The participant's response was based on attributes that a professional trainer should have, not what a professional trainer should do to be a professional in the workplace.

SMP6 responded that:

SAPS trainers are professional. In SAPS trainers geared towards ensuring that officers are sufficiently skilled, with the necessary confidence to respond to the complexities of every-day policing. When necessary, they need to be able to use force to defend themselves, defend other people, carry out arrests, and bring violent situations under control. They also ensure that the relevant use of force is proportionate to the circumstances at hand, and is in line with legislation and prescripts. [sic]

According to SMP6, trainers in SAPS were professional. They geared towards ensuring that officers were sufficiently skilled, with the necessary confidence to respond to the complexities of every-day policing. When necessary, they needed to be able to use force to defend themselves, defend other people, carry out arrests, and bring violent situations under control.

Accordingly, Groundwater-Smith, Mitchell and Mockler (2007:58) observe the following; “If professional standards in training hold any promise for improving the quality of teaching and learning, then it is through their capacity to foster generative and authentic professional learning”. Trainers create a climate of ownership by ensuring that everyone involved in the educational process is invited to participate. In the SAPS, trainers are geared towards ensuring that officers are sufficiently skilled, with the necessary confidence to respond to the complexities of every-day policing. Groundwater-Smith, Mitchell and Mockler (ibid) further state, contrary to popular belief, that standards and quality, though related, are not synonymous. In simpler terms, maintaining appropriately high standards leads to the realisation of quality. In other words, it is practically impossible to attain a product or service of high quality in the absence of high standards.

5.5.2 Category B: Middle Management:

MMP1 replied by saying:

...I'm relatively satisfied with the current level of trainer's professionalism in SAPS. SAPS have qualified trainers to present classes and trainers in SAPS are seen as good role models, and they demonstrate maturity, confidence, and enthusiasm. Furthermore,

trainers in SAPS are professionals they act with a specific style in the workplace base on his/her values and professional behaviour and dignity to maintain high standards of ethics and professional behaviour in support of adult learners and their expectations.[sic]

MMP1 stated that professionalism of SAPS trainers was portrayed as they were seen as good role models, and they demonstrated maturity, confidence, and enthusiasm. Middle managers presented classes and work at the provincial office daily and were not exposed to unprofessionalism at the training centres on a daily basis. However, they indicated problems with questions one and three.

MMP2 said:

...the levels of professionalism in the SAPS is satisfactory. Trainers provide training of a high standard. Trainers set professional examples to other members so that they can deliver professional services to the community. Trainers in SAPS are friendly and congenial to all. They are skilled at conflict resolution which criteria's a good trainer.[sic]

This response was in contradiction with the research problem statement, which stated that there was a disturbing lack of commitment by trainers who did not attempt to give 100% effort to their profession. This manifests in many ways including failing to report for work when they have to present classes; an inability to accept constructive criticism and irresponsible behaviour by failing to adhere to SAPS workplace monitoring and evaluation assessment tools in evaluating adult learners, which results in non-adherence to institutional policies and instructions. This is the individual view but not according to MMP4 who had given a good account of the trainers' professionalism in division training.

MMP3 responded by saying:

...SAPS trainers are professional, but we as trainers must improve our academic qualifications, as a trainer myself, I regard the level is high in SAPS training. Trainers in SAPS balance multiple responsibilities and manage time effectively. Furthermore, trainers in SAPS reflective and inquiring practitioners who think critically about their

educational assumptions values and practice. In conclusion trainers in SAPS draw on research as part of evidence-based practice.[sic]

According to MMP3s response, it is clear that it is from an individual point of view, for a trainer not to have professional academic qualifications and be a member of a professional organisation that promotes his profession above personal gain and does not have an NQF 6 qualification. In his response, he acknowledged the gap in academic qualifications.

MMP4 answered:

...Trainers in SAPS are not professionals. Being a trainer in SAPS, you are not a member of a professional body. We present in-house courses that are not SASSETA accredited they are only usable by the police. Professional trainers are need analysts – competent to diagnose and prescribe options for educational success and significance. Professional trainers believe their work is a vocation and calling rather than an occupation where one merely occupies space. Professional trainers recognise that change is the norm.[sic]

MMP4 stated that trainers in SAPS are not professionals, they do not belong to an accredited professional body, and they present in-house courses that are not SASSETA accredited and are only usable in the police service. Professional trainers are need analysts – competent to diagnose and prescribe options for educational success and significance. Professional trainers believe their work is a vocation and calling rather than an occupation where one merely occupies space. Professional trainers recognise that change is the norm.

MMP5 answered:

...SAPS trainers are professional even though they do not belong to a professional body to regulate them. Some trainers in SAPS have a solid knowledge base. They are professional, competent communicators and have excellent organisational skills.

Furthermore, trainers are dual professionals they are both subject and vocational specialist in teaching and learning [sic].

MMP5 stated that trainers in the SAPS were professional even though they did not belong to a professional body that regulates them. Some trainers in the SAPS had a solid knowledge base. They were professional, competent communicators and had excellent organisational skills. Professionals are people who have professional academic qualifications and are registered with a professional organisation that promotes their profession above personal gains, such as doctors, nurses and auditors. Trainers may be professional in performing their work but are not regarded as professionals.

5.5.3 Category C: Trainers

TP1 said:

...trainers are not professional; they need to acquire academic qualifications and theoretical skills. Trainers in SAPS adhere to the professional standard of teaching which cares to be compassion, acceptance, interest and insight for developing adult learners. Furthermore, trainers show respect, trust and fair-mindedness.

In addition, TP1 stated that he hoped that the SAPS would become a dominant professional organisation, unlike its current status, as per his perception. This would include excellent leadership; a clear corporate structure, mandate and goals; a sense of teamwork throughout the ranks; an optimistic feel within the organisation including high morale of all the employees; and ongoing, in-service, training in theoretical knowledge and practical skills within the SAPS.

TP2 viewed herself as a professional trainer; she had a degree in education and was appointed to the post due to her qualifications. TP2 had twelve years' experience as a trainer in the SAPS and stated that:

...trainers in SAPS are professional by being trustworthy in terms of fairness, openness and honesty. A professional should be a person with integrity, impartiality, promoting the public good and commitment to the government systems. In conclusion honesty, reliability and moral actions are embodied in the ethical stand of integrity.[sic]

TP2 stated that trainers are professional and trustworthy regarding fairness, openness and honesty. This participant further stated that a professional should be a person with integrity, impartiality, promoting the public good and commitment to the government systems. The participant concluded by stating that honesty, reliability and moral actions are embodied in the moral stand of integrity. Trainers cannot be professional by being untrustworthy, unfair and dishonest in the workplace; these are an ethical stand of integrity.

TP3 was of the opinion that the professional level of the trainers was not high:

...trainers in SAPS are not professional. Most of the trainers have not attended SAPS 'train the trainer' course. Trainers do not adhere to the values of the teaching profession by not adhering to the human values and human rights, respect and equality, professional integrity and privacy. In conclusion we as trainers we have a shared responsibility to develop good education and to promote and develop our professionalism.

TP3 stated that trainers in SAPS are not professional. The participant stated that most of the trainers had not attended the SAPS 'train the trainer' course. *Trainers do not adhere to the values of the teaching profession by not adhering to the human values and human rights, respect and equality, professional integrity and privacy. In conclusion, trainers have a shared responsibility to develop good education and to promote and develop the professionalism [sic].*

TP4 reported that trainers are professional in person and at the workplace. They have excellent qualifications and attend regular in-service courses to further develop themselves.

...trainers in SAPS are organisational trainers who specialise in in-house law enforcement training; they are not professional trainers. Trainers in SAPS need professional qualifications; some trainers don't display professional ethics, and there's no professional development and professional growth in the organisation.[sic]

According to TP4, SAPS trainers are organisational trainers who specialise in in-house law enforcement training; they are not professional trainers. Trainers in SAPS need professional qualifications. Some trainers do not display professional ethics, and there is no professional development and professional growth in the organisation. A professional trainer needs a professional degree in policing and also, the skills gained over the years in SAPS to make him or her more confident that he or she is a professional.

TP5 countered by giving the following insightful, cautious, comment:

...trainers in SAPS are professionals. The current levels differ from training centre to training centre. If the centre Commander and his/her personnel have a professional attitude, the rest will follow. Within the centre, it also differs from person to person. Attitude, knowledge and experience play a role. The current level on average is that the trainers are too young and inexperienced. Training of these trainers must improve as well. Senior members must mentor young trainers in a more formal manner of in-service training. Currently, this does not happen.[sic]

TP5 stated that trainers in SAPS are professional. TP5 associates professionalism with trainers' attitude at work, and trainers' experience as vital in the workplace. He further stated that the current level of trainers is average and trainers are too young and inexperienced. In conclusion, he stated that trainers must improve academically.

TP6 responded by saying:

...trainers in SAPS are not professional trainers. A professional trainer should be a person with a personal commitment to use his/her expertise and skills for the benefit of the organisation and public at all times. He/she should determine that their work upholds the values of equality and diversity. Education and training practitioners in SAPS are

drawn from a diverse group of police officers to work at training; no criteria are set to in terms of experiences and subject or vocational areas to work in training [sic].

TP6 remarked that SAPS trainers are not professionals based on personal commitment to use their expertise and skills for the benefit of the organisation and public at all times. They should determine that their work upholds the values of equality and diversity. Education and training practitioners in SAPS are drawn from a diverse group of police officers to work at training. No criteria are set regarding experiences and subject or vocational areas to work in training.

TP7, a trainer with 17 years of experience, answered that:

...currently there is a lack of professionalism among trainers in the SAPS. Trainers must be more qualified and skilled than other members of SAPS. Some don't show respect for seniors and among themselves. They stay away from work while they had to present a class and then others have to stand in. Some handle personal issues at work and use inappropriate language and their cell phones while in class [sic].

TP7 remarked that SAPS trainers are not professionals. They need to improve their attitudes, personality and improve their qualifications. He stated that some stayed away from work while they had to present a class session. As a result, another trainer has to be been requested to take over the class.

TP8 responded by saying:

...trainers in SAPS are not professional. Some trainers feed into the office gossip; discuss co-workers with others, and some keep personal issues strictly confidential. Furthermore, they don't leave unexpressed feelings at the door, prior to entering the workplace and can't pay attention how they communicate to their seniors & others. [sic]

TP8 stated that trainers are not professionals. Some trainers fed into the office gossip; discussed co-workers with others, and some kept personal issues strictly confidential. Furthermore, they did not leave unexpressed feelings at the door before entering the

workplace and could not pay attention to how they communicated with their seniors and other officers.

TP9 responded by saying:

...trainers in SAPS are professional. Trainers are continually developing deep knowledge of learning, how the brain works, subjects and the relationships between them as individuals, and their interests and social, cultural and environmental. Trainers have to balance their own professional values against their responsibilities to the organisations in which they work. The balance between trainer autonomy and appropriate accountability measures prescribed by the government [sic].

TP9 stated that the SAPS trainers are professional. Trainers are continually developing in-depth knowledge of learning, how the brain works, subjects and the relationships between them as individuals and their interests whether social, cultural and environmental. Trainers have to balance their professional values against their responsibilities to the organisations in which they work. Further, there has to be a balance between trainer autonomy and appropriate accountability measures prescribed by the government.

TP10 responded by saying:

...trainers in SAPS are not professional. Training officers are not geared towards ensuring that officers are sufficiently skilled, with the necessary confidence to respond to the complexities of every-day policing. Trainers do not adhere to specific Standing Orders and Standard Operating Procedures, and added emphasis must be placed on ensuring high standards of discipline and proper management [sic].

