

**A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MPD TRAINING IN
SOUTH AFRICA**

by

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DECLARATION OF AUTHENTICITY

Student Number: 37216511

I, Leonard Xobiso, declare that “**A critical analysis of the effectiveness of MPD training in South Africa**” 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.

I further declare that I submitted the dissertation to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.



Leonard Xobiso

Signature

26 February 2024

Date

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to the descendants of “Mandlangampisi” out of moral and spiritual obligation. “Ebukhosini nina baseSwatini boTshabalala, Mshengu, ludonga lamavuso, bosidwaba esili thuli”.

My late great grandfather, “Khokho” Diamond Tshabalala.

My late grandfather, “Mkhulu” Fanyana Tshabalala, discharged without benefits from the South African military on the 7th of December 1943 after he fought in WWII in 1942, with Rank No: 61894.

My late mother, Elizabeth Zodwa Tshabalala.

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to critically explore and analyse the effectiveness (or lack thereof) of the current Military Police Division (MPD) training initiatives or curriculum on the practical workplace skills and experience of the Military Police Officials (MPOs) within the South African National Defence Force (SANDF). The term 'training effectiveness' describes the efficacy of training in supporting knowledge transfers, which is a post-training measurement of discernible improvements in knowledge, abilities, and attitudes.

The study adopted the mixed-methods research design approach, inspired by its pragmatist philosophical perspective. A three-phased data collection process was applied in order to triangulate the quantitative and qualitative data from the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The first phase involved quantitative research instrumentation through questionnaire surveys aimed at assessing the efficacy of the MPD officers' training in the SANDF. The second phase involved qualitative semi-structured individual interviews aimed at confirming the questionnaire results in respect of the quality and efficacy of the MPD training. A total of 123 participants were involved in the study, 103 of whom were selected for participation in the quantitative phase through the probability systematic sampling strategy. Meanwhile, 20 participants were selected by means of the simple random sampling technique for participation in the qualitative phase through telephonically conducted semi-structured interviews since the study was actually conducted during the COVID-19 era in the country.

Various objectives were fulfilled in this study, namely:

- To explore and describe the mandate of the MPD;
- To determine whether the current MPD training initiatives are sufficiently effective to provide Military Police Officials (MPOs) with the necessary workplace skills;
- To explore, describe and analyse international and local best police training practices;
- To explore, describe and analyse the current MPD training challenges and needs; and
- To develop a conceptual framework of practical guidelines, procedures and recommendations for the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training.

The findings of this study revealed that a number of challenges exist within the MPD training, including the lack of relevant training resources, unfulfilled learner expectations, misaligned MPD training to the National Qualifications Framework and required workplace skills, as well as inappropriate support structures and mechanisms for realistic on-the-job experiences. Most importantly, the findings enabled the researcher to develop an integrated conceptual training framework for recommendation to the MPD's training to serve as a guideline for the development of a single curriculum that integrates theoretical knowledge, practical skills, and work experience. This would ensure that the MPOs are fully capacitated prior to their assessment in preparation for their occupational responsibilities. In that regard, MPOs are more closely associated with the practical value of the learning theoretical concepts. Finally, this study contributes to the training value and sustainable solution of the South African National Defence Force, the MPD, and the MPOs.

KEY TERMS

Curriculum development, training evaluation, modern policing, training analysis, training and development-related legislation, training effectiveness; training needs transfer, work-related experience.

NKOMISO

Dyondzo leyi yi lave ku valanga hi vukheta na ku xopaxopa ku humelela (kumbe ku kayivela) ka migingiriko ya sweswi ya ndzetelo wa xiyenge xa Maphorisa ya Vusocha kumbe kharikhulamu eka vuswikoti byo endla ntirho bya le ntirhweni na ntokoto wa Vaofisiri va Maphorisa ya Vusocha(MPO) eka Vuthu ra Vuhlayiseki ra Afrika Dzonga (SANDF). Theme ra 'ku humelela ka ndzetelo' ri hlamusela ku tirha kahle ka ndzetelo eka ku seketela ku hundziseriwa ka vutivi, leswi ku nga mpimo wa le ndzhaku ka ndzetelo wa ku antswisiwa loku vonakaka eka vutivi, vuswikoti na mavonelo.

Dyondzo yi tirhisile dezayini ya endlelo ra ndzavisiso wo hlenganisiwa, leri hlohleteriwaka hi vonelo ra filosofi ya pragmatist. Endlelo ra swiyenge swinharhu ro hlengeleta datara ri tirhisiwile ku endlela ku endla matlhelo manharhu ya datara ya nhlayo na ya xiyimo ku suka eka milongoloko ya swivutiso na tiinthavhiyu to vulavurisana. Xiyenge xosungula xi katsa switirhisiwa swa ndzavisiso wa nhlayo hi ku tirhisa ndzavisiso wa swivutiso lowu kongomisiweke eka ku kambela ku tirha kahle ka

ndzetelo wa vaofisiri wa Maphorisa ya Vusocha eka SANDF. Xiyenge xavumbirhi xi katsile tiinthavhiyu ta xiyimo xa munhu hi yexe leti kongomisiweke eka ku tiyisisa mivuyelo ya swivutiso hi mayelana na nkoka na ku tirha kahle ka vaofisiri va Xiyenge xa Maphorisa ya Vusocha. Nhlayo yo ringana vatekaxiave va 123 yi ngenelerile, eka dyondzo, lava eka vona 103 va nga hlawuriwa ku tekaxiave eka xiyenge xa nhlayo hi ku tirhisa xitirateji xa sampulu ya nkumbetelo. Loko, vatekaxiave va 20 va hlawuriwile hi ku tirhisa thekiniki ya sampulu yo tlovatlova ku tekaxiave eka xiyenge xa xiyimo hi ku tirhisa tiinthavhiyu to vulavurisana hi tiqinghjo ku sukela loko dyondzo yi endlwa hi nkarhi wa COVID 19 etikweni.

Swikongomelo swo hambanahambana swi hetisisiwile eka dyondzo leyi, ku nga:

- Ku valanga na ku hlamusela xileriso xa Xiyenge xa Masocha ya Vuphorisa;
- Ku kumisisa loko migingiriko ya sweswi ya ndzetelo wa MPD yi ri leyi tirhaka hi ndlela yo ringanela ku nyika vaofisiri va MP vuswikoti lebyi lavekaka bya le ntirhweni;
- Ku valanga, hlamusela na ku xopaxopa maendlelo lamanene ya ndzetelo wa maphorisa ya le kaya na matiko ya le handle; na
- Ku valanga, hlamusela na ku xopaxopa mitlhonthlo ya sweswi ya ndzetelo wa MPD, swilaveko na ku hlukisa rimba ra mianakanyo.

Leswi kumiweke eka dyondzo leyi swi humeserile erivaleni leswaku nhlayo ya mitlhonthlo yi kona eka ndzetelo wa Xiyenge xa Maphorisa ya Vusocha, ku katsa ku kayivela ka switirhisiwa leswi faneleke swa ndzetelo, swilangutelo swa mudyondzi leswi nga hetisisiwangiku, ndzetelo wa MPD lowu nga fambelaniku na Rimba ra Tikhwalifikhexini ta Rixaka na vuswikoti bya le ntirhweni lebyi lavekaka, na swivumbeko leswi nga fanelangiku swa nseketelo na endlelo ra ntokoto wa xiviri eka ntirho. Xankoka, leswi kumiweke swi endlile leswaku mulavisisi a kota ku hlukisa rimba ra ndzetelo wa mianakanyo leyi hlanganisiweke ku bumabumeriwa eka ndzetelo wa Xiyenge xa Vusocha bya Maphorisa ku letela ku hlukisiwa ka kharikhulamu yin'we leyi hlanganisaka vutivi bya thiyori, vuswikoti byo endla ntirho, na ntokoto wa ntirho. Leswi swi ta tiyisisa leswaku tiMPO ti na vuswikoti byotala ti nga se kamberiwa hi ku lulamisela vutihlamuleri bya tona bya ntirho. Hi ndlela yaleyo, tiMPO ti ta hlangana swinene na nkoka lowu tirhaka wo dyondza tikhonsepe ta thiyori. Xohetelela, dyondzo yi ta ngenisa xiave eka nkoka wa ndzetelo na nhlamulo ya nkarhi woleha

eka Vuthu ra Vusirhelelri ra Afrika Dzonga, Xiyenge xa Maphorisa ya Vusocha, na Vaofisiri va Maphorisa ya Vusocha

MATHEME YA NKOKA

Nhluvukiso wa kharikhulamu, nkambelo wa wa ndzetelo, vuphorisa bya manguvalawa, nxopanxopo wa ndzetelo, milawu leyi fambelanaka na ndzetelo na nhluvukiso, ku humelesa ka ndzetelo; hundziselo wa swilaveko swa ndzetelo, ntokoto lowu fambelanaku na ntirho.

SINIKAMONGO

Lesifundvolucwaningo sihlose kuhlwaya ngeliso lekuhlaba nekuhlatiya (imphumelelo (nome kubete kwayo) kwemitamo yekucecesha Lumphiko Lwetemaphoyisa Lwetemphi (i-MPD) nome ikharikhulamu lemayalena nemakhono laphatsekako asendzaweni yekusebenta kanye naloko Tiphatsimandla Temaphoyisa Etemphi (ema-MPO) lahangabetana nako ekhatsi eMbutfweni Wavelonkhe waseNingizimu Afrika Wetekuvikela (i-SADF). Leligama leliisi 'kucecesha ngemphumelelo' lichaza kukhipha umphumela lodzingekako wekuceceshwa ekwesekeleni kwendluliselwa lwati, lokusikalo sangemuva kwekuceceshwa setintfutuko letibonakalako telwati, temakhono netimongcondvo.

Lesifundvolucwaningo silandzele tindlela letibhicene tesichamukelo selisu lelucwaningo, legcugcutelwe yindlela yekubuka tintfo ngekwefilosofi yebuphragmathiki. Inchubo yetigaba letintsatfu yekugcogca idatha isetjentsiwe kute kwehlukane katsatfu idatha yelizinga nelinani levela kumaphephambuto kanye nakuma-inthaviyu lasakuhleleka. Sigaba sekucala sifake ekhatsi indlela yelucwaningo lwelinani ngekusebentisa luklayo lwemaphephambuto lokuhloswe ngawo kuhlola kukhipha umphumela lodzingekako wekucecshwa kwetiphatsimandla teLumphiko Lwetemaphoyisa Lwetemphi ku-SANDF Sigaba sesibili sifake ekhatsi ema-inthaviyu elizinga lasakuhleleka alowo nalowo lokuhloswe ngawo kucinisekisa imiphumela yemaphephambuto macondzana nelizingasimo nekukhipha umphumela lodzingekako wetiphatsimandla teLumphiko Lwemaphoyisa Etemphi. Linani selilonkhe lebantfu la-123 labebatibandzakanyile kulesifundvolucwaningo, laba-103 babo bakhetfwa kutsi batibandzakanye kusigaba selizinga ngekusebentisa lisibuciko lembonakaliso lohlelekile. Ngaleso sikhatsi, kwakhetfwa labatibandzakanyako lbange-20 ngekutsi

kusetjentiswe lisu lelilula lekukobola umbokakaliso kute batibandzakanye esigabeni selizinga nge-ma-inthaviyu lasakuhleleka labanjwe ngekusebentisa lucingo njengaloku lesifundvolucwaningo sentiwa ngesikhatsi se-COVID-19 kulelive.

Tinjongo letahlukahlukene tafezekiswa kulesifundvolucwaningo, letibitwa ngekutsi:

- Kuhlwaya nekuchaza linguyakwenta leLuphiko Lwemaphoyisa Lwetemphi;
- Kuncuma kutsi ngabe lemitamo lekhona yekucecesha iMPD yenele ngekwemphumelelo kunika tikhulu te-MP emakhono ladzingekekako asendzaweni yekusebenta;
- Kuhlwaya, kuchaza nekuhlatiya tindlela letincono kakhulu tasekhaya netemave emhlaba tekucecesha emaphoyisa; kanye
- Nekuhlwaya, kuchaza nekuhlatiya tinsayeya letikhona tekucecesha i-MPD, tidzingo kanye nekusungula luhlakamsebenti.

Lokutfolwe ngulesifundvolucwaningo kuvete kutsi kunelinyenti letinsayeya letikhona ekucecesheni Luphiko Lwemaphoyisa Lwetemphi, lokufaka ekhatsi kweswelakala kwemitfombolusito lefanele yekucecesha, tifiso temfundzi letingakafezekiswa, kungahambisa kwekuceceshwa kwe-MPD neLuhlakamsebenti Lwavelonkhe Lweticu Temfundvo kanye nemakhono ladzingekekako asemsebentini, kanye netinhlaka tekwesekela letingakafaneli kanye netindlela letiphatsekako letimayelana naloko lokuhlangabetanwa nako emsebentini. Lokubaluleke kakhulu, lokolokutfoliwe kusite umcwaningi kutsi akhone kusungula umcondvo weluhlakamsebenti loluhlanganisiswe kute aluncome ekucecesheni Luphiko Lwetemaphoyisa Lwemphi kute likhombe indlela ekusunguleni ikharikhulamu yinye lehlanganisa lwati lwetiyori, emakhono lentekako kanye naloko lokuhlangabetanwa nako emsebentini. Loku kutawucinisekisa kutsi ema-MPO anikwa ngalokuphelele emakhono ekusebenta ngembikwekutsi ahlolwe ekubalungiseleleni tibopho temsebenti wabo. Ngaleyo ndlela-ke, ema-MPO ayawuhambisana kakhulu nelizingagugu lelentekako lekufundza imicondvo yetetiyori. Kwekugcina, lesifundvolucwaningo sitawufaka ligalelo kulizingagugu lekucecesha kanye nesisombululo lesisimeme seMbutfo Wavelonkhe waseNingizimu Afrika Wetekuvikela, Luphiko Lwemaphoyisa Lwetemphi, kanye neTiphatsimandla Temaphoyisa Etemphi.

EMATEMU LAMCOKA

Kutfufukisa ikharikhulamu, luhlolozinga lwekucecesha, tebuphoyisa tesimanje, luhlathiyo lwekucecesha, umtsetfo loshayiwe lohatselene nekucecesha nekutfufukisa, kuphumelela kwekucecesha; kwendluliswa kwetidzingo tekucecesha, lohlangabetana nako lokuphatselene nemsebenti.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

CMPR	Central Military Police Region
DoD	Department of Defence
ETD	Education, Training and Development
ETQA	Education Training Quality Assurance
HQ	Head Quarters
HRM	Human Resources Management
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
MCC	Military Command Council
MP	Military Police
MPA	Military Police Agency
MPAI	Military Police Agency Instruction
MPD	MPD
MPD HQ	MPD Head Quarter
MPO(s)	Military Police Official(s)
MPS	Military Police School
NDP	National Developmental Plan
NMPR	Northern Military Police Region
NQF	National Quality Framework
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
R&D	Research and Development
RPL	Recognition of Prior Learning
RPMC	Regional Provost Marshal Commanders
RSA	Republic of South Africa
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SACMP	South African Corps of Military Police
SAHO	South African History Online
SANDF	South African National Defence Force
SAPS	South African Police Service
SAQA	South African Qualification Authority
SMPR	Southern Military Police Region
TLNA	Training Learning Needs analysis
TNA	Training Development Needs Analysis

TrgEval	Training Evaluation
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
USDVA	United State Department of Veterans Affairs
WMPR	Western Military Police Region

CHAPTER 1: GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MILITARY POLICE DIVISION (MPD) TRAINING

Training of personnel is one of the most basic requirements for growing and developing both private and public institutions and organisations (Maung & Chemsripong, 2015:1). Lately, Military Police Officials (MPOs) within the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) have been accused by their own Regional Provost Marshal Commanders (RPMC) of not performing to the required levels after completing their initial training at the Military Police School (MPS). The RPMC linked the poor performance of their members to the quality of training provided by the MPS itself, which is mandated to develop properly trained MPOs capable of meeting current and future requirements and challenges of preventing, combating, investigating alleged offences and maintaining law and order within the Department of Defence (DoD) prior to their appointment as MPOs in terms of the Defence Act (South Africa, 2002:3).