TP10 stated that SAPS trainers are not professional. Training officers are not geared towards ensuring that officers are sufficiently skilled, with the necessary confidence to respond to the complexities of every-day policing. He further stated that some trainers do not adhere to clear standing orders and standard operating procedures. He further added that emphasis ought to be placed on ensuring high standards of discipline and proper management.

5.6.4 Discussion

It was evident from the participants' responses that the majority agree that SAPS trainers did not regard themselves as professionals. Currently, SAPS trainers are not professional because they do not belong to an organisation that promotes their profession above personal gain. Further, trainers must have an NQF 6 qualification as indicated by Sharma and Kurukshetra (2013:4) that qualified trainers assist new employees to learn a particular job, quickly. The trainer must be of a higher calibre than the learner. Moreover, they argued that a professional person is a person with a specific style in the workplace based on his or her values and professional behaviour (SMP1). In addition, Sharma and Kurukshetra (2013:8) state that training increases productivity because the new skill that the employee requires to perform the job is acquired through training. Therefore, once the skill level of the employees has been increased, the quantity and quality of the output will also likely increase. Training does not focus on improving the skills and knowledge of new employees, but also enhances existing employees' performance on their current job assignments and prepares them for the future challenges. According to SMP2, trainers in SAPS are not professional. Further, Lino (2004), also affirms the importance of continuing education and training for police members, claiming that police education and training is the main prerequisite for law enforcement agencies to provide a more secure environment for the community. Trainers in SAPS are not value-driven, are not guided by principles, passion, and a purpose bigger than themselves. Trainers are not growth-oriented and do not consider themselves lifelong adult learners and contributors. In conclusion, trainers should promote cohesiveness, collaboration, and team-building in the workplace which is currently lacking.

Mille and Das (2008:185), agree with Lino (2004), that the dichotomy in policing involves that maintenance of a balance "between the pressure to get things done and the pressure to get things done correctly". Criminal justice in a democratic community often demands the execution of crime control measures on one hand while simultaneously protecting the rights of the suspect on the other hand.

Trainers are to be catalysts in promoting calculated risks that advance their profession and enable everyone access to success.

TP 7 argued that trainers in the SAPS do not act professionally. Some trainers feed into the office gossip; discuss co-workers with others, yet some keep personal issues strictly confidential. Furthermore, they do not leave unexpressed feelings at the door, before entering the workplace and cannot pay attention to how they communicate with their seniors and others. Afshan, Sultana, Sobia, Irum, Kamran, Ahmed and Nasir Mahmood (2012:646) point out that employees are a crucial but expensive resource. Therefore, it is necessary that the skills and knowledge of employees be maximised to achieve the aims and goals of the organisation and to sustain economic growth and adequate performance. Van der Westhuizen and Wessels (2011:316) emphasise that training interventions are usually identified and scheduled in a co-ordinated way (chapter 3. par. 3. p. 79).

Currently, there is a lack of professionalism among trainers in the SAPS (cf. chapter 1. par. 1. 2. p. 3). TP8 and Pannel and Sheehan (2010) state that policing is a challenging and complex occupation that requires continuous development. Police officers must have intensive skills in criminal law, investigation and risk effective decision-making. They also require investigative knowledge and other skills as they advance in their careers (ibid). Lack of training and development may result in financial losses associated with inadequate investigations, which often lead to case dismissals or wrongful convictions. In-service training and development (INSET) is for ensuring higher and lasting performance in any institution that is concerned with its outputs.

Being a trainer in the SAPS does not constitute being a member of a professional body. Trainers present in-house courses that are not SASSETA accredited; they are only usable within the police service. INSET provides a framework for self-development, training programmes and career progression to meet an organisation's skills requirements (Stare & Klun, 2008). Sharma and Kurukshetra (2013) further explain that INSET also assists in ensuring the standardisation of procedures, which further allows high levels of performance. If employees are trained, they work intelligently and make few mistakes because they possess the required skills and knowledge (cf. chapter 3. par.3. p. 86). Some trainers are professional regarding their behaviour, and professional

appearance (MMP5). Trainers in the SAPS are organisational trainers who specialise in in-house law enforcement training; they are not professional trainers.

The SAPS needs professional qualifications; some trainers do not display professional ethics. Thus, there is no professional development and professional growth in the organisation. Mosia (2001) states that academic standards are set as benchmarks against which to measure the attainment or non-attainment of specific academic competence. Educational inputs would typically refer to entry characteristics of adult learners, as well as the quality of the teaching they receive. Furthermore, Mosia (ibid) suggests that the learner should be proficient in all areas of the curriculum including being competent in both instruction and understanding which is especially necessary under these circumstances (cf. chapter 2. par. 2. p. 73).

According to MMP1, MMP2 and MMP3, trainers in the SAPS are professionals. According to their responses, they focused more on the qualities that a professional trainer should possess and not what the trainer does in the workplace. This is in contrast with what the trainers responded to on the same question that professionalism was low at the training centres. According to Baggini (2005), a professional is one who can deal with the challenges and tasks that are specific to the job they do, using skills, experience and expertise, which are also specific to that job. For the trainer, Helterbran (2008) states that professionals take ownership of their job responsibilities, assignments and personal conduct. Being a professional is a matter of personally emulating and modelling the qualities demanded of trainees and colleagues (cf. chapter 3. par 1. p. 48).

The research question explored the current levels of trainers' professionalism in SAPS. The SAPS ETD policy (2007) aims to equip trainers in the SAPS to do their work effectively. Trainers are continuously enabled to enhance their professional competence and performance through formal and in-service training provided by the organisation. The trainers understand professional development as enhancing their pedagogical knowledge. This is done to enable them to grow as individuals and to execute their jobs more effectively. Kosgei et al., (2013) also assert that teaching experience is insignificant in the effort of improving trainees' achievement. Meanwhile, the professional education qualification is significantly different from the practice of

professional characters. It is relevant with the assumption that the more one studies, the better the person becomes in attitude, behaviour, and performance in increasing student achievement.

5.6 THEME 3: Improving levels of professionalism within the SAPS

This theme provides responses to sub-question three: How can the levels of professionalism in the South African Police Service be improved?

The final question, which was posed to participants, was how can the levels of professionalism in the South African Police Service be improved? Professionalism provides the autonomy and responsibility central to teaching, as trainers must regularly make fine-grained decisions about the learning needs of individual young people (Connell 2009; Gewirtz et al., 2009; Groundwater-Smith & Mockler, 2009). At its ideal, professionalism has the potential to contribute to a robust discourse of quality improvement.

5.6.1 Category A: Senior Management

SMP1 a senior manager asserted that to improve professionalism:

...all officers should undergo a competency assessment to gauge whether they meet the required standards for their current ranks. Officers who do not meet these standards should not be considered for promotion until they attain the required level of competence for that rank. Competency being reliable, keeping promises, standing up to tough situations, and focusing on solutions versus making excuses. Integrity keeping promises, being trustworthy, and doing the right thing, even when it requires tough choices. Specialised knowledge is making a personal commitment to assessing current knowledge and planning ways to develop and improve in lacking areas.[sic]

SMP1 further stated her certainty that most of the senior management have the appropriate qualifications but do not receive promotions. This feeling of dissatisfaction, especially when staff consider that they have met all reasonable levels of experience,

quality and quantity of performance, may lead to growing resentment of the employer's policies. In the case of this study, this would be the SAPS documentation and a growing number of cases. This causes such discontent and unhappiness that the candidates ultimately resign from the SAPS. He concluded that competence is being reliable, keeping promises, standing up to tough situations, and focusing on solutions versus making excuses. Integrity is keeping promises, being trustworthy, and doing the right thing, even when it requires tough choices. Specialised knowledge is making a personal commitment to assessing current knowledge and planning ways to develop and improve in lacking areas.

SMP2, a senior manager responded positively by stating that:

...the SAPS should adopt a back to basics approach, link promotion to the next rank with the successful completion of learning programmes and upgrade stations and provide stations with enough resources. SAPS members should all be wearing appropriately professional clothing and present an equally professional demeanour. Overall positive image results in gaining respect and building confidence. [sic]

The participant concluded that professionalism is displayed in demeanour and competence. It is also shown in the ability to organise oneself and work.

SMP2 stated that SAPS needs to adopt the back to basics approach, link promotion to the next rank with the successful completion of learning programmes and upgrade stations and provide stations with enough resources. SAPS members should all wear appropriately professional clothing and present an equally professional demeanour. He furthermore stated that overall positive image results in gaining respect and building confidence.

SMP3 suggested that:

...police officers should be committed to their work and be co-operative to fellow workers. SAPS should recognise the contribution made by police officers on the ground evaluating the member's performance and commitment to improving their practice

through appropriate development. SAPS should create an employee handbook or intranet section that outlines the policies and procedures police officers should follow. In conclusion, the SAPS should carefully review its policies and procedures to make sure you're getting your job done effectively, and that you are up to code on everything. A lot of the information should be common sense, but if you are unclear on anything, ask your employer, especially if the policy or procedure in question affects other people both inside and outside the police. [sic]

SMP3 responded that the SAPS should recognise the contribution made by police officers on the ground, and evaluate the members' performance and commitment to improving their practice through appropriate development. SMP3 responded further and stated that the SAPS should create an employee handbook or intranet section that outlines the policies and procedures that police officers should follow. They should carefully review these policies and procedures to ensure they are getting the job done effectively. A lot of the information should be common sense. However, if one is unclear on anything, they can ask their employer, especially if the policy or procedure in question affects other people both inside and outside the police service.

SMP4 who is an experienced officer replied that:

...by continuously utilising the monitoring and evaluation strategy and to establish a Professional Forum for members to discuss challenges and best practices. SAPS to provide its members with quality training. SAPS members to treat the police property with respect from the police constable to top management, every position comes with various tools and access to other types of property that will be your responsibility. Working pros treat this property as their own, while also knowing how to get the best results out of it, for everyone's benefit.[sic]

SMP4 responded that the SAPS members should treat the police property with respect from the student police constable up to top management. Every position comes with various tools and access to other types of property that is their responsibility. For the SAPS, it needs to monitor and evaluate police officers utilising the monitoring and

evaluation strategy and establish a professional forum for members to discuss challenges and best practices.

SMP5 a senior manager asserted that:

...for SAPS members to be organised being organised decreases your chances of missing deadlines, spacing on tasks, or misplacing work files; it also increases your self-confidence in getting the job done right. Being organised helps you stay sane! Whether it's a company-provided smartphone or just a pen and a notebook, professionals carry something with them to jot down important notes and tasks to ensure they get the work that needs to be done. SAPS members must be punctual by getting in the habit of being punctual, buffer your arrival times and deadlines to give yourself leeway. If your start time is 9 am, or if you have a meeting at 9 am, then arrive no later than 8:45. If your boss gives you a project due date of noon by Friday, aim to deliver an hour or so earlier. When you're on time either for a work day or a meeting or with completing a project or task it sends a message that you're a dependable employee who knows how to manage time.[sic]

SMP5 responded that when the SAPS members are organised, it decreases their chances of missing deadlines, provides spacing on tasks, and avoids misplacing of work files; it also increases their self-confidence in getting the job done right. He further stated that SAPS members must be punctual. By getting in the habit of being punctual, it buffers their arrival times and meeting of deadlines.