Despite the large amounts of money invested in the training of MPOs by the Military Police Division (MPD), there is uncertainty concerning the extent of these members' performance once they are reintegrated to their mother units after the completion of training at the Military Police (MP) School. The implication is that there is uncertainty and heightened concerns regarding the extent to which Military Police (MP) training and policing programmes have translated into any meaningful or effective and efficient workplace performance as measured against the functionality of the Military Police as expected by the MPD. Cetron (2017:2) and Valasik (2016:n.p.). maintain that insufficient training poses danger to police officials daily as they are not certain of what should happen to their lives while on duty. The ensuing section presents a contextualisation/ background of the study, which is in fact a prelude of the research problem itself (Patton, 2015:622).

1.2 BACKGROUND/CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The MPD is a South African National Defence Force (SANDF) entity responsible for providing policing functions within the SANDF itself. Before 1999, the MPD was known as the South African Corps of Military Police (SACMP), which was established on the 1st November 1938, and later became the SACMP on the 18th November 1946 (South

African History Online (SAHO), 2011:1). During its era, the SACMP was a predominantly white institution, with training provided in Afrikaans. It is imperative to note that apartheid induced imbalances resulted in black former South African Defence Force (SANDF) members not sharing the same privileges as their white counterparts (Tshabalala, 2004:31). It was for this particular reason that by 1990, blacks were recruited to the SACMP from the South African Army entities, the majority of whom were taken from the infantry division to close the skewed imbalances within the SA Army.

According to Esterhuysen (2007:377), the language problem in training served to perpetuate the frivolity that the blacks who understood Afrikaans were more intelligent than those who understood and spoke English better. As such, training was premised misguidedly on language, which should not be the object of training. Such a state of affairs influenced the utilisation of English-speaking members mostly in traffic control and crime prevention within the military police, whereas Afrikaans-speaking members were utilised specifically in client services and investigations (Esterhuysen, 2007:377).

During training, Afrikaans was the predominant medium of instruction, with only 3%-6% of English used for clarification to those blacks who did not understand Afrikaans. The degree of poor English proficiency of the white Afrikaans-speaking instructors increased and exacerbated the inability to transfer the necessary information and skills to trainee MP students to execute normal day-to-day policing functions. Consequently, various attempts were made to narrow the gap posed by the irrational language-based legacy amongst the members. Such progressive attempts included the promulgation of transformational policies such as the Equal Opportunities Policy and Human Resources Strategy 2010, both of which prominently emphasised the granting of fair and equal opportunities to all members of the South African National Defence Force (South Africa, 2010:12).

Following the 1994 post-apartheid era, training progressed gradually from Afrikaans to English. In this regard, a durable language policy was promulgated to ensure effective training communication for all instructors (South Africa, 2001:3). It was by virtue of this transition that learning materials were translated from Afrikaans to English. The latter was disastrous in that the translation was conducted by Afrikaans-speaking instructors who were hardly proficient in English.

Apart from the pre-1994 language barrier, the training of MPOs was informal, which is still the case even in contemporary times. The training is based on discipline issues within the Department of Defence, and not on the relevant knowledge required within the safety and security environment (Department of Defence, 1997:14). The post-1994 escalation of crime in South Africa also affected all law enforcement departments and compelled the now established MPD to make a drastic shift from discipline issues to real-time policing (Department of Defence, 2014a:D7). This shift necessitated a change in Military Police training and new competences within the military environment as a whole.

In order to acquire acceptable police level competences, training needed to be formalised and realigned within the safety and security sector and be comparable with fraternal organisations such as the South African Police Service (SAPS). The realignment of training ranged from the utilisation of different training models, curriculum and unit standard training, to training of the MPOs themselves. Inadvertently, the impact of different training models resulted in the incongruence between competencies and expected performance of policing functions. Competence entails possession of appropriate skills, knowledge and attitude to perform specific task correctly without risking the required outcomes (Louw, 2017:12).

Table 1.1 below represents the training structure of the Military Police School, which has not been reviewed since 1993 when the researcher joined the South African Corp of the Military Police (now known as the Military Police Division (MPD)). The rationale for this diagrammatic representation also depicts the extent of the research problem as articulated in the ensuing Section 1.3. Moreover, Table 1.1 below logically extends to the question: *Does such an anachronistic training structure of the MP School bear any relevance to contemporary needs of the Military Police School?*

Table 1.1: Organogram of the military police school

Head Quarters (HQ)												
Education Training & Development/ETD Support Wing				Education Training and Development Wing						Distance Training Wing		
Training and Evaluation	Course Administration	Media	Shooting Simulator	MPO Branch Basic MP	Investigation Branch	MP Administration Branch	General Police Duties	Operations Branch	Crime Prevention Branch	Correctional Facilities	Course Leader	Trainers
				Military Police Admin	Crime Investigations	MP Management	Traffic	Special Operations	Crime Prevention Courses	Police Intelligence Courses		

(Source: Mekuto, 2017:7)

The above table represents the MPS training structure as follows: Head Quarters is at the helm of the super structure; followed by the Education, Training and Development (ETD) Support Wing; the ETD Wing (which is the core business component); as well as the Distance Training Wing (which is currently not in existence). The ETD Support Wing is composed of four branches, namely: Training and Evaluation, Course Administration, Media, and Shooting Simulator. On the other hand, the core Education and Training Wing consists of: MPO Branch Basic MP; Investigation Branch (for crime investigation); MP Administration Branch (for MP management); General Police Duties (for traffic); Operations Branch (for special operations); Crime Prevention Branch (for crime prevention courses); Correctional Facilities; Course Leaders and Trainers (for police intelligence courses). The next section presents the actual problem that necessitated undertaking of this study.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The problem statement originates from a concerning situation or argumentative disputes that the researcher identifies as the need or rationale to conduct the current study, and justifies the importance of the identified problem in the research study (Cho, 2018:11; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2019:27). Hennink, Hutter and Bailey (2020:18) elucidate further that a problem statement is the heart of research, and presents a clear statement supporting the need for an in-depth research study and the analysis thereof in a particular environment or field of knowledge. Meanwhile, Ivankova

(2015:99) defines the problem statement as the research focal area of concern to be improved by identifying what is probably necessary when conducting the study. Such identification is then followed by an explanation of how the finding presents conceptual ideas to concrete action in order to resolve the problem.

The most pivotal aspect of the research problem in this study is located within both the content and quality of training provided to the MPOs, who did not acquire any significant acquisition of relevant skills, knowledge and competencies on their return from training. The researcher was recruited from the Infantry Division and trained as an MPO through a three-month individualised programme. The researcher worked as an MPO non-commissioner at Area Offices (MP stations) and progressed to the rank of an officer working at the MP School, the only MP training in South Africa. The researcher then became aware that the training offered at the MP School did not have a Research and Development (R&D) Office capable of realigning training to suit the needs of modern policing. Most of the training offered was informal, with no qualifications accredited or recognised by the South Africa Qualification Authority (SAQA). The training problem was compounded further by the fact that the MP School's training regime has not been reviewed since 1993 when the researcher first joined the South African Corp of the Military Police (now known as the Military Police Division). Such a situation rendered the existing MP School training anachronistic.

The Defence Force is not immune to criminal and unlawful acts on its members. By its nature, policing globally is both a difficult and dangerous occupation/profession (Cetron, 2017:2). A number of police officials are killed on almost a daily basis. For example, the MPD Crime Statistics show that crime prevalence in South Africa accounted for a total of 1285 case dockets registered for the 2017/18 financial year alone (MPD, 2018:1). Such high statistical rates within the Defence Force impact negatively on the morale of the Military Command Council (MCC), ineffectiveness of the MPOs and generates negative publicity for the DOD in general (MPD, 2018:1). Furthermore, the Minister of SAPS (Mr Bheki Cele) reported during the 2017/18 crime statistics briefing in parliament that 85 officers were killed, 28 of whom were on duty (Shange, 2018:2). Therefore, intensive training skills and techniques should be provided in order to save lives and handling of different crime situations. In cases of crime prevention and investigation, proper training plays a key role in productivity

enhancement (Sultana, Irum, Ahmed & Mehmood, 2012:646). Successful training relies on the skills and abilities of the MPOs.

Incessant complaints have been raised by the RPMC to the Military Police Department highlighting that MPOs returned to their mother units after training without the requisite ability and competence to transfer learning into practice at their workplace. As such, these 'trained' MPOs were incapable of meeting their job requirements and standards as prescribed by the RPMC. In response to the poor state of training, the Military Police School (2021:2) recommended that, "the [MP] school should be improved in terms of [the] environment and subjects being presented should go hand in hand with [the] SAPS [training]". The Military Police School (2021:2) further stated: "Other facilitators looked lost, disorganised or unprepared". In a study by Mathebula (2018:167), one of the participants corroborated the poor state of training and lamented: "Training provided by [the] MP School is not adequate".

The RPMC attributes the parlous state of MPO work-related performance by their members to the equally poor policing service delivery and lack of quality training provided at the MP School by the facilitators. Furthermore, there was conspicuously observable dissonance between the MPO's on-the-job performance and their acquired certificates, which acknowledge members as fully trained and competent. A study by Cetron (2017:1) found that the poor performance by Special Weapons and Tactics members was the direct consequence of the correspondingly poor quality of training they were provided by the training facilitators. In congruence with the central concern entailed in the research problem (i.e. quality and content of MPO training curriculum), (Maung & Chemsripong, 2015:7) assert that the failure by trainees to transfer learned skills and knowledge in the working environment is mainly attributable to a number of factors, which include: actual application of training alignment between training and outcome, poor incentive programmes, the degree of management procedures and organisational willingness to use newly acquired knowledge and skills.

Therefore, proper training by suitably qualified personnel/facilitators are *sine qua non* to the improvement of the MPOs' daily functioning. Furthermore, proper training should provide to the trainee MPOs the willingness and ability to implement and transfer what they have learnt to their official workplace situations (Maung & Chemsripong, 2015:5). The failure by the relevant MP School authorities to provide relevant job-specific training solutions could exacerbate the MPOs' situation and affect the overall

functioning and service delivery of the organisation, and also lead to a series of litigations (Maung & Chemsripong, 2015:1). Poorly trained MPOs could also reflect negatively on the image, productivity and efficiency of the MPD in reaching their objective of combating crime within the SANDF. Broadly, the morale of the soldier community could also be adversely affected (Giran, Amin & Halim, 2014:71).

In essence, then, it is the serious concerns with the unsatisfactory state of MPO training and its outcomes that the researcher undertook this study in order to analyse the effectiveness of MPD training in the context of modern policing practices and trends. In this regard, the effectiveness of the MPD training should be analysed, as well as the extent of its capacitation (or lack of it) of newly trained MPO personnel with the required new knowledge, skills and abilities to transfer to their work-related and real-life policing environments.

1.3.1 Rationale of the study

The above cited problem statement focused on the articulation of the actual challenge/s as identified by the researcher. However, the rationale of the study explicates the broader domain of the problem itself in the context of the justifiability or motivation of the study as a whole (Punch & Oancea, 2014:207; Wagner, Kawulich & Garner, 2012:27-28). The training of MPOs has been in *status nascendi* since the dawn of democracy in South Africa in 1994, evolving mostly around discipline enforcement. In the contemporary era, the ensuing rapid shift from regimental aspects (discipline enforcement) has necessitated training emphasis on real-time policing. However, a proper articulation of training has been lacking. In this regard, the study is justifiable in that it contributes towards the development of a cogent articulation framework for the delivery of relevant and quality training whose outcomes are observably measurable with improved on-the-job performance.

As far as the researcher is aware, no previous studies have been conducted on the training of MPOs and their post-training performance on the job. Accordingly, this study contributes towards the enhancement of the status of training, the productivity of MPOs in the work environment, competency of MPOs within the Department of Defence, as well as the quality of policing and growth within the SANDF (DoD, 2014b:11). The researcher envisages that both the findings and recommendations of the study have a contribution to make towards more professionally trained MPOs in modern policing techniques and standards. Therefore, evidence-based methods and

strategies would have greatly de-emphasised theoretic inclinations by facilitators who, in advertently, perpetrate the culture of incompetence.

This study is of great benefit to the entire MPD and may also be used for benchmarking purposes. Countries experiencing similar training challenges could refer to the findings of this study to address some aspects of their issues. Moreover, the researcher considers the study justifiable in so far as it further contributes to the vision of the National Developmental Plan (NDP) for building a safer community in South Africa through a holistic approach to safety and security (South Africa, 2012:229). In this regard, the study addresses a practical policy concern.

1.4 RESEARCH DEMARCATION/DELINEATION

The demarcation of the research relates particularly to the scientific boundaries or practice-related focal areas within which the self-same study is delineated or restricted/confined (McLeod & Chaffee, 2017: 50-99; Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2015:146). A research study could be demarcated in terms of its epistemological/disciplinary, methodological or practice-related boundaries. The researcher is currently employed at the MPD, post Quality Assurer. As articulated in the research problem (see Section 1.3), as the problem of poor-quality training and its outcomes locates the study into the field of curriculum, where curriculum relates to the *content* of learning (knowledge) provided and the means by which such learning/ knowledge is *assessed* or *evaluated/ measured* (Salah, 2016:2226; SAQA, 2012:1).

To a larger extent then, the epistemological domain of the study is mostly confined to the input-output or teaching-learning outcome gaps created by current MPD training regimes that have resulted in the trainee's inability to transfer their acquired knowledge to realistic working situations. The focus on MPD training gaps premises on the assumption that poor MPD training translates into concomitantly poor skills transfer to the workplace. To the extent that the workplace (MPD) also constitutes the site at which MPO performance is measured or evaluated, labour and/or human resources management (HRM) issues then allocate an inter-disciplinary perspective or boundary to the study.

Furthermore, the study has adopted a mixed-methods research design approach, rather than a singularly qualitative or quantitative approach. The chosen approach enables the researcher to obtain both objective (quantitative) and subjective

(qualitative) responses to ensure that all possible aspects of training experiences of the participants are obtained (Almalki, 2016:292; Creswell, 2020:1).