SMP6 a senior manager responded positively by stating that:

...the SAPS employees should be dependable so when it comes to being dependable, aim for pleasant surprises. For instance, be the person who can swoop in and save the day and help your boss or co-workers with a task or project when someone else drops a bad surprise! When colleagues recognise that you're good at your job, they'll naturally assume you're good at other things too and will feel comfortable coming to you if you consistently prove them right. SAPS employee should become ace at their jobs one of the fundamental ways to be professional at work is to stay updated on new advances in your profession; take employer-budgeted courses for improving your skills or pay your

way if you have to; and just generally strive to get the best results you can, in particular when your colleagues' results depend on yours. Also, employees to stay on top of SAPS information at all times: pay attention in departmental meetings and follow company memos circulated through internal communication channels so that you always know "what's going on" when people ask.[sic]

SMP6 remarked that for the SAPS to become professional, police officers should be dependable so when it comes to being dependable, they should aim for pleasant surprises. He concluded that SAPS employees should become "aces at their jobs". One of the fundamental ways to be professional at work is to stay updated on new advances in their profession; take employer-budgeted courses for improving their skills or pay their way if they have to; and generally strive to get the best results they can, in particular when their colleagues' results depend on theirs.

5.6.2 Category B: Middle Management

MMP1 was quoted as saying that:

...there must be an incentive for more experienced members of SAPS. The employer must also make the field of training open, with regard to recruitment of detective trainers. Members should be promoted after being five years in rank. In conclusion SAPS employees should excel in communication, a real pro knows how to bridge communication gaps between different types of people, and across different departments. They know how to get their point across while being mindful of others and always keeping their cool. Professional communication skills need to be employed in the meeting room, at the water cooler, and especially over email and other instant communications, where all too often, people fire off heated messages, they come to regret later or employ a tone with their words that get misinterpreted.[sic]

SMP1 responded that there should be incentives for the more experienced members of SAPS. SAPS should also make the field of training open, with regard to the recruitment of detective trainers. In conclusion, SAPS employees should excel in communication; a true professional knows how to bridge communication gaps between different types of

people, and across different departments and members to be promoted after being in a rank for five years or more:

MMP2 reiterated this sentiment by stating that:

...by appointing skilled and committed members in critical positions. Promote the experienced and qualified members. SAPS to provide standardised in-service training throughout SAPS.[sic]

In conclusion, SAPS employees should be intellectually honest. If one loses their temper at work at some point, the professional thing to do is apologise and walk away from the situation to a point where a less-heated conversation can occur. Professionals are not afraid to take responsibility and admit when they are wrong before a situation gets out of hand; colleagues will respect this professional for this mature conduct. Similarly, one should not be afraid to admit they do not have all the answers by saying *I don't know*, or by asking questions. Real professionals are always eager to learn new things and get a better understanding of what is expected of them.

SMP2 responded that SAPS should appoint skilled and committed members in critical positions, promote the experienced and qualified members. He concluded by stating that SAPS employees should be intellectually honest.

MMP3 further echoed his colleagues' sentiments by saying that:

...all police officers should undergo a competency assessment and be rated accordingly. Officers who do not meet the requirements should not be promoted or appointed to a higher level until they meet the required competency. Furthermore, SAPS employees should avoid office politics and pay attention to their work, it's an unfortunate truth that office politics are a part of life, but if you do your best to avoid office drama and stay far away from co-worker gossip, you're more likely to establish the professional reputation you want. Just because people talk about you doesn't mean you need to talk about them, but you do need to be aware of what they're saying, especially if their words can ruin your reputation even indirectly.[sic]

MMP3 responded that all police officers should undergo a competence assessment and be rated accordingly. Furthermore, SAPS employees should avoid office politics and pay attention to their work. It is an unfortunate truth that office politics are a part of life; however if one does their best to avoid office tensions and stay far away from co-worker gossip, one is more likely to establish the professional reputation they seek.

MMP4 remarked as follows:

...SAPS to ensure professional training to improve competency and excellence. Create a knowledge base of critical information and best practices to pass on to new members as the organisation grows. Embark more on mentoring and coaching endeavours. SAPS to appoint experienced members who can put their skills and knowledge to work in achieving the goals and objectives of the organisation.[sic]

MMP4 responded that the SAPS should ensure professional training to improve competence and excellence. The SAPS should create a knowledge base of critical information and best practices to pass on to new members as the organisation grows. SMP4 concluded by stating that the SAPS needs experienced members who can put their skills and knowledge to work in achieving the goals and objectives of the organisation.

MMP5 remarked as follows:

...a professional police service is essential for a robust criminal justice system. SAPS should link the police code of conduct and a professional police practice to the promotion and disciplinary regulations. Furthermore, recruitment should attract competent, skilled professionals through a two-track system. All officers should conduct a competency assessment and rated accordingly. This rating should differ from police ranks. For example, a captain remains a captain, but the competency test but the competency test determine if he/she meet the requirements of being a captain. Officers who do not meet the requirements should not be promoted or appointed to a higher position until they attain the required level of competence. Secondly, the basic police stream would allow for recruitment and selection of commissioned officers, who could progress through

training and experience to the level of warrant officers or any level below the level of non-commission officer [sic].

A professional police service conforms to minimum standards for recruitment, selection, appointment and promotion. He recommended a two-stream system of recruitment and promotion, which is practical and can be to SAPS and the police officers' advantage. He further stated that direct recruitment to officers' stream should be based on set criteria, followed by training and testing for candidate officers. Officers should be commissioned when meeting all criteria. The basic and officers stream could be flexible, allowing aspirant officers to work towards meeting the criteria for appointment to the officers' corps.

5.6.3 Category C: Trainers

TP1 stated that:

...professionalism in the SAPS can be addressed by providing support from all levels of the organisation and addressing pressing issues in the organisation. Furthermore, SAPS employees should dress for success; a professional colleague once helped me avoid learning the above lesson the hard way. Early in my career, I switched from a company with a startup-like atmosphere to one that was much more corporate. I didn't notice the different dress code until a few days in when a colleague pulled me aside and politely suggested I make some sartorial changes. Thankfully, it was early enough on that only a few people had noticed what I hadn't noticed, as I found out later. Being professional at work doesn't mean always wearing a business suit. That would look silly if you worked with animals, for example. If your job comes with a dress code, follow it closely. Otherwise, learn what the professional standards are for your type of position and follow them instead, or if you're starting a new job, immediately train your eyes on how your co-workers dress and follow suit. Keep yourself well-groomed and always pay attention to personal hygiene. For example, always wear deodorant! [sic]

TP1 responded that professionalism in SAPS could be addressed by providing support from all levels of the organisation and addressing pressing issues in the organisation.

Furthermore, SAPS employees should dress for success. Being professional at work does not mean always wearing a business suit.

TP2 strongly demanded that:

...re-establish specialised units, staffed with highly trained and professional police officers, especially to respond to changing crime trends, for example, cyber-crime, human trafficking and crimes against women and children, and international crime syndicates. In conclusion technology development has dramatically influenced crime patterns and the commission on crime.[sic]

TP2 responded that the SAPS should renew focus on strengthening the capacity and training of detectives and specialist investigators, particularly in the field of forensics, ballistics and crime scene investigations.

TP3 stated that:

...SAPS members to adhere to SAPS code of conduct and to acquire theoretical skills. SAPS employees to stay positive, a professional looks forward to the opportunities and challenges that each new day brings. SAPS should develop accountable, professional, competent and highly skilled police officers. [sic]

TP3 responded that SAPS members should adhere to the SAPS Code of Conduct and acquire theoretical skills. This participant stated that SAPS should develop accountable, professional, competent and highly skilled police officers.

The demand is for honest, competent and professional policing [sic].

TP4 answered as follows:

...for the police to be professional SAPS should be demilitarised, and the culture of the police should be reviewed to instil the best possible discipline and ethos associated with professional police service. The police require the capacity and skills to become more

competent, professional and competent. The community will see them as resources that protect them and respond to their needs, based on the laws of the country.[sic]

TP4 responded that SAPS should be demilitarised, and the culture of the police should be reviewed to instil the best possible discipline and ethos associated with a professional police service. The police require the capacity and skills to become more competent and professional.

TP5 felt that:

...for SAPS to be professional they should increase community participation in safety. Civil-society organisations and civic participation are essential elements of a safe and secure society. Community policing fora should be strengthened to adequate oversight of the police at the community level. Introduce changes to the community policing fora thereby expanding its role to deal with all matters in the system, such as policing outcome, support to the correctional supervision of out-of-court sentences and parole boards.[sic]

The complex, ever-changing nature of crime requires the police to continually review and assess their approaches to combating crime as required by the South African Constitution. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa affords municipalities to be responsible for the creation of safe and healthy communities. The objective can be achieved by establishing community safety centres in communities where women and children are most vulnerable. Particular emphasis should be placed on oversight functions of the community forum by expanding its role to deal with all matters in the system, such as policing outcome, support to the correctional supervision of out-of-court sentences and parole boards.

TP6 showed a keen understanding of the broader role of the police in his response:

...For SAPS to be professional, a code of practice should be developed and prescribed through regulations. Police officers should be trained and tested in its application. This should be a compulsory course and failure to pass lead to suspension or dismissal from

the service. Ethical conduct should be practice to maintain the public perception of policing as a professional institution. The code should also prescribe the off-duty obligation of police officials to honour the badge as a symbol of trust [sic].

TP6 stated that SAPS ought to develop a professional code of practice that will be prescribed through regulations. Police officers are advised to be trained and tested in its application. This should be a compulsory course and failure to pass ought to lead to suspension or dismissal from the service. The police ought to be viewed as professionals, working in a skilled occupation to protect the public without discrimination, and respect the constitutional rights of all for equality and justice.

TP7 stated that:

...for SAPS to become professional a national board should be established, with multi-sectoral and multi-disciplinary expertise. It should set standards for recruiting, selecting, appointing and promoting police officers. The board should also develop a code of ethics and analyse the professional standing of policing, based on international norms and standards.[sic]

TP7 stated that a professional police service should conform to minimum standards for recruitment, selection, appointment and promotion. It is recommended that a national police board be established, with multi-sectoral and multi-disciplinary expertise. The board should also develop a code of ethics and analyse the professional standing of policing, based on international norms and standards.

TP8 stated that for SAPS to be professional, they should:

...for SAPS to address the challenge the organisation must support the police officers sense of efficacy and level of professionalism. Furthermore, SAPS officers to treat the community with respect, treat others with respect by giving every person whom they come in contact the same respect. Acknowledging that everyone is different and may have different circumstances than you can help you be a better team player and professional. In conclusion, SAPS officers to continue their education and training. Make an effort to go beyond conventional expectations for your job by committing to lifelong

learning. They should enrol in continuing education classes or programmes in your specific field. Staying on top of the latest developments can help them go above and beyond and also shows your commitment to being a professional [sic].

TP8 stated that SAPS should address the challenge that the organisation must support the police officers' sense of efficacy and level of professionalism. SAPS officers should treat the community with respect, treat others with respect by giving every person whom they come into contact with the same respect. In conclusion, SAPS officers should advance their education and training.

TP9 stated that:

...for the SAPS to become professional they should follow ethical practices. Ethics are the moral standards that regulate right and wrong conduct in professional and personal settings. They should ask questions of superiors, colleagues, friends, and even bosses if you are unsure of how best to apply ethical principles to situations they may encounter. Trainers should comply with SAPS ethical regulations, follow for developing professionalism in performing duties with objectivity, due diligence, and professional care, serving in the interest of all parties involved in a lawful manner, maintaining privacy and confidentiality of information when applicable and continuing education for your work [sic].

TP9 stated that for SAPS to become professional, they should follow ethical practices. They have a duty to comply with SAPS' ethical regulations, follow developing professionalism in performing duties with objectivity, due diligence, and professional care, serving in the interest of all parties involved lawfully, maintaining privacy and confidentiality of information when applicable and continuing education for the benefit of their work.

TP10 stated that:

...for the SAPS to become professional they should conduct regular teamwork, teamwork is another essential element of developing professionalism. Trainers should

take time to figure out how you work best with each as colleagues and how they best collaborate with one another. Understanding these relationships can promote healthy teamwork and positive relationships with colleagues. In conclusion, trainers should develop competency and specialised Knowledge, acknowledge where your obligations lie. Being responsible for yourself and others are one of the cornerstone qualities of professionalism. Figure out whom or what you're professional and doing your work for. Understanding where and with whom your responsibilities can help you act ethically and professionally in any situation. For example, your obligations may lie with what your boss tells you to do. In other cases, such as with lawyers or doctors, your obligation may be to the public and your profession and not your employee [sic].

TP 10 stated that for SAPS to become professional, they should conduct regular teamwork. Teamwork is another essential element of developing professionalism. They should take time to figure out how to work best with each other as colleagues and how they can best collaborate with one another. In conclusion, they should develop competence and specialised knowledge, and acknowledge where their obligations lie. Being responsible for oneself and others is one of the cornerstone qualities of professionalism.

5.6.4 Discussion

All participants responded positively to question one: What are the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service? It becomes apparent that all participants understand that a professional trainer is a person who is better educated, highly trained, rule-oriented, respectful, knowledgeable, skilful and is equated with the professionalism of a police officer (cf. chapter 5. SMP1. p. 142). Elman, Illfelder-Kaye and Robiner (2005) argue that professional development is a broad and comprehensive concept describing the development, continued progress, change and growth of an individual over the course of a career. Elman et al., (2005) further note that PD is more than merely acquiring knowledge, skills and competence, but rather a commitment and theory of continued improvement (cf. chapter 2. par 1. p. 56).

Importantly, the trainer's competence and performance critically depend on the climate of the training establishment of the SAPS Education Training and Development Policy (SAPS, 2007c:4). Thus, the outcome, of this study can hopefully support trainers in the SAPS to effectively and efficiently discharge their duties. Alvsväg (2010) argues that professionalism is the possession of specialised knowledge and ethical values as core attributes followed by behaviour, caring, self-regulation, altruism, autonomy in practice, and participation in professional organisations (cf. chapter 2. par. 1. p. 51).

About question two: How would you describe the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service? In responding to this question, there was evidence of generally sharp contrast between a few participants. MMP1, MMP2, MMP3 and MMP5 stated that the trainers' professionalism in SAPS is acceptable. This appears to be contrary to participants' responses to theme one and three. With this evidence, the researcher concluded that the middle managers' voices, their responses on a personal viewpoint were not representative in general and in division training's various centres.

In the SAPS, initial training as referred to by Udrea (2014) emphasises that training is an opportunity granted to employees of an organisation to obtain a qualification that could enable them to perform a specific job or function. It is considered the first phase of an employee's professional development, and training after the recruitment and selection process has been completed (cf. chapter 3. par. 3. p. 78).

On question three: How can the levels of professionalism in the South African Police Service be improved? There was a positive response to the question. MMP2 responded that SAPS should appoint skilled and committed members in critical positions and promote the experienced and qualified members. They should further provide standardised in-service training throughout SAPS.

Meyer (2007) specifies that training entails the transfer of specific skills to an employee so that a specific job or task can be performed (cf. chapter 3. par. 1.p. 81). Training is concerned with skills' acquisition and work performance and, therefore, is task oriented. Pannel and Sheehan (2010) state that policing is a challenging and complex occupation that requires continuous development. Police officers must have intensive skills in

criminal law, investigation and risk effective decision-making (cf. chapter 3. par. 1.p. 86). The South African Police Service aims to develop professionalism and discipline among its members. In SAPS, initial training as referred to by Udrea (2014), is defined as an opportunity granted to the employees of an organisation to obtain a qualification that will enable them to perform a specific job or function. It is considered the first phase of an employee's professional development, and training after recruitment (cf. chapter 3. par. 3. p. 78).

5.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the findings of the qualitative research project were presented, analysed and discussed. The biographical information of the 21 participants was presented in a tabular format. This was done according to the different categories of interviewees: senior managers, middle managers and trainers.

Data collected from the interviews with the participants were presented in a narrative form. The responses were presented according to the three identified categories: What are the expected levels of professionalism within the South African Police Service? How would you describe the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service? Current levels of trainer professionalism and how can the levels of professionalism in the South African Police Service be improved? The responses were decoded, and the findings were discussed. The data analysis of this study revealed that trainers' professionalism in SAPS ought to be enhanced.

In the last chapter, six, the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study are presented.

CHAPTER 6

A SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1, the research background and context of the research problem were presented. The study aimed at identifying ways in which the levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service may be improved. The study, therefore, leans towards a combination of explorative and descriptive approaches, rather than explanatory or correlational. Data were collected through interviews in the participants' settings; the SAPS training institutes. The study aimed to assess the levels of professionalism of trainers in the SAPS.

A review of the literature was completed and documented in Chapter 2. This provided the theoretical and conceptual framework underpinning the study. Importantly, the theoretical foundation upon which the study is based articulates the theoretical perspectives relating to the research problem. The literature on adult learning, training and development, as well as professionalism in the SAPS was reviewed.

Chapter 3 provided a discussion of the aims, objectives and significance of In-Service Education and Training (INSET) and the different approaches that have been used to provide training to trainers with specific reference to the South African Police Service. In addition, this chapter gave an overview of INSET as it is currently provided to trainers in South Africa.

Chapter 4 described the research design and methods used in the study, as well as providing explanations as to why the chosen methods were appropriate for gathering the information needed to answer the questions emanating from the research problem.

Chapter 5 chronicled the empirical data of the study while in chapter six, the main purpose is to present a summary of the study findings, the recommendations, the

conclusions, as well as the areas for further study. Chapter 6 concludes with the introduction of the Trainer Growth Model (TGM), which could assist the SAPS trainers to develop holistically in the 21st century. Further, it is aimed at encouraging trainers to participate in continual learning and take proprietorship of their professional growth and personal well-being. Furthermore, the responses of the collected data helped the researcher to devise a proposed plan of competence based INSET Model for in-service training of trainers towards the promotion of quality education. The in-service trainer training programme commenced in 2001, which was a component of the more significant reform plan launched by the Federal Ministry of Education under the title Education Sectoral Reforms (ESR).

The role of a unified police service is to uphold the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. For this purpose, SAPS members are subjected to the SAPS Code of Conduct (1997). The code is a written undertaking that each member of the SAPS is obliged to uphold, to bring about a safe and secure environment for all inhabitants of South Africa (SAPS Code of Conduct 1997). All members of the SAPS are expected to make the code a part of their lives regarding the principles and values that inform this code. Furthermore, the SAPS Code of Conduct prescribes the way in which every member should behave, both on and off-duty. This code seeks to establish standard “police behaviour that does not allow any leniency for poor service delivery or corrupt activities” by members and is, therefore, expected to be embraced by all members in the course of their daily tasks (SAPS, 2007:2).

6.2 Limitations

Theoretically and practically, this research sought to contribute towards sustainable research knowledge. However, some limitations ought to be acknowledged. Limitations affect how the researcher can generalise the conclusions or how confident the researcher is about the conclusions. The study had a few significant limitations commonly seen in other studies. The sample drawn for this study was restricted to the SAPS environment and included representation from all the institutes as well as from all levels within the institutes. The fact that the study was conducted only in the Northern Cape Province is a limitation on its own, because it is not representative of the country’s nine provinces. It is, therefore, understood that because the project was

circumscribed and situated in a specific context, claims to generalisability of its findings would not be feasible. Marshall and Rossman (2011:252) however, argue that although no qualitative studies may be generalised in the statistical sense, their findings may be transferable.

Constraints that limited the size of the sample were the duration of the study and the geographical area covered. The study confined itself to a few senior managers, middle managers and trainers based at the training centres. The limitations of this study relate to the fact that this was undertaken over a more extended period. Time is an essential factor in research and can affect research findings positively or negatively. To carry out comprehensive research on the issue, funding, just like time, is equally essential in research. The researcher used personal resources to finance the research activities. Furthermore, he had to conduct the research and still attend to his work.

The candidate believes that the Hawthorne Effect may have had an effect on the integrity of his findings. The Hawthorne Effect is referred to as the observer effect and is a type of reactivity in which individuals modify an aspect of their behaviour in response to their awareness of being observed. Literature and proven research are uncommon. While this could be a limitation, it may also provide an opportunity to add value to the current body of knowledge.

6.3 FULFILMENT OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The conclusion indicates whether or not the objectives of this study were achieved. These were done by analysing each of the research objectives.

6.3.1 Research Question 1: Identify the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service

It is apparent from the study findings that participants expect a professional trainer to be a person who is better educated, highly trained, rule-oriented, and is equated with the professionalism of a police officer. Sharma and Kurukshetra (2013) argue that qualified trainers assist new employees in learning a particular job, quickly. The

trainer has to be of a higher competence than the learner is. Moreover, participants argued that a professional person is a person with a specific style in the workplace based on his or her values and professional behaviour (SMP1). Sharma and Kurukshetra (ibid) also share the same sentiments that training increases productivity because the new skill that the employee requires to perform the job is acquired through training. Therefore, once the skills of the employees have been increased, the quantity and quality of the output could also likely increase. Training does not focus on improving the skills and knowledge of new employees, but also enhances existing employees' performance on their current job assignments and prepares them for the future challenges (cf. par. 2. SMP1, p.143; cf. chapter 3. par. 1. p. 78). It is not only what the police do, but how they do it. The participants viewed a professional trainer as a person with advanced knowledge, skilful, knowledgeable and possessing the necessary experience. Participants responded that a trainer should be a person who has developed the best qualities of an officer, facilitate self-study and workplace learning as these contribute to the professionalisation of police training. The participants regard a professional trainer as an individual whose knowledge must be such that adult learners respect him or her in the classroom and trust his or her knowledge (cf. par. 4. SMP 2, p.143).

The participants further viewed a professional trainer as an individual who enables effective learning whether for young people or adults in training centres (cf. par. 2. SMP 2, p.144). According to SMP2, trainers in SAPS are not professional, Lino (2004) also affirms the importance of continuing education and training for police members, claiming that police education and training is the main prerequisite for law enforcement agencies to provide a more secure environment to the community (cf. chapter 3. par 1. p. 79). Trainers in the SAPS are not value-driven, are not guided by principles, passion, and a purpose bigger than themselves. Trainers are not growth-oriented and do not consider themselves lifelong adult learners and contributors. In conclusion, trainers should promote cohesiveness, collaboration, and team building in the workplace which is currently lacking. Mille and Das (2008:185) agree with Lino that the dichotomy in policing involves the maintenance of a balance "between the pressure to get things done and the pressure to get things done correctly". Criminal justice in a democratic community often demands the execution of crime control measures on one hand while simultaneously protecting the rights of the suspect on

the other hand (cf. chapter 3. par. 1. p. 101). Trainers are to be catalysts in promoting calculated risks that advance their profession and enable everyone access to success.

TP 7 argued that trainers in the SAPS do not act professionally. Some trainers feed into the office gossip; discuss co-workers with others, while some keep personal issues strictly confidential. Furthermore, they do not leave unexpressed feelings at the door, before entering the workplace and cannot pay attention to how they communicate with their seniors and others. Afshan, Sultana, Sobia, Irum, Kamran, Ahmed and Nasir Mahmood (2012) point out that employees are a crucial but expensive resource. Therefore, it is necessary that the skills and knowledge of employees be maximised to achieve the aims and goals of the organisation and to sustain economic growth and adequate performance. Van der Westhuizen and Wessels (2011) emphasise that training interventions are usually identified and scheduled in a co-ordinated way (cf. chapter 3. par. 3. p. 79).