1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of research entails the researcher's overall goal or intention; that is, the ultimate goal of what the researcher intends to achieve (Denscombe, 2014:49; Guest, Namey & Mitchell, 2013:4). Similarly, Hesketh and Laidlaw (2011:3) emphasise that in research, the aim briefly outlines the trajectory of the particular research in terms of what the researcher desires to achieve. Accordingly, the aim of this study is:

To critically explore and analyse the effectiveness (or lack thereof) of the current MPD training initiatives or curriculum on the practical workplace skills and experience of the MPOs within the South African National Defence Force (SANDF).

It is on the basis of the above-mentioned aim that the researcher further intends to design a comprehensive framework of training-related strategies to improve the performance of MPOs in their' daily work schedules and routines. In addition, the envisaged framework and routines aims to enhance the capacity of MPD officials to meet their core responsibilities, which are to prevent and combat crime; investigation of any (alleged) offence; and maintaining law and order (South Africa, 2002:1).

1.5.1 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study relate principally to the *actual* achievement of the study, rather than its *intended* outcome (Fouche, Strydom & Roestenburg, 2021:94). To the extent that actual involvement entails specific steps and activities taken to actualise or bring the achievement to fruition, objectives are then also measurable and related to a particular timeframe to materialise (Paltridge & Phakiti, 2015:12; Qu & Dumay, 2011:246; Strydom, 2011:356), the objectives of this study are as follows:

- To explore the mandate of the MPD;
- To determine whether the current MPD training initiatives are sufficiently effective to provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills;
- To describe international and local best police training practices;
- To analyse the current MPD training challenges and needs;
- To develop a conceptual framework of practical guidelines, procedures and recommendations for the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training.

1.5.2 Research questions

In tandem with both the research aim and objectives of the study, the research questions provide the investigative framework of the vital questions for addressing the key concerns of the study (Flick, 2020:72; Wium & Louw, 2018:4). Therefore, emanating from the aim and objectives of the study respectively (see Section 1.5 and Sub-section 1.5.1), the main research questions are:

- What is the mandate of the Military Police?
- To what extent do the current MPD training initiatives/curricula provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills?
- What are the international and local best police training practices?
- What are the current MPD training challenges, needs and conceptual framework?
- What practical guidelines, procedures and recommendations can be offered to the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training?

1.6 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of the research refers to a statement of the particular goal that the researcher desires to achieve in the study (Grove, Gray & Burn, 2015:131). In addition, the research purpose captures the essence, visible goal and direction of research in terms of “why” the research is being conducted (Subudhi & Mishra, 2019:28). The most commonly presented purpose statements (i.e. “why”) of research focus on explanation, description and exploration (Fouche et al., 2021:95; Grove et al., 2015:131). While these three terms (explanation, description and exploration) are conceptually different, they could also be applied concurrently, depending on the researcher’s proficiency. In the context of this study, the empowerment of those being researched also constituted a significant aspect of the research purpose (Gray, 2019:45).

1.6.1 Exploration

Pierson and Thomas (2015:224) uphold that exploration entails the researcher’s familiarisation with the most pertinent issues attendant to the research topic and its associated units of analysis in order to gain initial understanding. Furthermore, exploration is characterised by further (post-incubation) enquiry aimed at acquiring more information and details about the study prior to its actual and fully fledged undertaking (Grove, Burns & Gray, 2020:50). The researcher relied on a protracted

literature search to explore a wide spectrum of local (South African) and international scholarship perspectives on best training practices and trends in the context of the Military Police (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe/ UNECE, 2012:17). Such an exploratory trajectory enabled the researcher's preliminary benchmarking of training methods in order to establish and apply the best training practices. In that regard, the '*what*', '*where*' and '*when*' type of questions were predominant.

1.6.2 Description

Description entails the provision of adequate details and information beyond ordinary exploration (Gray & Grove, 2020:47). The descriptive aspect builds on what the researcher has already explored in respect of the pertinent aspects of the study. It is the researcher's contention that, similar to the pre-investigation/exploratory aspect of the research, the descriptive aspect occurs throughout the study, the advantage of which is to enhance the trustworthiness of the study for the benefit of other researchers with an interest on how this study was conducted from beginning to the end (Efron & Ravid, 2019:27; Schmidt & Brown, 2015:405).

The researcher has adequately demonstrated the descriptive aspect of the study by providing elaborate details on military police training derived from multiple literature (secondary) sources (Fouche et al., 2021:96). Additionally, the researcher has also described the methodological approaches, processes and strategies that enabled the acquisition of empirical or primary (participant-based) data on whose basis the practical aspect or findings of the study were developed (Boudin, 2011:170; Gray & Grove, 2020:47). In that regard, the '*what*' and '*how*' type of questions were dominant.

1.6.3 Explanation

Complementary to exploration and description, the aspect of explanation is more detailed, elaborate and analytically inclined in that possible answers are provided to the '*how*' and '*why*' type of questions, in addition to the '*when*', '*what*' and '*where*' types (Flick, 2020:72; Mason, 2018:13). According to Creswell (2020:15) and Kaur, Stoltzfus and Yellapu (2018:60-63), the explanatory aspect of research enriches theory by providing detailed proof to support causal factors and possible reasons relating to what makes things to happen in the manner they do. An example in this study pertains to the researcher's initial data analysis with the quantitative phase, intended to build into the main qualitative research study.

1.6.4 Empowering those being researched

The empowerment of those being researched is an important purpose of this study in so far as narrowing the gap between theory and practice in the sphere of military police training (Varpio, Paradis, Uijtdehaage & Young, 2020:989). Most notably, such a research purpose is even more realistic than abstract, on considerations of both the researcher's professional background and personal experience as encapsulated in Sub-section 2.4.5 of Chapter 2.

Those being researched are professional colleagues of the researcher, who is acutely aware and familiar with the nature and extent of the problem being investigated (see Section 1.3). In tandem with the research aim and objectives, those being researched were represented by selected samples of participants for involvement in the study's respective research instruments (Punch & Oancea, 2014:302). It is mainly on account of the research instruments that the specific nature of empowerment was determined, the overall purpose of which was to develop good work-related practices and performance (Folayan, 2019:2; Nadeak, 2015:47).

1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY THEORETICAL CONCEPTS

The definition of the key theoretical concepts is important in so far as avoiding mis-conceptualisation, preventing terminological ambiguity, as well as enabling the readers to clearly understand the disciplinary/scientific, practice-related and contextual application of key terms in the study (Korstjens & Moser, 2018:122; Leedy & Ormrod, 2015:61). The key terms defined below, were selected and identified insofar as they constitute a thematic and logical association with the training of the military police.

1.7.1 Training

Training refers to the systematic process of learning designed to maintain and improve effective job performance through learning (Bouma, Ling & Wilkenson, 2012:113; Kraiger, Passmore, Dos Santos & Malvezzi, 2015:69). For the purpose of this study 'training' refers to any programme-based learning activities presented at the MP School.

1.7.2 Development

Development is the process and programmes planned to enhance the beneficiaries' growth in sphere of skills and knowledge considered to be essential for the

achievement of future organisational objectives (Bouma et al., 2012:113; Taylor, Boba & Egge, 2013:154). For purposes of this study, 'development' refers to any progression programmes offered to equip MPOs to meet future work-related demands.

1.7.3 Training and development-related legislation

Erasmus, Loedoff, Mda and Nel (2021:67) explain that training and development-related legislation refers to the essential legal prescripts and policy directives that regulate skills training and development in various fields. For the purpose of this study 'training and development-related legislation' refers to the relevant legislative prescripts that govern skills training in the Republic of South Africa (South African Institute of Chartered Accountants (SAICA), 2020:n.d.). Such training relates largely to the three training and development Acts, as well as the comprehensive system to support the national skills development strategy:

- **The Skills Development Levies Act (No. 9 of 1999)**, which prescribes a levy payment to fund skills development in South Africa;
- **The Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1988)**, which focuses on training practices and process;
- **The National Qualifications Framework Act (No. 67 of 2008)**, for the classification of registration, publication and articulation of quality-assured national qualification; and
- **The National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS).**

1.7.4 Policing

Policing encompasses more than mere law enforcement tasks (Stenning & Shearing, 2015:1). These tasks and activities are intended to ensure compliance with the law and improving respect for human rights in tandem with internationally recognised standards. According to Burger (2014:6), "policing is all those activities, whether proactive or reactive, performed by the police in the process of providing their prescribed services, such as reassuring the public, creating a visible deterrence and executing their law enforcement, crime investigation and public order maintenance function". In the context of this study, 'policing' refers to those activities performed by the MPOs in order to maintain law and order within the Department of Defence.

1.7.5 Modern

The term, 'modern' relates to the post-industrial era, or the recent/contemporary times dominated by developments such as globalisation and the preponderance of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) (Salami & Visona, 2013:23; Sultana et al., 2012;659). For the purpose of this study 'modern' refers to the current era in which training in organisations is constantly transitional, transforming and adaptive to current circumstances and demands in the workplace.

1.7.6 Transfer training

Maung and Chemsripong (2015:2) illuminate that transfer training premises on the extent to which the trained personnel are able to apply the learned skills into real work situations. For the purpose of this study 'transfer training' refers to the impartation of the skills and knowledge obtained from the Military Police School to the workplace after training. Therefore, the degree, effectiveness and success of transfer training is measurable by the impartation outcome.

1.7.7 Curriculum

Breier and Herman (2017:363) and Nkomo (2000:5), illuminate that curriculum refers to both the content and measurable outcomes accruing from a coordinated learning programme and its attendant learning activities and experience. Emanating from this explication, the following factors are then viewed as significant elements of a curriculum:

- It provides training or learning activities and experiences as the fundamental purpose and value of the learning;
- All learning aspects, intended outcomes, learning programmes, teaching and assessment methodologies underpin the needs and nature of the learning; and
- The planning of the learning guides the overall rationale for the training of the institution (planning the overall effectiveness of the delivery of learning).

For the purpose of this study, 'curriculum' refers to the source document of the training programmes utilised to plan and guide the learning activities and experiences of the MPOs' at the Military Police School.

1.7.8 Work-related experience

Bowen and Drysdale (2017:2) explain that work-related experience relates to the practical activities intended to facilitate the learning processes at the workplace. Such experience that an individual attains while working in a particular occupation is vital for the development of the learner and work readiness. For the purpose of this study, 'work-related experience' refers to the knowledge and planned activities acquired while working.

1.7.9 Evaluation

According to Fox, Grimm and Caldeira (2017:8) and Woiceshyn and Daellenbach (2018:183), evaluation is defined as the applied process of determining the merit, value or significance and quality of something. Such a process is designed to improve the state of affairs of the thing being evaluated or the impact of something assessed. In this study, 'evaluation, refers to the process by which the merit, value or significance and quality of the MPS curriculum are assessed.

1.8 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The research consists of nine chapters, laid out as follows:

Chapter 1: General Orientation on the Effectiveness of Military Police Division (MPD) Training

This chapter introduced the study, its problem statement, the aim of the research and its objectives, the value of the research, research demarcation, rationale for the study, the key theoretical concepts, as well as the layout of the eight chapters.

Chapter 2: Methodological Framework of the Study

The chapter discusses the philosophical worldview, research design and methods, study population, data collection methods, sampling, data analysis and interpretation, methods of trustworthiness, as well as ethical considerations.

Chapter 3: The Military Police Division Mandate

This chapter presents the constitutional and legal mandate of the Military Police.

Chapter 4: The Military Police Division Training Initiatives/ Curricula

The chapter interrogates the extent to which current MPD training initiatives/curricula provide the required workplace skills.

Chapter 5: An Overview of International and Local Police Best Training Practices

The chapter presents best police training practices in the context of the United Kingdom, and the SAPS.

Chapter 6: The Military Police Division Training Challenges, Needs and the Conceptual Framework

This chapter presents and discusses the challenges, needs and the proposed conceptual framework for the MPD.

Chapter 7: Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation of the Findings

The findings of the empirical study are interpreted and presented in Chapter.

Chapter 8: Summary of Findings, Recommendations and Conclusions

The chapter presents recommendations based on the findings. The study's possible contributions are also discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 2: METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter presented and discussed the general orientation to the study, with particular emphasis on critical variables such as the research problem, research aim and research objectives, the research questions, study purpose, and definition of the key concepts. The current chapter basically presents the methodological framework underpinning the study, with specific focus on related variables such as the philosophical worldview, research design, data collection, sampling strategies, as well as data analysis and interpretation. The chapter then concludes with a discussion of several methods of ensuring trustworthiness and the ethical issues attendant to this research study.

2.2 PHILOSOPHICAL WORLDVIEW OFFERED IN THIS STUDY

Creswell and Poth (2018:4) define a worldview as “a basic set of beliefs that guide action”. On the other hand, Fisher and Gonzalez (2020:50) describe a worldview as a perspective from which an individual view, manages and interprets ideas and beliefs about the world. The latter author propounds further that it is on account of the espoused worldview that an effective system is established by which order and disorder are interpreted and judged. According to Swerdlin (2012:2), the notion of a worldview is based on the set of beliefs that guide sense-making of reality. According to Fisher and Gonzalez (2020:50), beliefs are an accumulation of experience or assumptions of what is construed as total reality, and that such beliefs are true, partially true or false.

However, Khaldi (2017:33) contend that reality can only be approximated, but not fully comprehended. According to Braun and Clarke (2013:31), the interpretation of reality and the world accumulates knowledge, which is the product of society’s experiences, assumptions and understanding of the world. Such knowledge and understanding could be either ideological, political, cultural, moral or social (Braun & Clarke, 2013:31).

In the context of this research study, the researcher explores the philosophical worldviews in order to discover the meaning and understanding of the world in which the researcher works and lives as a member of a larger social group or community. By critical analysis of the effectiveness of the MPD training, the researcher endeavours to understand the world of all the constituent elements (e.g. people, processes, systems) of the MPD training and the environment in which these elements exist. It is the researcher's fundamental belief that properly trained MPOs can deliver the reality of quality policing services in real-time.

The researcher endeavours to determine the needs of MPD training, explore the mandate of the MPD, the knowledge required in the training field of the Military Police, as well as international and local best policing training practices in relation to the stated research objectives and their attendant research questions. It is essential that findings are capable of improving and sustaining MPD training. In this study the researcher intends to determine whether or not, the current MPD training initiatives/curriculum are effective to provide the MPOs with the necessary workplace skills to function within their mandate, while also exploring the challenges of the MPD training, and developing practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures and recommendations for the Military Police to effectively enhance MPD training as a policy imperative.

To the above effect, the researcher outlined three philosophical worldviews in this chapter as the means by which a philosophical grounding is constructed and allocated to this study on the training of MPOs. These philosophical worldviews or paradigms are: post-positivism, constructivism and pragmatism; all of which are presented to support the research approach adopted in this study.

2.2.1 The post-positivist worldview

Haven and Van Grootel (2019:18) explain that the post-positivist worldview is based on the use of experiments to find the truth by gathering of facts to represent the basis of reality. Anderson and Poole (2018:17) state that post-positivism is quantitatively-based scientific research whose major focus is on "the absolute truth of knowledge". Bryman (2021:28) explains that the purpose the post-positivist worldview is to generate hypotheses that can be tested as the basis for providing an all-encompassing explanation of natural phenomena (Loiselle, Sitaram, Hack, Bottorff & Degner, 2008:583; Polit & Beck, 2020:11).