A professional trainer has the primary task of educating, teaching, guiding, directing, training, assessing, and evaluating adult learners. High expectations in modern society are that the professionalism of trainers focuses on expectations in the present day competitive society (cf. par. 2. SMP 5, p.145). Present day postmodern and neo-liberal society can be characterised by a strong emphasis on economic and technological changes. Economic changes have led to a stronger globalised, market-oriented and competitive perspective with stronger central regulations. This changing market-oriented context for society and schools has resulted in changes in the expectations not only towards school leaders but also towards trainers, emphasising accountability, rationality, competitiveness and control.

6.3.2 Research Question 2: What are the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Services?

It is evident from the findings from senior managers and most of the trainers that trainers in the SAPS are not regarded as professionals because they do not belong to an organisation that promotes their profession above personal gain. Further, the trainers must have an NQF 6 qualification (cf. par. 1. MMP4. p.145; par. 3. TP1. p.

150; par.4. TP4, p.151; par. 2. SMP2, p. 160). Currently, there is a lack of professionalism among trainers in the SAPS (cf. chapter 1. par. 1. 2. p. 3). Pannel and Sheehan (2010) state that policing is a challenging and complex occupation that requires continuous development. Police officers must have intensive skills in criminal law, investigation and risk effective decision-making (cf. chapter 3. par 1. p. 83).

The SAPS needs professional qualifications; some trainers do not display professional ethics. Thus, there was no professional development and professional growth in the organisation. Mosia (2001) states that academic standards are set as benchmarks against which to measure the attainment or non-attainment of specific academic competencies. Educational inputs would typically refer to entry characteristics of adult learners, as well as the quality of the teaching they receive. Furthermore, Mosia (ibid) suggests that the learner should be proficient in all areas of the curriculum including being competent in both instruction and understanding which is especially necessary for these circumstances (cf. chapter 2. par. 2. p. 73).

In the findings from middle managers, on this question, a gap was identified that most participants regard themselves as professionals. This response is in contradiction with the research problem statement which states that there is a disturbing lack of commitment by trainers who do not attempt to give 100% effort to their profession' (cf. par. 5. MMP1, p.146; par. 2. MMP2, p.147; par. 2. MMP3, p.148; par. 2. MMP4, p.149). This manifests in many ways including failing to report for work when they have to present classes. This includes the inability to accept constructive criticism and irresponsible behaviour by failing to adhere to SAPS workplace monitor and evaluation assessment tools in evaluating adult learners. This results in non-adherence to institutional policies and instructions. This was the participants' individual view but not according to MMP4 who gave a good account of the trainers' professionalism in division training. Middle managers present classes and work at the provincial office daily and are not exposed to unprofessionalism at the training centres. However, they indicated problems with questions one and three. In some responses, it was apparent that they responded from individual points of view, for a trainer not to have professional academic qualifications and be a member of a professional organisation that promotes his profession above personal gain and does not have an NQF 6 qualification. MMP4, in his response, acknowledged the academic

qualifications' gap that trainers have. Professionals are people who have professional academic qualifications and are registered with a professional organisation that promotes their profession above personal gains such as doctors, nurses and auditors. Trainers may be professional in performing their work but are not regarded as professionals.

The responses by the middle managers could be ascribed to the Hawthorne Effect as they seemed to aim at pleasing the researcher with their responses. Sedgwick (2012) states that the Hawthorne Effect is referred to as the observer effect and is a type of reactivity in which individuals modify an aspect of their behaviour in response to their awareness of being observed. The change may be positive or negative and depends on the situation. It is a significant threat to a research study's internal validity and is typically controlled by using blind experiment designs. The Hawthorn Effect means that people, employees, trainers, managers in SAPS, and community members visiting the police station tend to behave differently when they believe they are being observed. The researcher considered this when conducting the study, building in elements to avoid this type of bias. The Hawthorne Effect is a tendency of participants of research to change their behaviour just because they are being studied. It is so called because the classic study in which this behaviour was discovered was in the Hawthorne Western Electric Company Plant in Illinois. In this study, workers improved their output regarding less changes in their working conditions.

There are several forms of reactivity. The Hawthorne effect occurs when research study participants know they are being studied and alter their performance because of the attention they receive from the experimenters. The John Henry effect, a specific form of the Hawthorne effect, occurs when the participants in the control group alter their behaviour out of awareness that they are in the control group. This negates the whole purpose of a control group. Reactivity is not limited to changes in behaviour about being merely observed; it can also refer to situations where individuals alter their behaviour to conform to the expectations of the observer. An experimenter effect occurs when the experimenters subtly communicate their expectations to the participants, who alter their behaviour to conform to these expectations. The pygmalion effect occurs when participants alter their behaviour to meet the

researcher's expectations. This is known as a self-fulfilling prophecy. Both experimenter effects and pygmalion effects can be caused by bias and stereotype, as demonstrated by studies involving stereotype threat.

Reactivity can also occur in response to self-report measures if the measure is elicited from research participants during a task. For example, both confidence ratings and judgements of learning, which are often provided repeatedly throughout cognitive assessments of learning and reasoning, have been found to be reactive. In addition, there may be critical individual differences in how participants react to a particular self-report measure. The double-blinded procedure is a means of reducing bias in an experiment by ensuring that both those who administer a threat and those who receive it do not know which study participants are in the control and the experimental group.

6.3.3 Research Question 3: How could the levels of professionalism within the South African Police Service be improved?

The findings of this research question indicate that the SAPS ought to adopt a 'back to basics' approach, link promotion to the next rank with the successful completion of learning programmes, upgrade stations and provide stations with enough resources. SAPS members all undergo a competence assessment to gauge whether they meet the required standards for their current ranks. Officers who do not meet these standards may not be considered for promotion until they attain the required level of competence for that rank (cf. par. 4. MMP3. p.177; par. 4. MMP4. p.178). The participants further stated that competence, being reliable, keeping promises, standing up to tough situations, and focusing on solutions versus making excuses, was necessary. SAPS members ought to have integrity, keep promises, be trustworthy, and do the right thing, even when it requires tough choices. Trainers ought to preferably gain specialised knowledge in making a personal commitment to assessing current knowledge and planning ways to develop and improve in lacking areas. Training assists in improving the skills of the employees in such a way that the time required for them to learn might be reduced due to training. Therefore, there will

be no need for employees to waste time by learning through observation of other colleagues. Qualified trainers will be assisting new employees to learn a particular job, quickly (Sharma & Kurukshetra, 2013:4) (cf. chapter 3. par. 3. p. 78). Professionalism provides the autonomy and responsibility central to teaching, as trainers must regularly make fine-grained decisions about the learning needs of individual young people (Connell 2009; Gewirtz et al., 2009; Groundwater-Smith & Mockler, 2009). At its ideal, professionalism has the potential to contribute to a robust discourse of quality improvement.

Importantly, the trainer's competence and performance critically depend on the climate of the training establishment of the SAPS Education Training and Development Policy (SAPS, 2007c:4). Thus, the outcome of this study can hopefully support trainers in the SAPS to effectively and efficiently discharge their duties. Alvsväg (2010) argues that professionalism is the possession of specialised knowledge and ethical values as core attributes followed by behaviour, caring, self-regulation, altruism, autonomy in practice, and participation in professional organisations (cf. chapter 2. par. 1. p. 51). In responding to this question, there was evidence of generally sharp contrast between a few participants. MMP1, MMP2, MMP3 and MMP5 stated that the trainers' professionalism in SAPS was acceptable.

This appears to be contrary to participants' responses to theme one and three. With this evidence, the researcher concluded that the middle managers' voices, their responses on a personal viewpoint were not representative in general and in division training various centres. Meyer (2007), specifies that training entails the transfer of specific skills to an employee so that a specific job or task can be performed (cf. chapter 3. par. 1.p. 81). Training is concerned with skills' acquisition and work performance and, therefore, is task oriented. Pannel and Sheehan (2010), state that policing is a challenging and complex occupation that requires continuous development. Police officers are required to have intensive skills in criminal law, investigation and risk effective decision-making (cf. chapter 3. par. 1.p. 86). The South African Police Service aims to develop professionalism and discipline among its members. In the SAPS, initial training as referred to by Udrea (2014), is defined as an opportunity granted to the employees of an organisation to obtain a qualification that will enable them to perform a specific job or function. It is considered as the first

phase of an employee's professional development, and training after the recruitment and selection process has been conducted (cf. chapter 3. par. 3. p. 78).

Participants stated that the SAPS should appoint skilled and committed members in critical positions. The experienced and qualified members ought to be promoted. Dessler (2008) sees training as the means of giving new or current employees the skills they need to perform at their various jobs (cf. chapter 3. par. 2. p. 80). Continuing, he sees training as the hallmark of proper management and thus when managers ignore training, they are doing so to the significant disadvantage of the organisations they are managing. This is because having high potential employees does not guarantee they will perform on-the-job and why every employee must know what management wants him to do and how he must do it. Training is, therefore, necessary to ensure an adequate supply of employees that are technically and socially competent for both departmental and management positions (Mullins, 2007) (cf. chapter 3. par. 2. p. 80).

Ahmed, Sultana, Irum and Mohamood (2012), argue the importance of training as the central role of management. The one contribution a manager is uniquely expected to make is to give others the vision and ability to perform (cf. chapter 3. par. 1. p. 97). The SAPS ought to create a knowledge base of critical information and best practices to pass on to new members as the organisation grows. Participants responded that the SAPS ought to embark more on mentoring and coaching endeavours. Participants further responded that the SAPS could re-establish specialised units, staffed with highly trained and professional police officers, especially to respond to changing crime trends. These could be cyber-crime, human trafficking and crimes against women and children, and international crime syndicates. In conclusion, technology development has dramatically influenced crime patterns and the commission of a crime.

Khanfar's (2011) views substantiate Brum's (2007) claim regarding employee performance that is provided by training (cf. chapter 3. par. 2. p. 85). Botha et al., (2007) state that training is the specific way of facilitating learning in an institution. Formal learning in an institution forms the necessary foundation for programmes and improves attitudes and beliefs, knowledge or skills and behaviour through

experiences. To prepare their workers to do their work as desired, SAPS provides training to optimise their employees' potential (cf. chapter 3. par. 2. p. 90).

For the SAPS to be professional, a professional code of practice has to be developed and prescribed through regulations. It is advised that police officers be trained and tested in its application. This is to be a compulsory course, and failure to pass ought to lead to suspension or dismissal from the service. Ethical conduct ought to be practised to maintain the public perception of policing as a professional institution. The code should also prescribe the off-duty obligation of police officials to honour the badge as a symbol of trust (cf. chapter 2. par. 3. p. 56; par. 2. p. 57; par. 2, 3. p. 58). For the SAPS to become professional, a national board ought to be established, with multi-sectoral and multi-disciplinary expertise. It should set standards for recruiting, selecting, appointing and promoting police officers. Further, it is recommended that the board develop a code of ethics and analyse the professional standing of policing, based on international norms and standards.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE, TRAINING MANAGERS AND TRAINERS

This section is devoted to the elucidation of the recommendations in accordance with the primary research aim and the three objectives of this study. The concluding objective of this study states that recommendations for improving the levels of professionalism within the South African Police Service be raised. They are, however, organised into two categories: recommendations for SAPS and training centre managers. The recommendations presented in this section are based on the findings and the literature review of this study. The recommendations focus on crucial aspects that contribute to trainers' professionalism in SAPS, with the possibility of turning it into an organisation in readiness to implement workplace learning.