The post-positivist worldview is deemed appropriate for the present study, as it employs quantitative research as an ideal approach for exploring, describing and explaining the underlying causes and effects of MPD training as a phenomenon. Moreover, this worldview allows for uncovering the truth about MPD training through development of quantitatively-oriented data gathering instruments, such as questionnaires, checklists and surveys (Efron & Ravid, 2019:27).

2.2.2 The constructivist worldview

The constructivist worldview is based on the construction and interpretation of reality of the human world and truthful knowledge from observations and experiences of the people who have learnt, thought about, felt, constructed, and interpreted the particular form of reality (Patton, 2015:15). According to Al-Suqri and Al-Aufi (2015:3), humans construct knowledge and meaning from experience by perceiving various things around them to understand that reality.

According to Bada (2015:66), constructivism expresses the researchers' assumptions and beliefs about knowledge and reality in the construction of a research problem by constantly reflecting on the past experiences of the people affected. Such reflection serves the purpose of acquiring new information; thereafter, constructing own interpretation of reality, such as finding methods to investigate the research problem and answering the research questions. Researchers' assumptions could be ontological, epistemological, axiological, or methodological.

The researcher believes that knowledge is best acquired from those who have experienced some aspects of the knowledge being sought, and that different methods can be applied to obtain knowledge. The researcher considers these assumptions noteworthy for this study as they describe the basic beliefs from the point of view of constructivist beliefs, values, techniques and procedures (Aliyu, Singhry & Abubakar, 2015:4).

Ontology is based on understanding the nature of reality, facilitated by answering questions such as: *What is nature?* The belief is that reality is socially constructed (Wagner et al., 2012:13). In that regard, the researcher's assumption and belief (untested and hypothetical) is that the social construction of knowledge about MPD training is best obtained from the environment in which the participants experience this

phenomenon. On the other hand, the researcher's epistemological assumptions and belief proceed from the premise that knowledge of reality can be produced with answers to *how* and *why* questions (Crusoe, 2019:30). Wagner et al. (2012:13), submit that knowledge-related assumptions and beliefs are subjective because such knowledge is constructed within the domain of human experiences of what is true or false. This assumption holds true for the participant-centred aspect of this study.

Axiology is based on beliefs and assumptions made about ethics and values in the research enterprise (Crusoe, 2019:30). This range of assumptions applies fully in this study, based on the ethical principles and protocols to which the researcher adhered during the empirical stages of data collection (see Section 2.10). The researcher also complied with these ethical protocols for information validation and to ensure the integrity and quality of truth (Patton, 2015:15). As for the methodological assumption, they are premised on the researcher's beliefs about the appropriateness of specific methods in the acquisition of relevant information and data about a particular phenomenon or situation (Allana & Clark, 2018; Wagner et al., 2012:56). In this study, the researcher opted for a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches and data collection methods. As such, methodological assumptions apply prominently in this study.

2.2.3 The pragmatist worldview

The pragmatist worldview focuses on practical approaches available to understand a prevailing problem rather than on methods emphasising the research problem (Bazeley, 2016:189; Harrits & Møller, 2011:150). According to Denscombe (2014:324), the pragmatic worldview reveals that the value of research strategies and methods should only be measured insofar as covering a real practical need. Therefore, explanations of situation sought to be relevant and meaningful in order to effectively address the identified research problem. The view accentuated by Denscombe (2014:109) is that on issues of knowledge and truth, the pragmatic worldview places great emphasis on the practical rather than on the abstract.

Such a pragmatic approach is enabled by the fact that, it is the ontological nature of pragmatism to embrace both the positivist and constructivist perspectives in the resolution of the same problem; or interpretation on the same phenomenon (Bazeley,

2016:189; Harrits, & Møller, 2011:150). Based on its integrative nature, the pragmatist philosophical paradigm then adopts a mixed-method research design allowing for both quantitative and qualitative approach in the same study. Accordingly, pragmatism is appropriate and well suited for this study and its predominant mixed-methods design.

2.3 RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN

Research approaches and designs are defined in the context of the worldviews from which they are cognate (Kumar, 2014:132; Yin, 2014:105). Whereas some research scholars view the research approach and its design as two separate (dissimilar and different, but complementary concepts); the present research has adopted a perspective that views these two terms as interchangeable, synonymous and complementary. Accordingly, the research approach and design basically relate to the framework created to ensure that data collected provides clear answers to the research questions (De Vaus, 2013:9).

According to Fouche et al. (2021:142), research design relates to the justification for the technical decision-making in the planning of a research study. Meanwhile, Kumar (2014:123) clarifies that a research design is a systematic plan or strategy according to which the researcher decides to inform the reader about his/her preferred step-by-step breaking down process of the study in relation to the proposed data collection, analysis and interpretation methods; the target population; methods to ensure trustworthiness; and the manner in which the findings are presented.

There are basically three commonly used types of research approaches from which a researcher can choose when conducting a study (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2015:15; Holmes, Moody, Dine & Trueman 2023:36; Palaganas, Sanchez, Molintas & Caricativo, 2017:430). These are: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-methods research design approaches.

2.3.1 Qualitative research approach

According to Henning (2018:19), the qualitative research approach is mostly prosaic (non-reliant on the utilisation of statistics or numeric variable) in its orientation. Punch and Oancea (2014:21) alludes further that qualitative research is vital for theory verification when the field of investigation is relatively new and less known. Kumar (2014:132) and Palagras et al. (2017:np) on the other hand, state that the qualitative

research approach is most notable for its capacity to generate information that explicates feelings, attitudes, experiences, norms, situations, perceptions, and beliefs in the words of those who possess extensive knowledge in the subject matter of interest to the researcher.

The embeddedness of empiricism in qualitative research approaches enables a degree of openness, flexibility and unstructured-ness to enquiry, since the intention is to explore diversity and emphasise the importance of experience as the fundamental source of knowledge (Kumar, 2014:14; Punch & Oancea, 2014:22). Furthermore, the participant-centric nature of qualitative research renders the researcher as mostly an interpreter of what she/he has observed in the natural setting of the phenomenon being studied (Jackson, 2011:101; Saunders et al., 2019:51). According to Anderson and Poole (2018:17) and Leedy and Ormord (2015:142), the qualitative research approach is relevant for the exploration and facilitation of understanding of the reality and meaning of a social or human problem as constructed by individuals or groups in a certain context.

Such construction of reality enables the specification of the relevant data collection procedures required. For Guest et al. (2013:4) and Leedy and Ormord (2015:142), the qualitative approach is acknowledged for its inductive style of questioning and observation; as well as its use of open-ended questions to answer questions. In this study, the qualitative research approach was adopted, based on the need to obtain relevant information from the participants in their own words, rather than solely on the interpretation of the researcher.

2.3.2 Quantitative research approach

According to Bless et al. (2015:58), May (2011:17) and Punch and Oancea (2014:67), quantitative research design approaches are more efficient to test hypotheses and making judgements about the appropriateness of such hypotheses in a study, especially in the case of a new or unknown field of study. Furthermore, quantitative research examines the patterns of relationship among variables, and predominantly relies on numerical or statistical values such as averages and means to construct meanings and draw conclusions by means of deductive reasoning or logic (Kumar, 2014:16; Rahman, 2017:103).

The qualitative research approach is disadvantaged by factors such as possible participant and researcher bias or subjectivity, while the quantitative research variant is condoned for its relative objectivity due to the 'distance' between the researcher and the participants (Anderson & Poole, 2018:21; Jackson, 2011:102). The latter assertion assumes that the researcher is immune from any possible on-site influences and effects that could arise from the researcher and the participants during empirical data collection. In addition to the qualitative research design approach, the quantitative research approach was adopted in this study as well in order to facilitate the utilisation of questionnaires and surveys. As such, the study adopted a mixed-methods data collection and analysis approach, which is outlined in the next section.

2.3.3 Mixed methods research approach

Inspired by its pragmatist philosophical perspective, the study adopted the mixed-methods approach in order to 'free' itself from the rigidity imposed by, or weakness entailed in either a single-method qualitative or quantitative design (Bougie & Sekaran, 2016:12; Guthrie, 2015:45). By logical extension, then, the mixed-methods research approach is relevant for addressing questions in the event that either quantitative or qualitative methods seem limited or deficient to construct a wholesome picture of the researched problem or phenomenon (i.e., training of MPOs). As such, the mixed-methods research approach in this study combined or integrated both the qualitative and quantitative aspects to enhance the probability of triangulated findings and general trustworthiness in the study's data collection instruments (Almalki, 2016:292; Chatterjee, 2021:14).

In addition, the present study adopted the mixed-methods research approach for its facilitation of adequate evidence that directly addresses the research problem, and provision of answers to questions that cannot be answered by either qualitative or quantitative methods (Clark, Foster & Bryman, 2019:12; Wium & Louw, 2018:2). In the context of the present study, the qualitative aspect of the research was advanced with the exploration and subsequent description of the constructs and causal relationships of the phenomenon of the training of MPOs within the South African National Defence Force.

On the other hand, the quantitative aspect of the research was helpful for statistical conversion, verification and analysis of the prosaic (narrative) statements derived from the qualitative findings (Bougie & Sekaran, 2016:12; Patton, 2015:622). The integration of the quantitative and qualitative methods facilitated the triangulation of similar findings from different data collection methods in a sequenced manner, which is the subject of further discussion in the next section (exploratory sequential mixed-methods design).

2.3.3.1 Exploratory sequential mixed-methods design

The explanatory sequential mixed-methods design entails that the focus is on providing reasons (explaining) for a specific state of affairs about which the researcher is intent on finding more (exploring) information and describing the entire process as it unfolds (Creswell & Porth, 2018:82; Kumar, 2014:4). It should be noted that the “explanatory” process is not disconnected from both “exploring” and “describing” during the continuum of data gathering (Wium & Louw, 2018:7).

For example, while the explanatory aspect focuses on answering the *how* and *why* questions, the answers thereof are also fundamentally linked to the answers to the elementary *what*, *where*, *who* questions (Folayan, 2019:13; Leedy & Ormord, 2020:169). Therefore, the nature of the mixed-method research design adopted is sequential insofar as the *order* of data collection is collected. However, this does not preclude the fact that both data collection could occur concurrently, especially for experienced and professional researchers (Ravitch & Riggan, 2017:64; Wagner et al., 2012:52).

For Bougie and Sekaran (2016:15) and Patton (2015:640), the very “sequential” element of a mixed-methods design study entails that two different data collection and analysis approaches were used complementarily and reinforce each other as resolving the same research problem and answering the same research questions in the same study. The following section outlines the practical application and use of the explanatory sequential mixed-methods research design as suitable to address the research problem of this study.

2.3.3.2 Application of the explanatory sequential mixed-methods design

The explanatory sequential study was applied in two phases in this study. Phase 1 was entirely quantitative, with the research instrumentation (questionnaire surveys) designed to measure the effectiveness of the MPD training provided to MPOs within the South African National Defence Force. As mentioned earlier, the quantitative aspect of the study did not exist on its own. To the contrary, it was a complementary part of the qualitative phase as well, since it provided the basis on which the qualitative data collection instrument was developed and applied (Chatterjee, 2021:14; Corbin & Strauss, 2015:49).

Following the analysis and consolidation of the quantitative findings (derived from the questionnaire surveys), Phase 2 of the study's qualitative (interview-based) data collection architecture was then undertaken on the basis of the quantitative main ideas and thoughts accruing from Phase 1 of the study's data collection architecture (David & Thomas, 2018:275; Yin, 2014:108). Figure 2.1 (below) succinctly outlines the juxtaposed application of the two-phased data collection approach in this study.

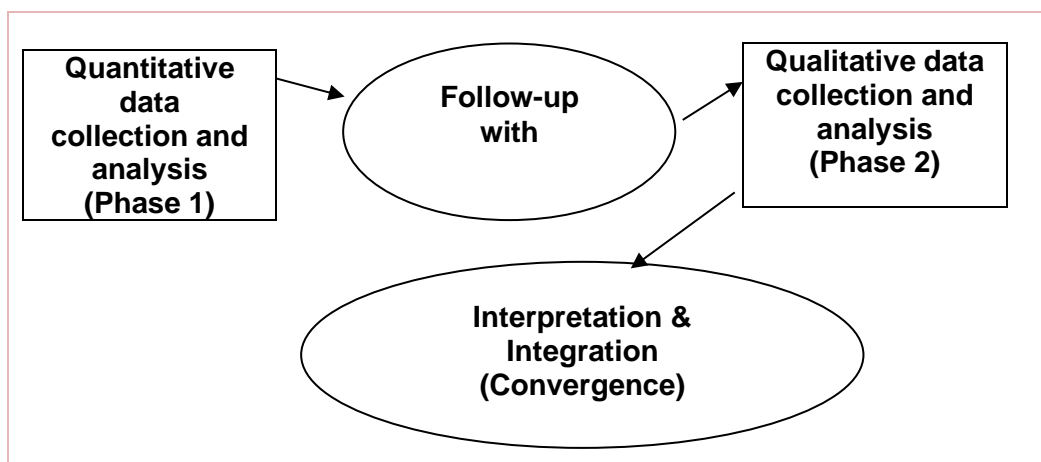


Figure 2.1: Explanatory sequential mixed-methods design

(Source: Creswell, 2020:41)

Figure 2.1 above clearly shows the quantitative data collection and analysis aspect as the initial stage that also precedes the second (qualitative) phase of data collection. The data section below (particularly sub-sections 2.3.3 and 2.3.4) outlines the sequential application of the data collection processes and methods in this study.

2.4 DATA COLLECTION

Data collection entails the utilisation of relevant instrument(s) and method(s) to acquire pertinent data for the purpose of addressing the identified problem of the study, while also advancing answers to the poignant research questions posed by the researcher (Bouma et al., 2012:108; Khaldi, 2017:34). Consonant with its adopted pragmatic 'stance'/perspective and mixed-methods research design, both primary and secondary data was collected in this study.

Secondary (abstract/theoretical) and qualitative data collection entailed the utilisation of literature and documentary sources, while the primary (empirical/experiential/practical) variant of data collection premised largely on the utilisation of questionnaire surveys and personal experiences of the researcher. The researcher contends that, while this does not necessarily constitute an integrally significant aspect of the research findings, the personal experiences of the researcher did lend an experience-based perspective which informed the larger domain of the researcher's understanding of both the subject matter under investigation (i.e. military police training); as well as the perspectives and context informing the participants' responses, who happened to be his professional colleagues as well.

For purposes of clarity and avoidance of "non sequitur reasoning" or lack of connection (Pennington, 2021:2), the data collection methods are presented in this section according to the actual quantitative-qualitative sequence in which they were applied in this study; and not necessarily in their secondary-primary categorisation. According to the researcher, the latter could generate some unnecessary 'tension' between the type of instrument or research method used and the actual reason/s or rationale for which the particular instrument/s was/were chosen (Bryman, 2021:8; De Vaus, 2013:119). For example, the literature review was the first step of data collection, albeit qualitative.

At the same time, the personal experiences of the researcher *preceded* all other forms of data collection mentioned in this study. However, the study's actual data collection commenced with the quantitative questionnaire survey. On the whole, the data collection architecture of the study was grounded on the utilisation of literature and documentary sources, questionnaires, in-depth interviews and the researcher's personal experience. These methods are discussed in greater detail below.

2.4.1 Literature sources

The relevant literature sources were identified following a protracted review of literature from multiple perspectives locally and internationally. It is in this regard that Adu and Okeke (2022:29), Corbin and Strauss (2015:49) and Wagner et al. (2012:271), define a literature study in the context of an intense and analytical process involving searching, identifying, processing and interpreting information and assessing its relevance in respect of the subject matter and problem to be solved. According to authors such as Bryman (2021:8), Hewitt-Taylor (2017:1) and Kumar (2014:48), a review of literature (for the purpose of identifying relevant literature sources) is helpful insofar as, amongst others:

- enlightening the researcher on the dominant research methods, concepts and theories that were previously applied in the particular topic of interest;
- the key local and international contributors and controversial issues on the researcher's topic of interest, as well as contending evidence on similar studies;
- broadening the researcher's in-depth understanding of the study area (i.e. military police training);
- facilitating a comparison of previous studies with their own findings;
- Integrating researchers' own study findings with existing knowledge by either supporting or contradicting the arguments raised; and
- analysing information to establish its theoretical rootedness, identifying knowledge gaps in the literature and consolidating such gaps in the subject field of investigation.

For purposes of this study, the researcher's literature search strategy involved the systematic consultation of academic books with the assistance of the Unisa subject librarian using a guided search of key word combinations such as "military training", "curriculum policy", and "learning styles". Furthermore, the researcher conducted protracted internet-based searches for databases and search engines, journal articles, published and unpublished theses/ dissertations and conference proceedings on the subject of military training in general, and MPOs' training in particular. These varied literature sources were helpful in terms of uncovering new knowledge deemed to be relevant to the study in respect of answering the research questions and

comprehending strategies and policy related issues relating to best practices that contribute to the enhancement of training. For instance:

- use of different learning styles (e.g. individual and group learning);
- linking the learning context to the real-life context of the workplace;
- recognition of prior learning (RPL) – its application and outcomes;
- learner-centred teaching and learning (two-way learning approach (interaction between the facilitator and learners); and
- assessment- related issues.

From the reviewed literature sources, the notions (key theoretical constructs) of “learning” and “training” were central to the study. Kapur (2015:112) describe learning as the process by whose means individuals acquire knowledge. In the context of the study, MPD training and development is firmly rooted in adult learning practices and the military training model. According to the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA, 2012:1), adult learning is based on learning principles, strategies and programme which guide the planning and implementation of such learning.

Basically, adult learning is aimed at assisting adult learners as their learning procedure is different from that of children, due to the disruption that may have been caused, such as work and family related imperatives and interventions (Salah, 2016:40; Erasmus et al., 2021:121). The changes occasioned by globalisation do not guarantee that what has been learnt today is still relevant tomorrow in terms of the competencies required in a particular field or work environment (Care, Kim, Vista & Anderson, 2018:4). Therefore, it is also crucial to provide learning experiences relevant to current needs. For purposes of this study, the case of the United State Department of Veterans Affairs (USDVA) provides a relevant example drawn from the international domain of literature sources.

For instance, the USDVA (2012:1) explains its military training model as military learning offering new skills by observing the military trainee practicing the skills they are trained for. Thereafter, trainees practice the skills by themselves, give feedback, and the corrections are immediately addressed where necessary. According to Wang (2018:3), such training improvisation literally develops a trainee to be a better person, move with changing times, and be able to attain an objective in a new way and useful

to the situation. According to the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE, 2012:17), such training improvisation is sustainable for maintaining quality training, ensuring that training equips learners/ trainees with knowledge and skills relevant for the present time, and without decreasing better chances of creating learning vision for future generations.

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2019:416) posits another form of training, known as non-formal. The OECD (2012:416) then describes non-formal training as continuous learning that occurs outside the mainstream/conventional training and education frameworks, and without limited time for learners to acquire the knowledge, and is particularly linked to functional or adult literacy. According to Politis (2012:84), non-formal training is practical and more useful to daily functioning, without specifically focusing on the certification of qualifications. The researcher utilised the relevance of literature sources to pave the way for formulating eclectically derived and helpful views, approaches, new knowledge, and skills to identify shortcomings in MPD training.

New knowledge and skills acquired would enable MPOs to be trained effectively in policing. The researcher believes that needs assessment of MPD training is long overdue for improving MPD performance. Without proper training and needs assessment, MPD would not function successfully. Needs assessment facilitates the collection of information and its analysis for the purpose of improving a situation and determining training gaps; that is, finding out whether training still accomplishes its intended outcomes (Watkius, Meiers & Visser, 2012:7). The next section outlines documentary sources as part of the study's data collection architecture.

2.4.2 Documentary sources

Documentary sources premise mostly on the acquisition of data and information from the policy and legalistic environments or frameworks that are relevant to the research study (Leavy, 2022:22; Marshall & Rossman, 2016:164). While they may not necessarily be academic or intellectual in their exegetic orientation, documentary sources are existing objects or written materials that are substantive in content, and may include personal documents, diaries and letters; Acts or laws; as well as court cases, transcripts, recorded meetings and collection of writing samples intended to provide in-depth data gathering for a study (May, 2011:192; Wagner et al., 2012:40).

According to Corbin and Strauss (2015:49) and Watkius et al. (2012:7), documentary sources should provide descriptive materials which illuminate on, and enhance understanding of the foundational tenets on which people make decisions on a daily and long-term basis. Most importantly, the documentary sources constitute specific (policy-related and legal) readings that are worth giving thought to by the researcher for use in answering the study's poignant questions (Babbie, 2017:449; Crusoe, 2019:38).

Accordingly, the current study's documentary sources derive largely from both the military/defence and government policy and legal frameworks. In terms of the military environment, the following legal prescripts and policy documents served as helpful and credible documentary sources.

The Defence Act (No 42 of 2002):

Section 20(1) of the Defence Act, mandates that MPOs should receive appropriate training prior to their employment.

The Department of Defence Instruction No TRg/0004/2001:

The intention of this policy is to ensure co-ordination of the Education, Training and Development (ETD) approach and dissemination of training across all levels of the Department of Defence (DoD, 2018:14).

The Military Police Agency Instruction (MPAI) No 11/00:

The aim of the MPAI (No. 11/00) is a policy-driven training initiative intended to regulate training within the MPD by providing relevant guidelines and procedures in this regard.

The White Paper on Public Service Training and Education, 1997:

The emphasis of the White Paper on Public Service Training and Education, 1997 is significant to the South African National Defence Force insofar as ensuring that (non-military) SANDF training is work-related and compliance with international standards and best practices. Government initiated legal prescripts and policy imperatives include the following.

Labour Relation Act (No. 66 of 1995):

MPD training is within the ambit of the public sector. In that regard, the employer should provide an employee with reasonable training in order to enable such employee the opportunity to render a satisfactory service during the probationary period in particular (South Africa, 1997, Schedule 8(1)(e)).

The Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998):

The aim of the Act is:

- to provide an institutional framework to devise and implement national, sector and workplace strategies to develop and improve the skills of the South African work force;
- to integrate those strategies within the National Qualifications Framework contemplated in the South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995;
- to provide for learnerships that lead to recognised occupational qualifications;
- to provide for the financing of skills development by means of a levy-grant scheme and a National Skills Fund;
- to provide for and regulate employment services; and
- to provide for matters connected therewith (South Africa, 1997:1-2).

The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act (No. 58 of 1995):

The above-cited SAQA Act (No. 58 of 1995) is the custodian of the National Quality Framework (NQF), a comprehensive policy that guides the provision of institutional training in both the public and private sectors (SAQA, 2012:5). The NQF also provides guidelines for workplace learning in order to enhance improved and transformed quality of training (South Africa, 2017:44).

The researcher is of the opinion that the NQF is vital and relevant for this study, as most of the MPD training courses are entirely according to the military training model. Thus, un-certified and unregistered training that encompasses skills or competencies acquired as a qualification, in fact, constitutes non-formal training.

2.4.3 Questionnaires and their administration

Kumar (2014:178) defines a questionnaire as a research tool with a series of questions that require the participant/s to read, interpret, and completed according to the directions of the originator of the particular questionnaire. The person responding to

the questionnaire is expected to self-administer it herself/himself; that is, write down or fill-in the answers/responses by him/herself because the searcher or questionnaire originator only explains the purpose of the investigation (Flick, 2020:72).

One of the advantages of the questionnaire data collection mode is that the researcher can distribute it to a large number of people and the results can be generated within a fairly reasonable time (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015:197; Pheiffer, 2013:21). In addition, a questionnaire is time- and cost-effective and requires very little training for the researcher (Anderson, 2019:141).

2.4.3.1 Questionnaire pre-testing/piloting

A pilot study was first conducted prior to the administration of the questionnaire as the main quantitative data collection instrument in this study. A pilot study is a small-scale feasibility study undertaken in preparation for the main study, pretesting the data collection research instrument and ensuring that the instrument is used effectively (Polit & Beck, 2020:159).

For the quantitative data collection of this research, the pilot study was conducted for the following purposes:

- Pre-testing accuracy of questionnaire items;
- Wording/Articulation of the questions;
- Whether the questionnaire is successful in providing the intended result;
- Possible weakness in the study;
- Comprehensiveness of possible answers by the respondents, and
- Reliability and validity of results.

The questionnaire was piloted at the MP School with a small group of five respondents, namely: 3 instructors and 2 learners to test the effectiveness of the questionnaire in the final study. The researcher did not experience any difficulties during this stage. The average time spent on the pilot questionnaire by the respondents was approximately 35 minutes, while the researcher spent about 8 (eight) minutes explaining the questionnaire. The respondents understood what was required from them, and did not need any further assistance.

In consonance with the explanatory sequential mixed-methods design of the study, the usage of the questionnaires (see Appendix A) followed the review of literature, but preceded implementation of the (qualitative) interviews. The fundamental purpose of the questionnaire was to measure the widespread effects of the challenges of the MPD training by evaluating the training needs of the MPD, its mandate, as well as the work-related knowledge required for effective and efficient MPOs. The idea was to obtain a statistical analysis for measuring the current challenges of the MPD training.

Accordingly, the researcher distributed 155 questionnaires to the Southern Military Police Region (SMPR), the Central Military Police Region (CMPR), Western Military Police Region (WMPR), the Northern Military Police Region (NMPR), and the Military MPD Head Quarters (MPDHQ). Only 103 (about 66.4%) of these questionnaires were filled-in and returned to the researcher. Wagner et al. (2012:101), point out that such a return rate (66.4%) is sufficient for the generation of credible and valid findings in research-based studies.

Figure 2.2 depicts the percentage distribution of each military police region in respect of the total of 155 questionnaires distributed and the 103 questionnaires that were returned. In terms of the sequential order from highest to lowest percentages, the individual return rate was: Northern MP Region, 25 questionnaires (24.3%); MPD Head Quarters, 24 questionnaires (23.3%); Western MP Region, 21 questionnaires (20.4%); Southern MP Region, 19 questionnaires (18.4%) and the Central MP Region, 14 questionnaires (13.6%).

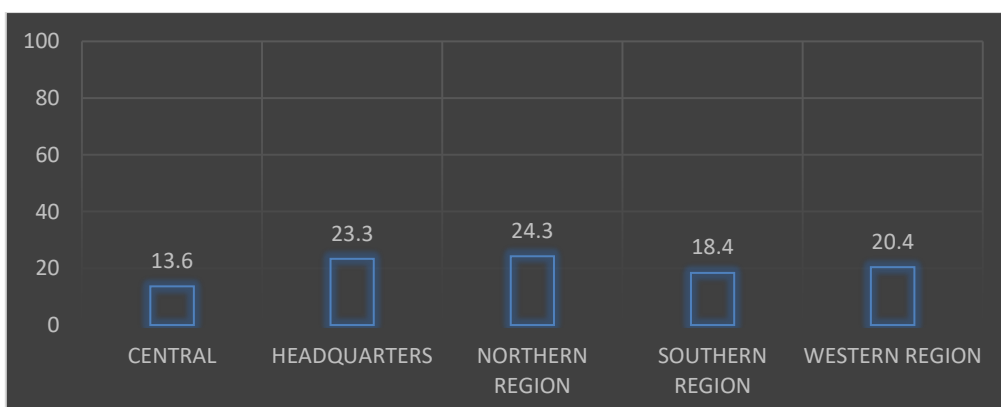


Figure 2.2: Military police sample by regions

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

2.4.3.2 Structure of the questionnaire

The questionnaire entailed a brief explanation of the purpose of the study and the use of the information needed, and also directed the expected nature of response by the participants (Leedy & Ormrod, 2020:197). The researcher constructed the questionnaire according to the following guidelines proposed by authors such as Adu and Okeke (2022:31) and Leedy and Ormrod (2020:197):

- Compiling a questionnaire (see Annexure “D”) with very brief and concise questionnaire items;
- Explaining the need for the information required to the participants/respondents;
- Ensuring correlation between the questions asked and what the researcher wants to know;
- Avoid unambiguous language;
- Ensuring questions are not leading, and are in a meaningful sequence;
- Ensuring readability and understanding since the questions are to be completed without the searcher’s assistance;
- Involving variability of questions, including simple, close- and open-ended questions; and
- Involving a small-scale pilot study to test feasibility of instrument.

Moreover, the questionnaire was structured according to three main sections in accordance with the type of information needed (Anderson, 2019:141; Denscombe, 2014:157):

- Background and demographic questions: This first section is attributed to the participants’ representation;
- Factual questions: Following the demographic section, these factual questions focus specifically on participants’ knowledge, understanding, perceptions and experiences relating to the core issue of military police training; and
- Opinion questions: These question types direct the participants to indicate their feelings about MPD training and level of disagreement or agreement, measured in terms of the Likert scale.

2.4.4 Interviews

According to Qu and Dumay (2011:133) and Beale, Duffy, Glanville, Lefebvre, Wright, McCool, Varley, Boachie, Fraser, Harbour and Smith (2014:137), the interview mode of data collection is used predominantly to conduct field-based studies, or obtain participant-focused information in qualitative studies. Additionally, Wagner et al. (2012:133) and Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2015:164), intimate that interviews are a valuable source of information, conducted with a specific purpose to elucidate and investigate the uncertainty inherent in complex issues. The intended purpose of an interview is to collect meaningful descriptive data, which assists the researcher to have better insight into the world of the participant(s) (Wagner et al., 2012:133; Warnich et al., 2015:164).

According to Kumar (2014:177) and Qu and Dumay (2011:238), interviews provide the researcher with an important opportunity to learn further about the beliefs of the participants through direct verbal interaction between the researcher and the selected participant (s); in which the researcher asks a series of questions, and the participants respond as directed by the researcher. May (2011:132) illuminates that it is imperative for the researcher to collect valuable information from an interview, which is assisted by the researcher's understanding of the strengths, weaknesses, and the types of methods available to conduct such interviews. Jackson (2011:103) illuminates on three types of interviews, namely:

- Structured interviews – Formal, present questions in a specific order, with clarification inherent in the questions themselves;
- Unstructured interviews – Less formal, no rigid adherence to method of asking questions, applies flexible language (clarification to questions) and free-flowing sequence of questions; and
- Semi-structured interviews – Informal, modified language to explain, the participants are allowed to express an opinion, or add to the question.