6.4.1 RECOMMENDATION 1: Trainers to be rewarded for good performance

It is recommended that training managers ought to reward trainers for good performance. Informal learning has also taken a stronger position in the workplace. Employees have come to realise that the situatedness of their learning, which they

have gained through activities at work and because of work, is valuable for the performance and production of the organisation. They seek recognition and reward for that at a faster pace than their older colleagues, relying on formal learning (Vaughan, 2008:14) (cf. par. 2. chapter 2. p. 23). Learning takes place through active engagement on both individual level constructivism including participation through affordances in social settings (Billett, 2002b). While the Communities of Practice (CoP) theory may be relevant to the SAPS Academy where the training intervention starts due to its supporting structures, it might not be the case in the adult learners' work environments (Jawitz, 2009:613). In their workplaces, they are confronted with a stronger police culture that might not be as enabling as believed to be by the course developers (Billett & Choy, 2013:271). However, their learning may still be taking place in an authentic, legitimate practice training (cf. par. 2. chapter 2. p. 23).

Muzaffar, Salamat and Ali (2012) indicate that to increase the employees' performance, it is crucial to inspire the employees by means of satisfying the space in between skills necessary and the owned or operated staff through delivering appropriate training (cf. par. 2. chapter 2. p. 23). According to Hallenberg (2012:11), academic education plays a vital role in the cultural change of the police service. It will, however, be difficult to change the perceptions and scepticism of police officers and the current police culture where the police are more concerned with decision-making and management of practical tasks, as opposed to academic education that focuses on analysis and broadening one's perspective (Paterson, 2011:7) (cf. par. 3. chapter 3. p. 115). MMP1 (p.147), a middle manager stated, "the best of trainers maintain a balance between laughter, intensity and credibility, adult learners demand credibility from their instructors. It is important that a trainer's credibility be developed before the training, maintained throughout the training, and reinforced after the training; exceptional knowledge trainers are hungry for knowledge". SMP5 (p.144) stated that trainers in SAPS are learned, professionals; they display courtesy; trainers` are dependable, co-operative and committed to their work. SAPS trainers are catalysts in promoting calculated risks that advance their profession and enable everyone access to success. Trainers create a climate of ownership by ensuring that everyone involved in the educational process is invited to participate. Furthermore, trainers act with integrity; they are considerate and empathetic to the adult learners. SMP6 (p.163) stated that SAPS trainers are professional. At SAPS, trainers are

geared towards ensuring that officers are sufficiently skilled, with the necessary confidence to respond to the complexities of every-day policing. When necessary, they need to be able to use force to defend themselves, defend other people, carry out arrests, and bring violent situations under control. They also ensure that the relevant use of force is proportionate to the circumstances at hand, and is in line with legislation and prescripts.

Participants, who were interviewed, agreed that formal training needs to be implemented to install discipline among trainers and committed police employees. SMP1 (p.161) stated “currently SAPS trainers are not professional because they do not belong to an organisation that promotes their profession above personal gain and the trainers must have an NQF 6 qualification. The trainer must be of a higher standard than the learner”. Participants furthermore, argued that a professional person is a person with a specific style in the workplace based on his or her values and professional behaviour. SMP2 (p.161) said, “trainers are not professionals; a professional trainer is a competent person who diagnoses and prescribes options for educational success and significance. Professional trainers believe their work is a vocation and calling rather than an occupation where one merely occupies space. In conclusion, professional trainers recognise that change is the norm”. (cf. SMP3. p.162), SMP3 stated “trainers in SAPS are not professional. Trainers in SAPS are not value-driven, guided by principles, passion, and a purpose bigger than themselves. Trainers are not growth-oriented and do not consider themselves lifelong adult learners and contributors. In conclusion, trainers should promote cohesiveness, collaboration, and team-building in the workplace which is lacking in the workplace. Trainers to be catalysts in promoting calculated risks that advance their profession and enable everyone access to success” [sic.]. TP4 (p.168) said, “trainers in SAPS are organisational trainers who specialise in in-house law enforcement training; they are not professional trainers. Trainers in SAPS need professional qualifications; some trainers do not display professional ethics, and there’s no professional development and professional growth in the organisation”. (SMP4 (p.162) concluded that “trainers in SAPS, are not professionals, trainers do not create a climate of ownership by ensuring that everyone involved in the educational process is invited to participate. Trainers to promote the “we are better together philosophy” [sic.].

TP 7 argued that trainers in the SAPS do not act professionally. Some trainers engage in office gossip; discuss co-workers with others, and some keep personal issues strictly confidential. Furthermore, they do not leave unexpressed feelings at the door, before entering the workplace and cannot pay attention to how they communicate with their seniors and others. Afshan, Sultana, Sobia, Irum, Kamran, Ahmed and Nasir Mahmood (2012:646) point out that employees are a crucial but expensive resource. Therefore, it is necessary that the skills and knowledge of employees be maximised to achieve the aims and goals of the organisation and to sustain economic growth and adequate performance. Van der Westhuizen and Wessels (2011:316) emphasise that training interventions are generally identified and scheduled in a coordinated way (chapter 3. par. 3. p. 79).

Currently, there is a lack of professionalism among trainers in the SAPS (cf. chapter 1. par. 1. 2. p. 3). Police professionalism is proactive policing, which implies going beyond traditional definitions of policing. This includes improved accountability, strong leadership, continual professional development of police, training, integrity, quality of service delivery and promoting police professionalism (Schneider, 2009:26). Meaningful professional development, therefore, is a blend of education and training. Education-based professional development engages the person's effectiveness within their profession. It develops the core skills that enable the person to strive for excellence and mastery in their field of professionalism (Harrison, 2003) (cf. chapter 1. par. 1. p. 2).

Being a trainer in the SAPS does not constitute being a member of a professional body. Trainers present in-house courses that are not SASSETA accredited; they are only usable within the police service. Pannel and Sheehan (2010) state that policing is a challenging and complex occupation that requires continuous development. Police officers are required to have intensive skills in criminal law, investigation and risk effective decision-making. They also ,need investigative knowledge and other skills as they advance in their career (cf. chapter 3. par. 2. p. 81). Grobler et al., (2011:340) state training is a process which results in people acquiring capabilities to assist in the achievement of organisational goals. With this process, employees gain skills and information tailored to a specific process or workplace. One of the main purposes of training and development is to improve the performance of an

organisation (Grobler et al., 2011) (cf. chapter 3. par. 2. p. 81). Sharma and Kurukshetra (2013) further explain that INSET also assists in ensuring the standardisation of procedures, which further allows high levels of performance. If employees are trained, they work intelligently and make a few mistakes because they possess the required skills and knowledge (cf. chapter 3. par.3. p. 86). Trainers are professional regarding their behaviour and professional appearance. MMP5 stated that some trainers in the SAPS are organisational trainers who specialise in in-house law enforcement training; they are not professional trainers.

The SAPS requires professional qualifications; some trainers do not display professional ethics. Thus, there was no professional development and professional growth in the organisation. Mosia (2001:76) states that academic standards are set as benchmarks against which to measure the attainment or non-attainment of specific academic competence. Educational inputs would typically refer to entry characteristics of adult learners, as well as the quality of the teaching they receive. Furthermore, Mosia (ibid) suggests that the learner has a duty to be proficient in all areas of the curriculum including being competent in both instruction and understanding which is especially necessary for these circumstances (cf. chapter 2. par. 2. p. 73).

6.2 Recommendation 2: Training managers to create opportunities for staff development

It is recommended that training managers assist their staff in developing professionally. It is recommended that management support and encourage training and initiate those training courses that are work-related and address organisational goals. SMP1 (p.175) stated “all officers should undergo a competence assessment to gauge whether they meet the required standards for their current ranks. Officers who do not meet these standards ought not to be considered for promotion until they attain the required level of competence for that rank. Competence, being reliable, keeping promises, standing up to tough situations, and focusing on solutions versus making excuses ought to be the order of the day. Integrity, keeping promises, being trustworthy, and doing the right thing, even when it requires tough choices is a

requirement. Specialised knowledge is making a personal commitment to assessing current knowledge and planning ways to develop and improve in lacking areas". SMP2 (p.176) said "the SAPS should adopt a back to basics approach, link promotion to the next rank with the successful completion of learning programmes and upgrade stations and provide stations with enough resources. SAPS members should all be wearing appropriately professional clothing and present an equally professional demeanour. Overall positive image results in gaining respect and building confidence. Professionalism is displayed in demeanour and competence. It is also shown in the ability to organise oneself and work" [sic.]. SMP3 (p.176) stated "SAPS should recognise the contribution made by police officers on the ground evaluating the member's performance and commitment to improving their practice through appropriate development." SMP4 state "by continuously utilising the monitoring and evaluation strategy and to establish a Professional Forum for members to discuss challenges and best practices. SAPS to provide its members with quality training" [sic.].

The participants agreed that trainers need to be developed in the work place and in line with what Udrea (2014) emphasises that training is an opportunity granted to employees of an organisation to obtain a qualification that could enable them to perform a specific job or function. It is considered as the first phase of an employee's professional development and training after the recruitment and selection process has been completed (cf. chapter 3. par. 3. p. 78). Individual interview responses concurred with each specifically the following question: "How could the levels of professionalism by trainers within the South African Police Service be improved". They agreed that trainers needed to be developed in the workplace and this is supported by literature". Elman, Illfelder-Kaye and Robiner (2005) argue that Professional Development (PD) is a broad and comprehensive concept describing the development, continued progress, change and growth of an individual over the course of a career. Elman et al., (2005) further notes that PD is more than merely acquiring knowledge, skills and competence, but rather a commitment and theory of continued improvement (cf. chapter 2. par 1. p. 56). The South African Police Service aims to develop professionalism and discipline among its members. At SAPS, initial training as referred to by Udrea (2014) is defined as an opportunity granted to the employees to obtain a qualification that will enable them to perform a specific job. It

is considered the first phase of an employee's professional development (cf. chapter 3. par. 3. p. 78).

6.3 Recommendation 3: the SAPS Code of conduct

In the context of this thesis, it is important to note that preventing misconduct is as complex as the phenomenon of misconduct itself. Therefore, a range of integrated mechanisms is needed for its successful reduction, including sound ethics management systems. In light of the research, the following are recommended:

- a) The SAPS to develop a comprehensive ethics education and training programme for the integration into their existing curricula at the training centres as well as in-service training for current members through the workshop systems. The envisaged training ought to provide the implementable guidelines for the practical application of professional ethics that enhances full cognisance of a broader campaign that promotes the Batho Pele principles.
- b) It is recommended that the SAPS provide a climate in which trainers can be encouraged to participate in INSET activities which have been designed to improve their teaching strategies. Knowledge of the principles of andragogy may assist them to understand the science of adult learning.
- c) In relation to the code of conduct, it is acknowledged that the SAPS already has a code of conduct, but the adoption of a comprehensive functional code is recommended for the entire service. The comprehensive functional code will require regular compliance, monitoring and evaluation entrenching the established ethical principles and standards. Individual police officers ought to consider the nature and the extent of their relationship with citizens and identify individual police officers who do not show appropriate commitment to such principles and standards. It is acknowledged that the development and full implementation of an ethics programme takes a considerable amount of time. Therefore, a regular interim report on progress may be made available during the implementation process. The effective implementation of a comprehensive functional code of conduct requires the establishment of the following compliance standards and procedures:

- the assignment of the high-level individuals to oversee employee compliance with the code;
- the exercise of due care in the delegation of the discretionary authority;
- the communication with and training of all police officers regarding the SAPS values and compliance procedures;
- the monitoring, auditing and provision of safe reporting systems;
- the enforcement of appropriate disciplinary measures with consistency and response to offences to prevent recurrence; and
- the definition of a methodology for the implementation of the code of conduct already in force. Further, the reduction of the punitive character of the code of conduct to emphasise education without an overreliance on punishment.