2.4.4.1 Pilot study for the interview

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2015:191), it is vital to pre-test the study in order to remedy any weaknesses before embarking on the final investigation itself. It should not be taken for granted that every aspect of the qualitative data collection is smooth.

The researcher conducted a preliminary investigation to address accounted problems before undertaking the actual study. A pilot-run assists the researcher in the following as determined by (Beebe, 2007:257-275; Fraser, Fahlman, Arscort & Guillot, 2018:263; Doody & Doody, 2015:1075; Kraemer, 2011:np; Moore, 2011:99):

- Interview procedures – The test of the already existing plan, if problems are encountered, the researcher adjusts the existing plan to suite the main study;
- Sequencing of questions – Checking the link of the question in relation to the anticipated problem, and changing the order of questions when necessary;
- Instrument test – If encountering difficulties with the participants, alter the instrument or modify the wording to understandable English level of the participants;
- Gain experience – Learn vital information about participants prior to the beginning of the main study;
- Sampling test – Can reveal ethical or practical issues that could hamper the main study. If any unethical or practical issues occur, the researcher takes majors to rectify those issues; and
- Test the recording – In order to mitigate risk associated with data management.

2.4.4.2 Actual semi-structured interviews

Marshall and Rossman (2016:150) intimate that semi-structured interviews generate information based on the researcher's specific and sequenced questions intended to elicit the fullest responses from participants. According to May (2011:134), semi-structured interview "use techniques from both focus and structured methods" for collecting useful in-depth information. However, Kumar (2014:176) acknowledges that semi-structured interviews can be time-consuming, and the quality of data collected depends on the nature and quality of the interaction with the participants. According to Paltridge and Phakiti (2015:8), semi-structured interviews could be used to complement the questionnaire on the basis of the findings, or used separately/independently, depending on the nature of the study being conducted.

As a sequel to the questionnaires applied during Phase 1 of the current study's quantitative data collection, semi-structured telephone interviews were used in this study for the researcher's insight into the life world of MPOs. Accordingly, the

researcher involved 20 participants in the semi-structured individual telephone interviews sessions to explore the effectiveness of the training provided to members of the MPD training with the use of a prepared questioning guide (interview schedule) to maintain the same consistency over questions coverage, to enhance the comparability of information from different interviewees (Corbin & Strauss, 2015:39; Guthrie, 2015:120).

Consistent with the explanatory sequential mixed-methods design adopted in the study, some questions from the questionnaires formed part of the interview schedule used for the qualitative semi-structured individual interviews (Flick, 2020:8; Yin, 2014:111). In this regard, the telephone semi-structured interviews were used to verify the findings of the questionnaire to probe further into the insight of the MPD training. Alshenqeeti (2014:40) and Babbie (2017:273) ascertain that a thoroughly organised and well-accomplished interview would achieve successful outcomes based on skilful chairing and due consideration of the characteristics of the interviewees before the actual interviews. In this study, the following considerations were applied:

- Compilation of the interview schedule (see Annexure E) according to a predetermined series of sequential questions based on the research problem and questions;
- Before conducting the telephone interviews, written permission from the MPD (see Annexure C) and Chief Defence Intelligence was obtained (see Annexure B);
- Interview questions were developed from the questionnaire;
- A consent form was emailed to the participants before the interviews as acknowledgement of participation in the telephone and virtual interview proceedings;
- Interviews were conducted telephonically and electronically in compliance with UNISA's Covid-19 regulations that prevent face-to-face contact with participants; The researcher asked open-ended and probing questions to allow participants to provide answers spontaneously;
- Each interview session was audio-recorded, with each participant interviewed for approximately 35 minutes; and

- Similar to the questionnaires, all proceedings and outcomes of the interviews were digitally stored in the researcher's laptop and protected by a password for safety and protection of the interviewees' privacy, confidentiality and anonymity.

2.4.5 Personal experience

Nadeak (2015:47) explains that personal experiences reflect the researcher's accumulated life journey, work related activities and educational background. The researcher has 11 years of experience in MP Division training. In that regard, this experience is a description and relevance of the real-world memory of the researcher with regard to the investigated phenomenon (De Jonckheer & Vaughnn, 2018:3). For Nadeak (2015:48), personal experience is more individual (rather than subject-specific), and is based on the accumulated thoughts stored in an individual's memory or imagination.

In relation to the current study, the researcher's personal experience derives from his deployment at the Military Police School entity of MPD from 2008 to 2019. During this period, the researcher was appointed Programme Coordinator at MP School (2013), Branch Commander of MPOs, Skills Development Programme (2014), Investigation Branch Commander of the Investigation Programme (2015) and facilitated a module in crime scene management. Between 2014 and 2019, the researcher served as Accreditation/Quality Assurer Officer. For the duration of his deployment at the Military Police School entity of MPD, the researcher acquired the rank of Major (Senior Officer), which is a middle management designation. In addition to accreditation and quality assurance, the researcher was also the Facilitator, Assessor, Moderator, Designer of Qualifications and Learning Materials.

In the years 2015 to 2019, the researcher was fully responsible for the Quality Assurance and Accreditation offices entrusted with the duty of ensuring that the MP School obtains full accreditation of all its learning programmes. It was also the researcher's responsibility to explore new training avenues to capitate the MP Officials, thus, ensuring that effective learning takes place.

2.5 POPULATION AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

In research, the population is defined as a group of individuals, units, events or activities having specific characteristics of interest to the researcher insofar as setting and determining boundaries of the study's data collection parameters (Alvi, 2016:11; David & Thomas, 2018:275). Since the population also constitutes an entire group about which the researcher wants to study and establish grounds for representativity, it is often impossible to involve the group as a whole in the study being conducted (Punch & Oancea, 2014:302). As such, the researcher extracts a representative group (sample) on account of its (sample's) possession of homogeneous (similar) characteristics, traits or qualities when compared to those of the larger group from whom they were selected or sampled (Punch & Oancea, 2014:302).

The population in this research consists of the entire MPD structures of about 1600 members across the various military police regions as shown in Table 2.1. The main function of the MPD entails the provision of policing within the SANDF and to the general public by executing a variety of duties, including patrolling, arresting individuals suspected of committing crimes, and testifying in court. MPOs play a central role in the criminal justice system. Other duties include the monitoring of criminal activity, taking part in community patrols, responding to emergency calls, and investigating crimes (South Africa, 2002:sec3(l)).

Table 2.1 also provides the context of the various research sites at which the sampled participants were located or stationed, namely: the MPD head quarters in Pretoria (Gauteng Province); the Southern military police region in Cape Town; the Central military police region in Bloemfontein; the Western military police region; as well as the Northern military police region. Therefore, the research sites are geographically located across different provinces in the country. Hence, the semi-structured interviews were held telephonically to shorten the distance between the researcher and the participants.

Table 2.1: Template of study population, sample size and sampling strategies

Sample/Participant Category	Population (N)	Target Population/ Sample Size (n)	Sampling Method	Research Instrument
Sample A: MPD Head Quarters, Pretoria	241	24	Probability Systematic Sampling	Questionnaires
		Main study 7 MPOs	Probability Simple Random Sampling	Interviews
Sample B: Southern Military Police Region (SMPR), Cape Town	281	28	Probability Systematic Sampling	Questionnaires
Sample C: Central Military Police Region (CMPR), Bloemfontein	370	37	Probability Systematic Sampling	Questionnaires
Sample D: Western Military Police Region (WMPR),	271	22	Probability Systematic Sampling	Questionnaires
Sample E: Northern Military Police Region (NMPR)	437	44	Probability Systematic Sampling	Questionnaires
		Main study 13 MPOs	Probability Simple Random Sampling	Interviews
Total	1600	155		103
		Main Study 20		

(Source: Compiled by researcher)

In terms of Table 2.1 above, the study population is distributed among MPOs as follows:

- MPD Head Quarters Pretoria, Gauteng Province (241);
- Southern Military Police Region (SMPR) Cape Town, Western Cape Province (281);
- Central Military Police Region (CMPR) Bloemfontein, Free State Province (370);
- Western Military Police Region (WMPR) Mafikeng, North West Province (271); and

- Northern Military Police Region (NMPR) Pretoria, Gauteng Province (437).

2.5.1 Target population

The target population refers to the specific group of individuals on whom the researcher specifically focuses on account of their possession of the relevant knowledge needed in the study, as well as other significant criteria determined by the researcher to justify the inclusion of such a group in the empirical data collection of the study (Guest et al., 2013:41; Bouma et al., 2012:113). In the case of the current study, the targeted population was derived from the larger study population and consisted of the following categories:

- MPD Head Quarters Pretoria, Gauteng Province – 24 MPOs;
- Southern Military Police Region (SMPR) Cape Town, Western Cape Province – 28 MPOs;
- Central Military Police Region (CMPR) Bloemfontein, Free State Province – 37 MPOs;
- Western Military Police Region (WMPR), North-West Province – 22MPOs; and
- Northern Military Police Region (NMPR) Pretoria, Gauteng Province – (44) MPOs’.

In conjunction with Table 2.1, the above statistical information shows that from a study population of 1600 members, only 155 constituted those on whom the researcher paid specific focus and eventually involved them in both the questionnaires (103) and the interviews (20).

2.5.2 Sampling

Alvi (2016:11) and Babbie (2017:203) define sampling as the process of systematically extracting a representative group of participants from a larger population, and is meant to reliably generalise about the large population. According to Leavy (2022:23), a sample is the smallest representative group selected from a population. Bouma et al. (2010:113), state that “if there is no proper representative in the sample, the conclusion drawn is limited”. The latter reinforces the view that data saturation is the major determinant of sampling representativity, rather than numerical representativity and its limitations.

2.5.2.1 Probability and non-probability sampling

According to Bougie and Sekaran (2016:23) and Guest et al. (2013:41), there are two major approaches of sampling, namely: probability and non-probability sampling. Wagner et al. (2012:273) affirms that probability emanates from the branch of mathematics which statistically establishes certainty/probability on the basis of representative generalisability. Silva (2017:2-3) asserts that a representative sample is sometimes regarded as a probable sample or subgroup selected to represent the population in a study, and is used to generalise the findings about the entire population. Therefore, probability sampling ensures or guarantees that each member of the population has an equal and independent chance of being included in the sample (Guthrie, 2015:153).

Examples of probability sampling include, but not limited to simple random, stratified and systematic or interval sampling strategies. In the case of non-probability sampling, the researcher cannot predict or guarantee that certain individuals within the population is selected in the sample (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015:220; Pazzaglia, Stafford & Rodriguez, 2016:3). Examples of non-probability sampling include judgemental/purposive, convenience/accessibility or availability, quota, cluster and snowball sampling methods. As shown in Table 2.1, two different probability sampling strategies were preferred, namely: systematic and simple random sampling.

2.5.2.2 Systematic sampling

In terms of systematic sampling, each member within the population has an equal chance of being selected in the sample (Guthrie, 2015:57; Pazzaglia et al., 2016:3). In this study, systematic sampling was utilised mainly for selecting participants for the quantitative data collection by means of questionnaires. The purpose of the questionnaire was to obtain cogent information relating to MPD training capacity and needs of the MPOs. The inference drawn from the entire population was used in the main study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2020:100). In this regard, a total of 155 participants were systematically sampled. The researcher entered the hall where MPD members were assembled, selected every third person counted, and continued to 6, 9, 12, 15, and so on until the sample of 103 was reached. The researcher considers the systematic sampling option as fair and objective, because he could not in any way influence who would be sitting as the third person.

2.5.2.3 Simple random sampling

In tandem with the details provided in Table 2.1, the simple random sampling method was utilised for the selection of the 20 participants for involvement in the semi-structured individual interviews. Consistent with the adopted mixed-methods research design approach, the triangulation of the questionnaire and interviews as preferred data collection methods has the ability to provide a more defined picture of a particular research problem (i.e. efficacy of MPD training) (Pazzaglia et al., 2016:3).

For the main study, a sub-group of 20 MPD members were randomly selected from the entire MPD, from which data was collected and used to generalise the entire MPD in conjunction with the quantitative findings (Pazzaglia et al., 2016:3). The randomly sampled 20 MPD members represented the Northern Military Police Region (n=13, 3%) from 437 MPOs; and MPD Head Quarters (n=7, 3%) from 241 in Gauteng Province. The researcher drew a list with names, and assigned a number next to each name. Thereafter, the numbers were folded into small pieces of paper and thrown into a box, from which they were then 'raffled', and only 20 names were obtained. The list of names was obtained from the prospective participants who had filled-in the informed consent form after permission to conduct the study was granted to the researcher.

2.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis refers to the process of systematically organising, evaluating, processing, categorising raw data with the intention of converting it into useful information that can assist in answering the research questions in the study (Walter, 2013:61). Data analysis is also helpful for developing a framework from which the findings of the study are established (Babbie, 2017:142). In the context of the current explanatory sequential mixed-methods design study, data was analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

2.6.1 Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data analysis involves the processing and management of acquired information into numerical or statistical values derived from the patterns or frequencies of its occurrence (Bryman, 2021:14). In this study, the participants' questionnaire-based responses were analysed statistically and presented in the form of tables, figures and percentages. The researcher used nominal scaling to analyse the

background and demographic profiles of the 103 respondents to the questionnaire. Nominal measures indicate the grouping of participants according to the applicable characteristics, for example, gender, race, or age variables (Babbie, 2017:142).

For the factual questionnaire variables, the researcher used the 5-point Likert scale, to analyse factual questions in a scale variation from “strongly agree”, “agree”, “unsure”, “disagree” and “strongly disagree” (May, 2011:111; Walker, Palmer, Baqwa, Gevers, Leslie, Steynberg & Kemp, 2018:np). The participants’ questionnaire responses were analysed in an Excel spreadsheet and then coded in numbers ranging from 1-5, meaning that the responses were replaced with numbers as codes (Khaldi, 2017:33). Data filtering was applied to attain the appropriate number of matching records, while also enhancing the reduction of large data sets (Beale et al., 2014:136; Ingham-Broomfield, 2014:35).

The results were filtered into categories of averages and means, after which the mean was then filtered in order to obtain the median, the quartile, cumulative percentage, and ultimate estimation of the average impact of the MPD training on the MPOs (Bouma et al., 2012:162). The interest of the researcher was on the cumulative percentages, as they provided an inference framework of the views of the participants (Beale et al., 2014:139; Alhojailan, 2012:8).

2.6.2 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis entails the processing, organisation, and reduction of data into a meaningful and manageable size and conversion into interpretable evidence relative to the research problem and questions of the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2020:274; Wagner et al., 2012:269). In the case of this fundamentally mixed-methods research, thematic data analysis was implemented for the participants’ semi-structured interviews, which complemented the quantitative questionnaire-based responses of the study’s data collection architecture (Clark et al., 2019:133; Corbin & Strauss, 2015:49).