It is worth noting that these recommendations are not only desirable but are also necessary to strengthen the current efforts of trying to improve service delivery in the SAPS. The SAPS Code of Conduct (1997) helps to shape the corporate identity by creating an image of the professional police officer and dictating the focus of professional police officers. This happens as they have to commit to achieving a safe and secure environment for all the people of South Africa. Traditional notions of professionalism understand it to be hallmarked by specialised knowledge, autonomy and responsibility (Furlong & Maynard, 1995) (cf chapter two. par 1 p. 50). In responding to the question: Current levels of trainer professionalism, SMP3, SMP4, MMP4, TP1, TP2, TP3, TP6, TP7, TP8 and TP10 agreed in their responses that SAPS trainers are not professionals. According to Kernaghan and Dwivendi (1983), ethics is that “branch of philosophy which concerns human characters and conduct. It is composed of the distinction between right and wrong and one’s moral duty and obligations to the community as a whole” (Cf. chapter 2. par 1. p. 57). The useful enhancement of positive work ethics and ethos has the potential to protect the integrity of individual police officers and the SAPS. These recommendations can be used by commanders in various police stations in reviewing their ethics management systems and evaluation of the extent to which ethics is operationalised in their areas of responsibility. However, these recommendations are insufficient in their isolated nature and may be seen as a way of integrating ethics management with the broader moral regenerative interventions.

6.4 Recommendation 4: Current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service

It is recommended that the SAPS adopt a “back to basics” approach and link it to promotion to the next rank with the successful completion of learning programmes, upgrade and provide stations with enough resources. SMP2 (p.178) stated “the SAPS should adopt a back to basics approach, link promotion to the next rank with the successful completion of learning programmes and upgrade stations and provide stations with enough resources. SAPS members should all be wearing appropriately professional clothing and present an equally professional demeanour” [sic.].

Elman, Illfelder-Kaye and Robiner (2005) argue that professional development is a broad and comprehensive concept describing the development, continued progress, change and growth of an individual over the course of a career. Elman et al., (2005) further notes that PD is more than merely acquiring knowledge, skills and competence, but rather a commitment and theory of continued improvement (cf. chapter 2. par 1. p. 56). Importantly, the trainer’s competence and performance critically depend on the climate of the training establishment of the SAPS Education Training and Development Policy (SAPS, 2007c:4). Thus, the outcome of this study can hopefully support trainers in the SAPS to effectively and efficiently discharge their duties. Alvsväg (2010) argues that professionalism is the possession of specialised knowledge and ethical values as core attributes followed by behaviour, caring, self-regulation, altruism, autonomy in practice, and participation in professional organisations (cf. chapter 2. par. 1. p. 51). Importantly, the trainer’s competence and performance critically depend on the climate of the training establishment of the SAPS Education Training and Development Policy (SAPS, 2007c:4). Thus, the outcome, of this study can hopefully support trainers in the SAPS to effectively and efficiently discharge their duties.

On question two: How would you describe the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service? In responding to this question, there was evidence of generally sharp contrast between a few participants. MMP1, MMP2,

MMP3 and MMP5 stated that the trainers' professionalism in SAPS is acceptable. This appears to be contrary to participants' responses to theme one and three. With this evidence, the researcher concluded that the middle managers' voices, their responses on a personal viewpoint were not representative in general and in division training various centres. In the SAPS, initial training as referred to by Udrea (2014) is an opportunity granted to employees of an organisation to obtain a qualification that could enable them to perform a specific job or function. It is considered the first phase of an employee's professional development (cf. chapter 3. par. 3. p. 78).

6.5 A PROPOSED MODEL TO ENHANCE TRAINERS' PROFESSIONALISM

The in-service trainer training programme commenced in 2001, which was a component of the more significant reform plan launched by the Federal Ministry of Education under the title ESR. The TGM is a professional development model and an ESR model aimed at helping trainers to develop holistically in the 21st century. It is intended to encourage trainers to engage in continual learning, and take ownership of their professional growth and personal well-being. The TGM also recognises that trainers need to be equipped with the knowledge and techniques so that they are better able to develop adult learners holistically. The TGM envisages that trainers who are well-qualified and committed will enrich themselves academically, professionally and consequently, bring repute to the profession. The TGM encourages trainers to pursue their development through multiple modes of learning, including undergoing training, mentoring, implementing a research-based practice, networking and experiential learning. The SAPS is committed to investing in the professional growth of trainers. The service will continue to support trainers as they engage in continual learning throughout their careers.

The literature further proposed constructivist pedagogy for designing these research learning programmes. In addition, during the discussion of the data, it became clear that this data are a useful instrument for improving the SAPS. As a result, the TGM was developed based on the literature review; participants' responses facilitated the researcher to suggest a TGM. The researcher, therefore, sketched the model keeping in view the strengths of the programme, problems and flaws. As pilot testing of the proposed model is by itself another research to avoid any biases, another

independent research is recommended to judge its validity, reliability and applicability. The study also enabled the researcher to suggest the TGM as part of a comprehensive approach to INSET, keeping the demands of a knowledge-based society in focus towards achieving the aim of quality training. The purpose of the model is intended to serve as a framework of reference for the facilitation of contact in the relationship of training for trainers in the SAPS.

6.5.1 Structure of the model

The structure of the model is the “overall morphological arrangement of the elements” of that model (Chinn & Kramer, 2008:304). A core feature of the proposed trainer model is the strategy of bridging the gap between the present state to a desirable future state. Figure 6.1 (below) is a model that shows that proper implementation of trainers using the TGM can improve trainers’ discipline, and therefore learner outcomes at the training centre. This model can deliver the ‘stepping stones’ required to reach the desired end. The type of training suggested through the proposed TGM ought to be categorical to enhance competencies and quality education.

RESEARCH-BASED INSET MODEL (DIAGRAMMATIC FORM)

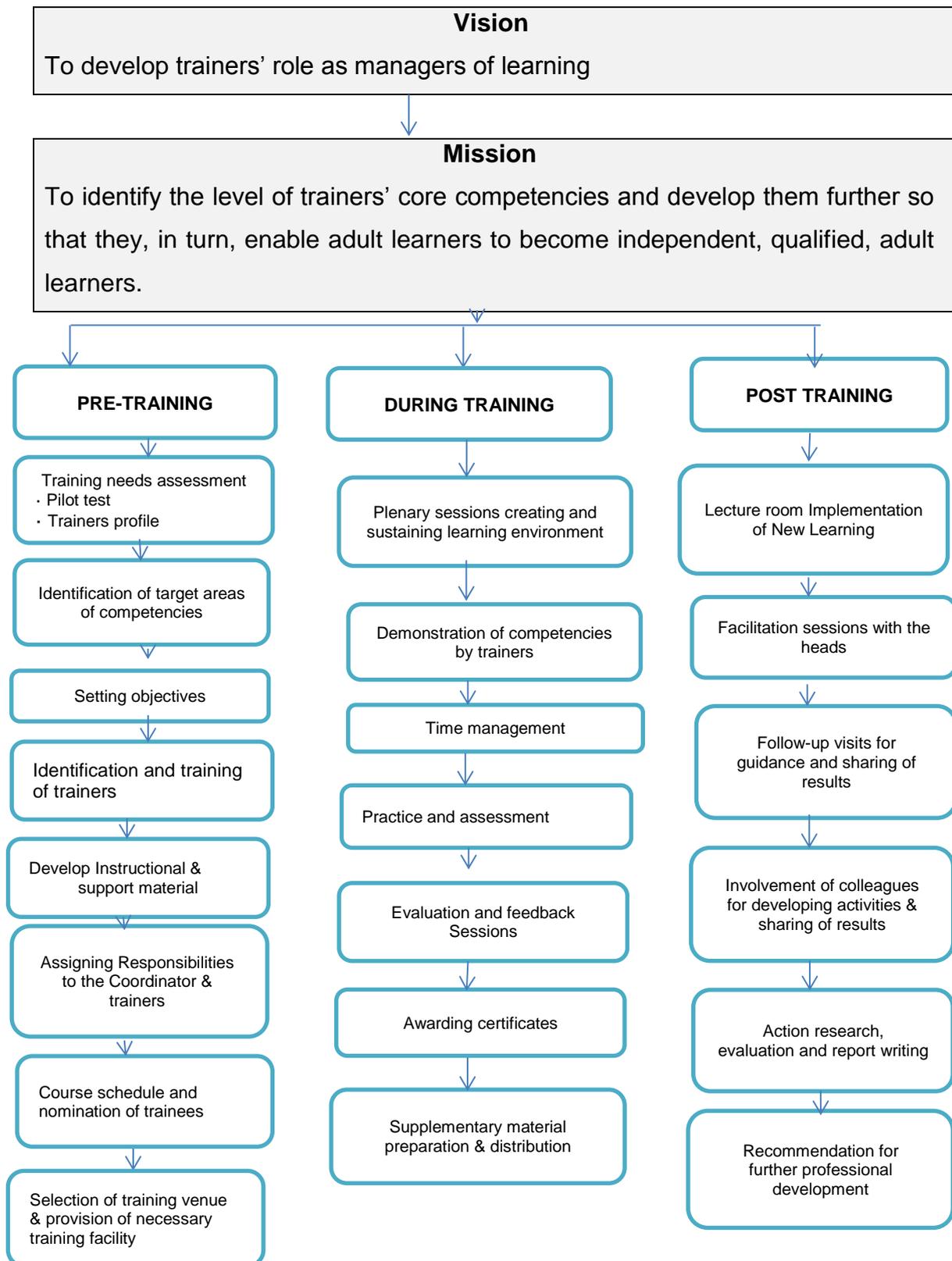


Figure 6.1 Trainer growth model

6.6 AVENUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The necessity for further research is indicated because a research study does not exist as an isolated piece of intellectual activity that is separated from other similar studies. Instead, it is part of a continuum (Oliver, 2008). It is deduced from Oliver (2008) that there is an intrinsic prospect for further improvement in each study that is carried out to describe a phenomenon. To maximise the effectiveness of training and development in the South African Police Service, the following recommendations are made with the assumption on findings of the empirical study:

- This study was conducted in the Northern Cape Province; it is therefore recommended that it be conducted in all nine (9) provinces of South Africa
- It is recommended that a study be conducted on strategies to improve trainers' professionalism as well as measures to improve the quality of trainers
- Further research may be conducted with a focus on cases of misconduct in the training establishments and on the trainers involved in this misconduct as well as devising effective measures to deal with such misconduct

The researcher does not, however, imply that these recommendations be implemented in their original form. However, the intention is that they could customise the guidelines according to their unique situations. The recommendations, therefore, could be used as useful guidelines.

6.7 CONCLUSION

This concluding chapter has focused on summarising the study and verifying whether this study has managed to achieve its objectives. The conclusions presented in this section are based on the significant findings of the qualitative phase of this research study integrated with the literature review. To sum up, this study was designed to improve the levels of professionalism of trainers within the South African Police Service. It sought to identify whether INSET could assist in improving trainers' professionalism. The key findings in this chapter provide guidelines and initiatives that could contribute to the improvement of professionalism among trainers. It is worth emphasising, however, that while INSET may be a big step in the correct direction, it

will not affect the overnight improvement of trainers' capabilities and professionalism. Above all, it is hoped that the recommendations will be implemented to enhance trainer professionalism. It is further hoped that the recommendations formulated in this study may offer useful guidelines for policy-makers and adult learners. It is thus expected that this research could contribute immensely to the science of Human Resource Development that is much needed in the South African Police Service.