For the opinion-type of questionnaire variables, the researcher analysed the open-ended questions by interpreting the answers to each question and checked for common or similar responses, also cognisant that one question could have more than one variable (Gibbs, 2013). Similar to the approach for the factual questions, the

responses were categorised into meaningful variables, assigned a number, and then filtered into a cumulative percentage.

Thematic data analysis is a “comprehensive process which enables the researcher to precisely match similar data and centred on the theme” (Alhojailan, 2012:16). The researcher adopted the following thematic data analysis approach as recommended by authors such as Ary, Cheser, Sorensen and Walker (2019:27), Chatterjee (2021:14), Leedy and Ormrod (2015:160) and Machi and McEvoy (2016:26):

- The original (audio-recorded) narrative statements or responses of the participants were transcribed in Excel spreadsheets for categorisation and identification of common patterns of occurrence (themes);
- Data was indexed, catalogued, and segmented – large texts were broken down into smaller segments in order to establish individual and group themes;
- Common or similar issues, keywords, and ideas were categorised and coded into themes based on the connection between different parts of data; and
- Data categories were grouped in order to reduce the data to fewer codes and establishing key themes, which then compiled and categorised according to the research questions and objectives; and
- The thematically compiled and categorised as the findings and evidence of the study.

Given the duality of the study’s research approaches, the interest of the researcher was on making sense of the statistically inclined frequency of responses from the questionnaires, as well as the overall themes emanating from their narrated statements (Bryman, 2021:13). Ultimately, both sets of responses complemented each other in the development and formulation of the study’s findings regarding the state or quality of MPOs’ training programmes.

2.7 DATA INTERPRETATION

The analysis of data is mostly ***data-focused***, precedes data interpretation, and premises on the researcher’s unpacking of the data itself (Mason, 2018:13). Meanwhile data interpretation is ***researcher-focused***, and demonstrates the researcher’s own understanding and conversion of the participants’ knowledge, perceptions and experiences in tandem with the research problem, aim/ objectives

and questions. Most importantly, data interpretation facilitates a process through which the veracity or otherwise of the participants' input is tested on the basis of available literature in the field of study in which the investigated phenomenon (e.g. military training) resides.

It is in this regard that Modise (2010:96) and Leedy and Ormrod (2015:343) define data interpretation as drawing of inferences about the research objective from the data collected following the data analysis process. Leedy and Ormrod (2015:343) add further that data interpretation significantly enhances the researcher's ability to infer from study variables that link directly with the research problem. This study adopted the explanatory sequential mixed-method research design approach according to which the qualitative research was conducted to explore, explain and interpret quantitative findings (Chatterjee, 2021:14; Leedy & Ormrod, 2020:343; Boncz, 2015:31).

To understand the complexity of the researched problem, combined frequencies were expressed in percentages (quantitatively) and prosaic (qualitative) statements and interpreted to draw sound conclusions from the associated comparisons (Boncz, 2015:21; Kumar, 2014:84; Stockemer, 2019:153).

2.8 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

Trustworthiness is generally reflective of the quality and scientific rigour of the study processes, tools, and outcomes (Schmidt & Brown, 2015:405). Furthermore, the concept of trustworthiness refers to the authenticity and truthfulness of the findings in qualitative research, as well as the validity and reliability of the quantitative findings (Statistics Solutions, 2019:1; Schmidt & Brown, 2015:405). Therefore, the current mixed-methods research incorporates both validity and reliability measures or criteria in its establishment of the trustworthiness of the findings.

2.8.1 Methods to ensure validity

Bairagi and Munot (2019:4) and Pandey and Pathak (2014:5747) explain that validity relates to the judgement allocated to the truthfulness that the research truly measured what it was intended for. Meanwhile, Kihlgren (2016:41) add further that validity establishes a mechanism to examine the analytic claims made by the researcher, which should convince the reader that the researcher has accurately represented data

by using various methods to collect data and its analysis. In this study, validity was ensured primarily by means of the credibility and transferability criteria.

2.8.1.1 Credibility/Authenticity

Korstjens and Moser (2018:121) explain that credibility ascertains whether information interpreted is reflective of the correct version of the participants, and further determines whether the research findings genuinely represent the data drawn from the participants. In addition, credibility (internal validity in quantitative research) is premised on the assurance placed by the researcher in the truth of the research findings (Anney, 2014:277).

The researcher embarked on member checks by consistently consulting with the study participants to confirm the correctness and accuracy of data as analysed and interpreted by the researcher. Such an orientation is obligatory, considering that research studies are not about the researcher, but the research problem in tandem with the participants as providing the 'solution' (Alderman, 2014:2; Breier & Herman, 2017:28; Guest et al., 2013:39).

2.8.1.2 Transferability

Transferability (external validity in quantitative research) relates to the applicability of the findings in other contexts (Grove et al., 2015:323; Marshall & Rossman, 2016:261). The transferability or generalisability of research studies and their findings is not always easy and possible. It is for this reason in particular that data saturation is relied on as a mechanism to reflect the extent of the study's transferability (Anney, 2014; Babbie, 2021:44).

The researcher ensured transferability by providing adequate and thoroughly detailed descriptions of all the research processes and related data collection and analysis stages; that is, from the conceptualisation of the study to the very recommendations and conclusion reached (Pandey & Pathak, 2014:5749). These details also include the decisions pertaining to the rationale, significance, and scope of the study to inform readers and future researchers interested in this field of research about the reasons for such decisions (Bazeley, 2016:191; Cherry, 2013:1). In addition, triangulated data collection methods were applied to maximise the stakeholder representativity and diversity in terms of participants. Furthermore, the findings of a specific MPD sample

were generalised, to enable other researchers who are interested in this specific finding about the MPD (population), to reach similar results when using a similar sample in their own studies.

2.8.2 Methods to ensure reliability

Reliability is viewed as the consistency, repeatability, or replicability of the study results in other contexts with different participants, but under similar conditions as in the original study at a different time (Cherry, 2013:1; May, 2011:97; Grove et al., 2015:323). To ensure reliability, the researcher applied the 5-point Likert type scale to measure the results of the questionnaires. Moreover, the questionnaire items were the same for all participants in the particular samples group.

2.8.2.1 Dependability

According to Ary et al. (2019:27) and Babbie (2017:419) dependability (reliability in quantitative research) refers to a proposed inquiry audit according to which the researcher comprehensively describes a thoughtful research strategy of how each step in the study was completed.

The purpose for inquiry audit is to assess consistency (Anney, 2014:277; Yin, 2014:13), which was implemented as indicated below.

- Triangulation – Various research instruments to enhance the quality of data and strength of the evidence. In this study, triangulation was enhanced by means of the review of literature and documentary sources; questionnaires; semi-structured interviews; and personal experiences of the researcher to complement both the qualitative and quantitative findings and conclusions reached. Moon (2016:18) confirm that multiple data contexts increase the confidence in the evidence.
- Dependability audit –The researcher has kept records of the interview transcripts, questionnaire statistical data, data analysis decisions and field notes for interested researchers' ease of reference (Bryman, 2021:392).

2.8.2.2 Confirmability

Bryman (2021:392) asserts that confirmability (objectivity in quantitative studies) ensures the researcher's *bona fide* intentions throughout the study, and has not overtly allowed personal values or theoretical inclinations to influence the conduct of the research and its findings. Marshall and Rossman (2016:262) elucidate that

confirmability refers to the extent of the study's independent corroboration by another person or another study. The latter authors suggest that researchers could enhance the confirmability of their studies by embarking on the below-cited strategies:

- Peer debriefing - The researcher should engage a critical and knowledgeable reviewer or practitioner who question the researcher's analysis, unwarranted bias, search for negative cases. In this regard, the researcher involved an experienced statistician to check the compatibility of the findings and the conclusions reached.
- Bracketing –The researcher ensured that his previous knowledge, assumptions, biases and presuppositions as a training practitioner did not unduly influence or the participants' perspectives during the interviews (Sorsa, Kiikala & Astedt-Kurki, 2015:19).

2.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to the University of South Africa (UNISA) (2016:4), research ethics are not meant to confine the researcher, but to remind her/him to uphold the principles of respecting and protecting the dignity and human rights of all participants and act responsibly. Meanwhile, Neuman (2014:143) and Walliman (2017:81) proffer that ethical considerations ensure the regulation of proper moral and professional conduct on the part of the researcher in his/ her interaction with the research participants. To that extent, researchers are also bound by the administrative fiat of the organisations or institutions that are directly involved and affected by the study being conducted (Ballyram & Nienaber, 2019:32).

2.9.1 Institutional reviews

Before conducting the empirical aspect of the study (questionnaires and semi-structured interviews) written permission was first obtained from the UNISA Research Ethics Committee (see Annexure "A") (UNISA, 2016:11). Thereafter, similar permission was obtained from the Chief Defence Intelligence (see Annexure "B") and the MPD (see Annexure "C") after written requests to conduct the study was written by the researcher to gain entry to the respective sites.

2.9.2 Confidentiality

Participants were assured that information given by them would not be divulged to any other person other than the researcher. Data collected from the participants was

stored safely, and would be kept for three years in the researcher's laptop and secured by a password only known to the researcher. The questionnaires and field notes would be kept in the lockable researcher's safe for a minimum of five years (De Vaus, 2013:144).

2.9.3 Informed consent

The study participants agreed to participate and were asked to sign two consent forms, one copy for the researcher and the other for the participant. This was done in accordance with the Protection of Personal Information Act of 2013 (UNISA, 2016:14). Corbin and Strauss (2015:44) state that a full disclosure of the study and its intended purposes should be made to the participant, and without any coercion, intimidation, inducement, or false promises. Those who were not willing to participate voluntarily after full disclosure were excused. Those who participated willingly were informed that they were free to withdraw at any time, if they were uncomfortable to proceed.

2.9.4 Anonymity

Anonymity is most vital to protect participants from harm that might arise from the disclosure of their identities (Adu & Okeke, 2022:31). Accordingly, the participants' identity and responses were not revealed to any person other than the researcher and the participant concerned. Instead, the researcher allocated alpha-numeric codes to their names and responses.

2.9.5 Harm to participants

The researcher ensured the physical, psychological and emotional well-being of the participants by assuring them of their right to withdraw at any stage during the study should they feel exposed or threatened as a consequence of their involvement in the semi-structured interviews and questionnaire administration (Bezuidenhout, 2021:17; De Vaus, 2013:144).

2.9.6 Right to privacy

Babbie (2021:47) and Vithal and Jansen (2019:17) asserts that the participants' right to privacy is an important ethical consideration, and obliges the researcher's consideration of the participants' human rights. In the same vein, privacy is viewed as thinly distinguishable from the required confidentiality and anonymity based on the non-disclosure of any aspect of the participants' personal profile. In this study,

participants were not required to state (verbally or in writing) their names, next of kin, or place of residence and work.

2.10 CONCLUSION

The chapter focused mainly on the methodological framework of the research, including its critical units of analysis that are also discussed in other chapters with varying emphasis. In addition to its theoretical premises, the chapter outlined and discussed its most critical focus, its data collection and analysis methods. Accordingly, the chapter provides details of the framework in which people and processes involved in the study were clearly articulated. The next chapter focuses entirely on the mandate of the MPD.

CHAPTER 3: THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION MANDATE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses primarily on the mandate of the MPD, and further provides a legislative and policy context of the self-same mandate. In that regard, the chapter endeavours to respond to the research question: “What is the mandate of the Military Police?” as described in Sub-section 1.5.1 of Chapter 1. The chapter then presents the background knowledge, applicable legislative aspects of the MPD mandate, vision, mission, values, as well as its strategic framework, while also providing a broader context of the establishment or appointment of the MPOs.

It is the researcher’s view that the organisation and presentation of the current chapter is imperative for better understanding of the mandate of the MPD, as well as the need for appropriate training and development as integral aspects for achieving effective functionality of the MPD. Knowledge of the MPD mandate further ensures a broader understanding of the MPO’ fundamental duties, the situations which they must address, as well as the actions they ought to take when addressing those situations (Basilio & Riccio, 2017:157). Furthermore, the MPD mandate broadly coheres with the objective of this study as articulated in Section 1.5.1 of Chapter 1.

In this regard, an exploration and description of the mandate of the MPD enables the explicit identification of the potential training needs required to assist the military police achieve as the expected levels of competency in the respective job specification categories. The main military police’s job specification is on the performance of policing duties within the military context and provision of support to the military operations of the SANDF. The latter job specification is in consonance with the proposition by Basilio and Riccio (2017:157) that military police training should be inextricable from the mandate to be performed.

3.2 OVERVIEW OF THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION

The fundamental mandate of the SANDF is to defend and preserve the Republic of South Africa (“the Republic”), which includes its territorial integrity and its people in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) (Le Roux, 2005:1). In defence of the Republic, the SANDF should also unequivocally

uphold international laws and norms that govern the use of force (Le Roux, 2005:1). The SANDF is the only legally recognised military force or entity in South Africa, and is composed of the South African Military Health Services (SAMHS), the South African Air Force (SAAF), South African Navy (SAN), and the South African Army (SAA) (South Africa, 2014:29).

On the other hand, the Military Police (MP) was founded in 1912 as a component within the erstwhile SANDF prior to the post-apartheid democratic dispensation in 1994 (Mathebula, 2018:2). Before 1994, there were three distinct military police organisations, each for the Army (known as the South African Corp of Military Police), the Navy (known as the Navy Police) and the Air Force (referred to as South African Air Force Police) respectively. Following the country's post-apartheid reconfiguration of all previously fragmented armed forces, the MPD then became a legal entity under the fiat of the SANDF (Mathebula, 2018:2).

Therefore, the MPD is a police unit within the SANDF which was formed as a result of the merger of three Military Police units, and is basically responsible for internal matters relating to preventing and combating crime; as well as the provision of quality policing and military correctional service within the SANDF (Tshabalala, 2004:65; Xobiso, 2018:129). Furthermore, the MPD is mandated to preserve law and order, and to conduct investigations pertaining to criminal cases or allegations within the Department of Defence (DoD) (Xobiso, 2018:vi). As an entity of the SANDF, the MPD also provides operational support to the DoD, which includes the administration of military offences and detention of military offenders (DoD, 2016:14).

At the military installations, the MP's main responsibility is to combat crimes committed within the SANDF (Bapela, 2007:2). The South African Military Health Service was the only service without a separate Military Police structure (Litchfield-Tshabalala, 2004:41). Currently, the SANDF consists of four arms of service: the SA Army, SA Air Force, SA Navy and the SA Military Health Service (South Africa, 2014:29). All four arms of service have Military Police structures, all of which are overseen by the MPD headed by the Provost Marshal General (PMG) despite the fact that the PMGs' careers are still governed by their individual arms of service (Mathebula, 2018:91).

The amalgamation of the MPD resulted in the need to simplify the organisation's structure, procedures, methods, and style of operation in accordance with the SANDF's transformation strategy and worldwide standards for professional police (Mathebula, 2018:121). The MPD creation centralised operations, resources, and administration, promoting tighter command and control, increased accountability, and cost efficiency. The Military Police Agency Instruction 12/00 (a crime prevention manual) was developed as a seminal guide and mandate for training of members of the Military Police (Military Police Agency, 2001:1).