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APPENDIX A
RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

JM Modise [40208389]

for a D Ed study entitled

**Professionalism of trainers in the
South African Police Service (SAPS)**

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa
College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two
years from the date of issue.



Prof CS le Roux
CEDU REC (Chairperson)
lrouxcs@unisa.ac.za

18 February 2013

Reference number: 2013 FEB/ 40208389/CSLR

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS

- 1. What are the expected levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service?**
- 2. How would you describe the current levels of trainer professionalism within the South African Police Service?**
- 3. How could the levels of professionalism within the South African Police Service be improved?**

APPENDIX D

REQUEST PERMISSION FROM NORTHERN CAPE PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Privaatsak/Private Bag X5039

Posbus/Post Office Box

Verwysing	
Reference	0478879-6
Navrae	
Enquiries	Colonel MJ Modise
Telefoon	
Telephone	(053) 8027324
Faksnommer	
Fax number	(053) 8076051

**OFFICE OF THE PROVINCIAL HEAD
HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
NORTHERN CAPE
KIMBERLEY
8300**

2012-01-12

The Provincial Head HRD
Northern Cape
Kimberley

Att: Brigadier J Bean

Request permission to conduct the research study: 0478879-6 COLONEL M. MODISE: Doctorate in Education : University of South Africa (Unisa)

- I am a Colonel in the South African Police Service in the Division: Human Resource Development in the Northern Cape, Kimberley. I am currently doing my Doctoral Thesis in Education Management at UNISA. I want to involve all five training centres in my research study and hereby request your permission to do so. It is hoped that the study will make a meaningful contribution to the literature on Trainers Professional Development. The results of the study will be shared with the training establishment.

- **THE REGISTERED TITLE OF THESE**

“IMPROVING THE LEVELS OF PROFESSIONALISM OF TRAINERS WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE”

- **STUDY SUPERVISOR/ LEADER**

Professor V T Zengele. Contact number at work: 012-429-4889:

- **DURATION OF THE RESEARCH AND RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS**

I have already completed the first four chapters of the research theses and would like to start one-on-one interviews and focus group interviews.

I will gladly provide any other information that may be required.

Regards

Motsamai John Modise

PhD candidate (University of South Africa)

Contact no. 0797335236

APPENDIX E

PERMISSION FROM NORTHERN CAPE PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS

SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Privaatsak/Private Bag X5039
Posbus/Post Office Box

Verwysing Reference	0478879-6/6
Navrae Enquiries	Colonel MJ Modise
Telefoon Telephone	(053) 8027324
Faksnommer Fax number	(053) 832 1423

OFFICE OF THE PROVINCIAL HEAD
TRAINING IN SERVICE- AND
SPECIALIZED TRAINING
NORTHERN CAPE
KIMBERLEY
8300

2012-01-12

The Provincial Head Resource Development
Northern Cape
Kimberley
8300

Att: Brigadier J Bean

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE: 0478879-6 COLONEL MJ MODISE: IM A DOCTOR OF EDUCATION MANAGEMENT CANDIDATE IN THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA (UNISA)

1. I am a Colonel in the South African Police Service at Division Human Resource Development in the Northern Cape Kimberley. I am currently doing my Doctoral Thesis in Education Management at UNISA. I want to involve all five training centre's in my research study and hereby request your permission to do so. It is hoped that the study will make a meaningful contribution to the literature on Teacher Professional Development. The results of the study will be shared with the training establishment.
2. This research is towards completion of my D.Ed – degree and is being carried out under the supervision of Professor CA Jansen at the Unisa University. Information gathered during the process of this research will be treated as confidential and anonymity will be ensured.
- 3.. The topic for the envisaged dissertation is "**Professionalism of trainers in the South African police service**" (SAPS)
4. **STUDY SUPERVISOR/ LEADER**

Professor Cecelia Jansen. Contact number at work: 012-429-4070 e-mail: jansenca@unisa.ac.za: Cell 083 400 2908

4. **DURATION OF THE RESEARCH AND RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS**

I have already completed the first four chapters of the research theses and would like to start distributing the research questionnaires to educators as soon as possible. Random sampling will be used to ensure that every person in the target group has a chance to complete the questionnaire or to be interviewed.

- 5. All employees at the various training establishments in the Province as well all employees at the provincial training offices.
- 6. As a researcher, the researcher offer to share my findings with interested parties and trust that they will find them to be useful to other end-users and prospective researchers alike
- 7. After completion of the study, the information used in the research would be available via Unisa University.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely

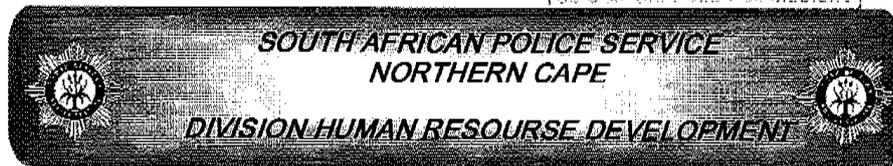

.....COLONEL
**PROVINCIAL SECTION HEAD PROVISIONING
HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
MJ MODISE**

RECOMMENDED / NOT RECOMMENDED

Application Approved. Copy of the final document must be submitted to SADS library for research purposes.


.....BRIGADIER
**PROVINCIAL HEAD HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
NORTHERN CAPE: KIMBERLEY
J BEAN**

SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER
2012-02-05
HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE



APPENDIX F
MAP OF THE NORTHERN CAPE PROVINCE

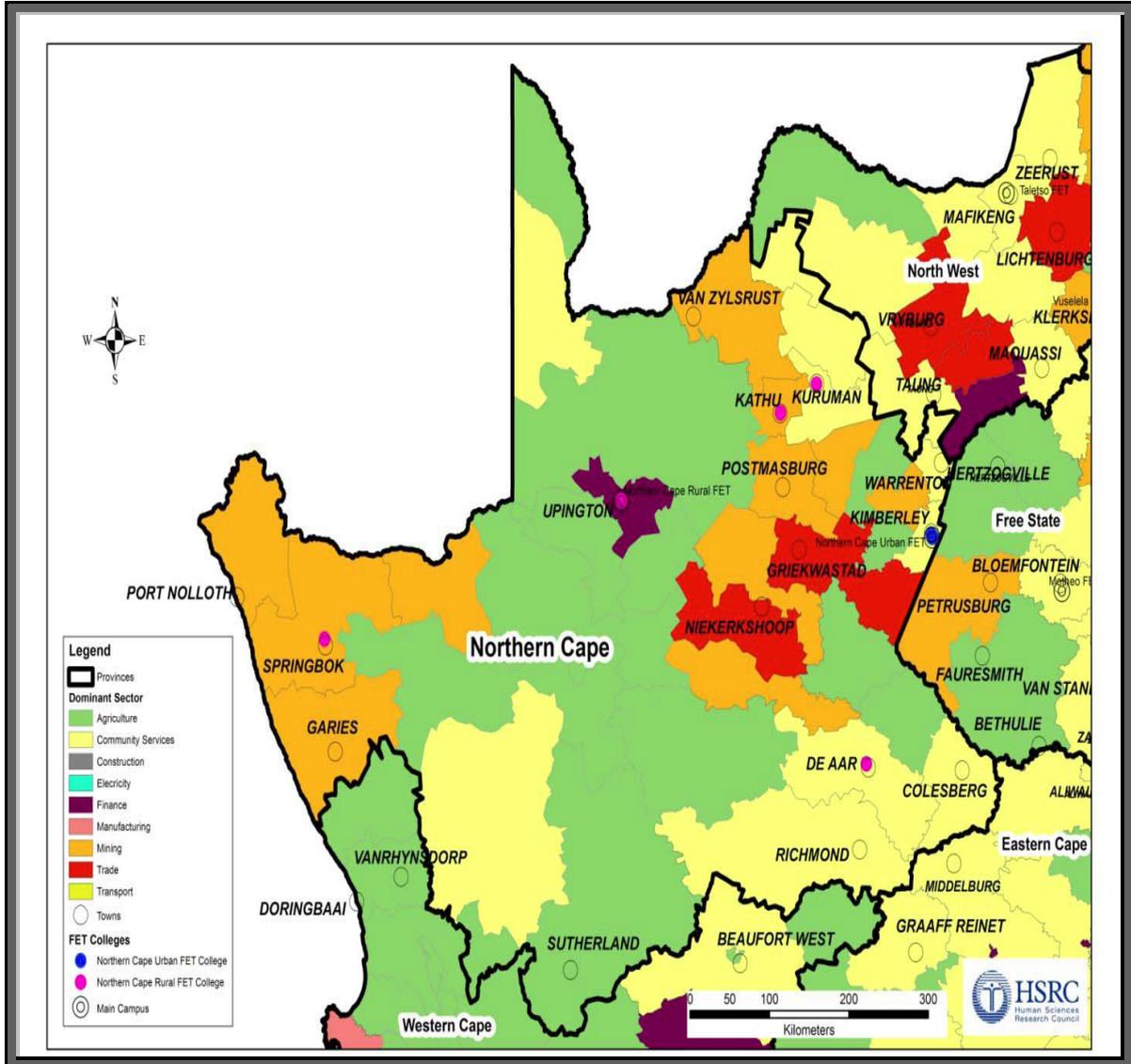


Figure 1.3 Northern Cape Province Map

Source: Adapted from (www.places.co.za) Accessed 10 September 2015.

APPENDIX G
CONSENT FORM

Letter of consent

I, _____, agree to take part in the research project conducted by Colonel Motsamai John Modise as part of the requirements for his D.Ed. degree in Education Management at the University of South Africa (UNISA). This data may also be used in the analysis required for the publishing of journal articles. I understand that the information that I will supply will be confidential and will not be disclosed to anyone and that it will only be used in summary form in the research findings.

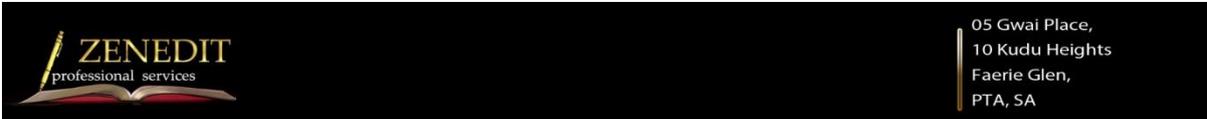
The researcher will protect my identity and hence ensure my privacy and anonymity. The information that I provide will be held securely until the research has been completed (published), after which it will be destroyed. The information that I provide will not be used for any other purpose. I have been informed that I may withdraw from this study at any time and that any information that I have supplied will then not be used and any records held relating to my contribution will be destroyed.

Signed on this _____ day of _____, 2016

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCHER

APPENDIX H EDITING CERTIFICATE



DECLARATION OF PROFESSIONAL EDIT: 30 SEPTEMBER 2018

I declare that I have edited and proofread the Doctor of Education Thesis entitled: **IMPROVING THE LEVELS OF PROFESSIONALISM OF TRAINERS WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE** by Col Motsamai John Modise.

My involvement was restricted to language editing, proofreading, sentence structure, sentence completeness, sentence rewriting, consistency, referencing style, editing of headings and captions. I did not do structural re-writing of the content. Kindly note that the manuscript was formatted as per agreement with the client. No responsibility is taken for any occurrences of plagiarism, which may not be obvious to the editor. The client is responsible for the quality and accuracy of the final submission.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'PHOLILE ZENGELE'.

Pholile Zengele
Associate Member, Professional Editors Group

The logo for Professional EDITORS Group. The word 'Professional' is in a smaller font above 'EDITORS', which is in a larger, bold font. Below 'EDITORS' is the word 'Group'. A green speech bubble icon is positioned to the right of the word 'EDITORS'.