In general, training is a tool for enabling employees in an employment context to acquire the necessary skills and competencies in order to support the effective fulfilment of the organisational mandate and strategic objectives, amongst others (Malik, McKie, Beattie & Hogg, 2010:19). In this regard, the mandate is the starting point for training, since the nature of training to be conducted within an organisation emanates from the mandate itself (Malik et al., 2010:19). At the microcosmic level, training is a basic mechanism in terms of which individuals are prepared by acquiring skills and competences necessary for the effective execution of the organisation's mandate.

It is in this regard that the United Nations (UN, 2015:1) ascertains that training was an important tool to equip peacekeepers with the adequate skills, knowledge and competencies in the performance of their mandate and tasks in any peacekeeping mission. Correspondingly, Le Roux (2005:7) asserts that the ultimate goal of training in the MPD context should be the provision of the necessary skills and knowledge that should assist the MPOs to fulfil their mandate and provide excellent services to their clients within the South Africa National Defence Force. The various roles and functions of the MPD within the SANDF are discussed hereafter.

3.3 FUNCTIONS OF THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION WITHIN THE SANDF

The MPO is both a soldier and a police officer (Draper, 2015:1). Furthermore, the MPD or Unit itself has highly trained law enforcement professionals whose skills are valuable to the SANDF community, including in combat situations (Araújo, Sanches, Turi & Monteiro, 2017:2). Therefore, the Military Police refers to any member of the

SA Army, SA Navy, or SA Air Force who also officially provides policing duties and functions within the SA National Defence Force (Cobuild, 2015:289).

According to Millie (2014:1), policing refers to the actions of police or authorised personnel aimed at maintaining law and order in the country. In this regard, the MPD is the only recognised law enforcement agency within the SANDF that exercises policing functions within the DoD (Mathebula, 2018:105). The MPA Instruction 12/00 (2007:2) stipulates further that the MPD is responsible for crime prevention as well as coordination of crime prevention operations throughout the SANDF. Therefore, it is unambiguous that the MPD's role is to keep the SANDF crime-free, since MPD members are authorised to execute all police duties, including the function of gathering crime intelligence in accordance with the law in South Africa (Mathebula, 2018:126).

The MPD Crime Statistics (2018:1) has accentuated and justified the MPD's function as the SANDF's policing corps as a result of an increase in crime within the SANDF. The Provost Marshal General (PMG) has also lamented the surge in financial crimes such as corruption, theft, and fraud within the SANDF, which unnecessarily makes it more difficult for the organisation to achieve its goals and objectives (Provost Marshal General (PMG), 2007:1). It was in this regard that the Military Police Agency Instruction 12/00 (2007:2) acknowledged the distribution of pamphlets and provision of public education as a strategy of mobilising the broader community to assist the Military Police in the fight against crime in regions where there is a predisposition or expectation of crime occurring.

Mathebula (2018:53) and Greeff (2011:9) aver further that information collection and the development of information sharing agreements between the police and the community are critical in criminal intelligence. Mathebula (2018:111) asserts that the objective of the MP's crime intelligence function focuses specifically on obtaining information on unreported crime, without limiting the importance of already-available crime data. On the whole, the policing duties of the MPD should be conducted by all personnel of the MPD at all times and locations, including the investigation of any criminal or suspected criminal offence, and preventing crime in accordance with the prescripts of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) (Litchfield-Tshabalala, 2004:66).

The fact that the involvement of every MPD member is expected in achieving the MPD objectives, it then becomes imperative that a functional organisational structure should be streamlined to allow for effectiveness, innovation and efficiency (Tankovic, 2013:331). In the following section, the researcher discusses the organisation and structure of the MPD, its Head Quarters, as well as its regional divisions. It is the researcher's view that knowledge of the organisational structure of the MPD is cogently helpful for better understanding of the MPD as an organisation and entity of the SANDF.

3.4 ORGANISATION OF THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION

An organisational structure or organogram is reflective of an organisation's intended strategic objectives, areas of responsibility, as well as task allocation and coordination (Willie, 2022:141). According to Funminiyi (2018:582) and Nene and Pillay (2019:10), an organisational structure is basically a framework that articulates and clarifies the performance of specific tasks in order to accomplish the organisational objectives. These authors further contend that an organisational structure also influences how the particular organisation functions in relation to its foundational standard operating procedures and practices.

The MPD's head office is located in Centurion, an area under the jurisdictional authority of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (previously known as Pretoria). The MPD itself is demarcated into 4 (four) main regions country-wide: the Northern MP Region, which covers parts of Gauteng Province (including Pretoria), Limpopo Province, and Mpumalanga Province; the Central MP Region, which covers Kroonstad, Bloemfontein, Port Elizabeth, and KwaZulu-Natal Province; the Southern MP Region, which covers Cape Town, Simonstown, Saldanha, and Mossel Bay; as well as the Western MP Region, which covers Johannesburg, North-West Province, and Kimberly and Upington in Northern Province. Figure 3.1 below shows the geographical location of the MP Head Quarters in Centurion and various MP Regions within the Republic of South Africa.

MILITARY POLICE REGIONS WITHIN RSA

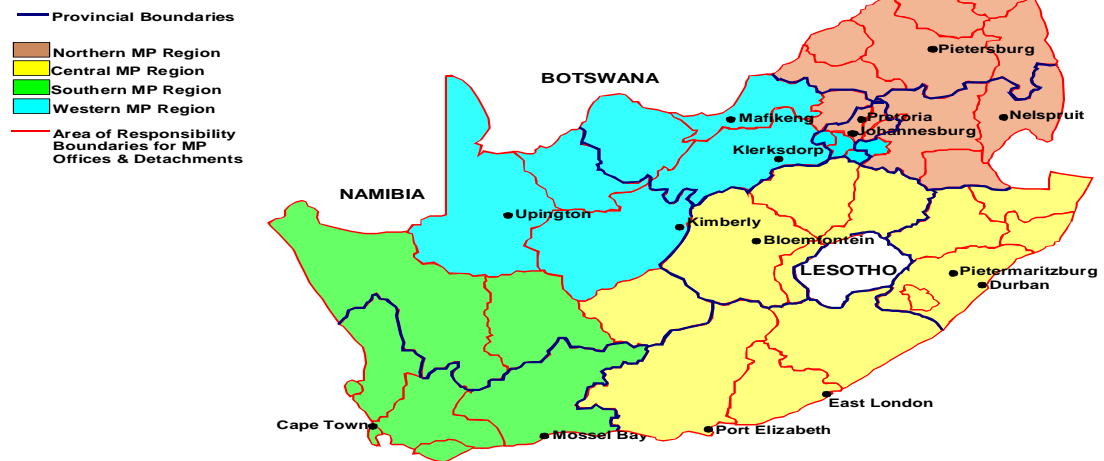


Figure 3.1: The geographical location of the MP Head Quarters and various regional areas of responsibility

(Source: Global Security, 2019:np) Retrieved from: <https://www.globalsecurity.org/military/world/rsa/maps.htm>

While Figure 3.1 above is an accurate depiction of the geographical location of the MP Headquarters and its various regional structures, it should be noted that these regional demarcations are not based on the country's 9 (nine) provincial boundaries. In essence, the MP Regions are geographically located to offer and manage the Department of Defence's military policing responsibilities across the RSA through a crime administration system involving crime prevention, general police investigation, as well as general military police tasks (DoD, 2020a:14; MPD, 2021:9).

Whereas Figure 3.1 above is essentially an illustration of the MPD's geographic distribution, Figure 3.2 (overleaf) depicts a more detailed MPD macro-structure and the various sections from the highest to the lowest level.

Department of Defence” (DOD, 2004), regulates training in the SANDF. Such an orientation is in alignment with government policies, particular the South African Qualifications Authority Act (South Africa, 1995). The afore-cited ETD policy of the Department of Defence provides a common frame of reference for all SANDF education and training providers to develop relevant and new policies within SANDF structures.

The South African National Defence Force (SANDF) and its structures are responsible for education, training and development (ETD) within the Department of Defence through the Human Resource Division (HRD) (Xabanisa, 2010:24). Isabirye and Moloji (2020:11) explains that within the context of the SANDF, the HRD is the strategic level-two institution of the Defence Force located at the Defence Headquarters, and is responsible for: planning and drafting education, training and development (ETD) policy; career development; performance management; accountability and quality assurance; ETD systems liaison; skills development; human resource practitioner development; and foreign learning opportunities within the whole Department of Defence.

According to Schwartz (2016:37), the HR Division serves as evidence of the SANDF’s current and accepted standardised ETD practice. In short, the HRD is responsible for the strategic training and planning of the Defence Force in its entirety, ensuring that it is directed towards equipping all its members with the skills, knowledge and attitudes required to fulfil the mission and vision of the SANDF (Moloji, 2020:11). Within the context of the SANDF, the HRD is the strategic level-two institution of the Defence Force located at the Defence Headquarters, and is responsible for: planning and drafting education, training and development (ETD) policy; career development; performance management; accountability and quality assurance; ETD systems liaison; skills development; human resource practitioner development; and foreign learning opportunities within the whole Department of Defence through the Human Resource Division (HRD) (DoD, 2020b:np).

The term ‘ETD’ was created to avoid confusion between education, training and development, and to ensure an integrated ETD approach that supports outcomes-based learning (OBL) (SANDF, 2016:C-4). Notwithstanding that the Defence Force’s Draft ETD Doctrine has not been promulgated as a training manual, the DOD’s South

Africa (1997:19) viewed the ETD Process as a systematic and planned mechanism to change the knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviour of people in such a way that organisational objectives are achieved. In this regard, Section 63(b) of the Defence Act (Act No. 42 of 2002), the staff of any Formation/Division training institution may be assigned the responsibility of maintaining training.

Therefore, to provide MPD education, training and development, an ETD office has been established within the Force Preparation office, and is managed by the Staff Officer 1 (SO1). The SO1 is the Staff Officer who controls the section. The duties of the SO1 training are to shape MPD training. The implication is that the ETD office is the training management office designed to support the MPD training presented at the Military Police School. It is the researcher's viewpoint that a concerted understanding of the MPD Education, Training and development is best facilitated by a broader understanding of the ETD concept itself, which is used in this study to depict all training activities within the South African National Defence Force. According to the South Africa (2014: 7-2) there are eleven ETD principles that underpin the South African National Defence Force's education, training and development trajectory as indicated below:

- **Primary focus:** Notwithstanding the broader development of its members, Defence education, training and development has a primary focus on the defence mandate, the development of a warrior ethos, and the ability to execute successful combat operations.
- **Command decisions:** Prepare Commanders to take full control of their resources and empower them to make command decisions within their areas of direct responsibility.
- **Development of Defence members:** ETD should enhance the development of Defence member's line function to improve a command responsibility throughout all levels of Defence.
- **SANDF alignment:** The personnel development system should be aligned with the national regulatory framework and consequently supports later access to alternative civilian careers by providing portable skills and qualifications for departing Defence members.

- **Training command:** Defence has command over its accredited learning institutions, whose education, training and development practices adhere to the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) stipulations.
- **Accredited learning:** Defence presents accredited learning programmes that satisfy its organisational objectives as well as its human capital requirements.
- **Career pathway:** Education, training and development opportunities support individual career plans and individual learning pathways.
- **Appropriate methodologies:** Education, training and development is delivered effectively through tailored infrastructure and sufficient capacity, and coupled to appropriate methodologies and delivery systems, such as blended-learning and e-learning.
- **Take ownership of learning:** Individual members take co-responsibility with the Defence organisation for their own continuous professional education and actively seek access to education, training and development opportunities.
- **Measurement of ETD:** The development of Defence personnel is measured by the value that development initiatives have added to individual competence in the workplace and by their contribution to the success of military operations.
- **Distance and e-learning:** Distance and e-learning must be emphasised to enable more reserve members to avail themselves of the opportunity for empowerment and development.

The concept of education, training and development within the South African National Defence Force is discussed underneath.

3.4.1.1 The concept of education

Erasmus (2006:2) define 'education' as the activities directed at providing the knowledge, skills, moral values and understanding required in the ordinary course of life. Meanwhile the Australian Army (2018:9) define education in its academic and military contexts. Academically, education is viewed as a process of teaching, training and learning, especially in schools and colleges to improve knowledge and develop skills. In the military context, education is viewed as intellectual, moral and social instruction in the profession of arms (Australian Army, 2018:9). According to Coetzee, Botha, Kiley and Trauman (2007:49), education transcends training, and aims at

developing knowledge, social understanding and skills, and individuals' intellectual capacity.

Education also includes the learning activities that occur in an organisation, specifically those that are required by managers and both skilled and unskilled workers (Erasmus, 2006:27). The Defence Review (2014:11) introduces the concept of professional military education to distinguish between the broad liberal education provided by public higher education institutions, and the type of education focusing on the military. Professional military education is provided by either the military in conjunction with, or independent of tertiary institutions of higher learning, and is focused towards specific military, professional, and occupation-specific knowledge. According to Esterhyse (2014:11-14), the spectrum of knowledge addressed through this education is applicable to all features and domains of the military as a profession.

3.4.1.2 The concept of training

The aspect of training is discussed in more detail in Chapter Four. According to Werner and DeSimone (2012:10), training involves provision of knowledge and skills needed for employees' performance of a particular task or job. In contrast, development has a longer-term focus on preparing for future work responsibilities, while at the same time increasing the capabilities of employees to perform their current jobs (Werner & DeSimone, 2012:10). Therefore, training has clear and specific outcomes connected to the mastery of action (workplace practice). It is a planned, short-term effort aimed at transforming experiences, attitudes and beliefs, knowledge, skills or behaviour through learning experiences (such as formal learning and/ or skills programmes) (Coetzee et al., 2007:49).

Furthermore, training is directed towards instilling the necessary technical and tactical military skills for effective performance. In the military context, training is posited as a group-orientated activity to instil armed forces with an ability 'to do'. The Defence Review (2014:11-4) asserts that training constitutes the foundation of an appropriate military culture, and is largely a closed process for the translation of doctrine into action, inculcation of discipline, and establishment of cohesion. The Defence Review (2014:11-4) further confirms that good training produces military personnel who respond instinctively to anticipated, recognisable circumstances in a manner defined by the doctrine and culture to which they have been trained.

3.4.1.3 The concept of development

Botha and Coetzee (2013:202) define development as a long-term change effort intended to broaden individuals through experience and to provide them with new insight about themselves and their organisation. The Defence Review (2014:11-4) on the other hand, alludes to functional military development, which is linked to the process of life-long learning, and is largely the responsibility of the individual through opportunities created by the Defence Force. Therefore, development can be seen as relating to learning activities that occur outside the formal career-related education and training programmes of the DOD (Defence Review, 2014:11-4).

Based on the above, the concept of education, training, and development is then used in this study to represent all training activities within the SANDF. The ETD office in the military governs the training enterprise, while also recommending improvements in training policy and strategy resourcing, and resources needed to provide trained and ready soldiers (Army Regulation 350-1, 2017:6). This office is a vital asset and 'engine' of the MPD training. The researcher's usage of 'engine' denotes the essence of the ETD office in developing high-quality training policies or instructions that enable training knowledge distribution to the MP School at level 4. Figure 3.3 (overleaf) is an illustration of the MPD training organogram showing training co-ordination within the MPD.

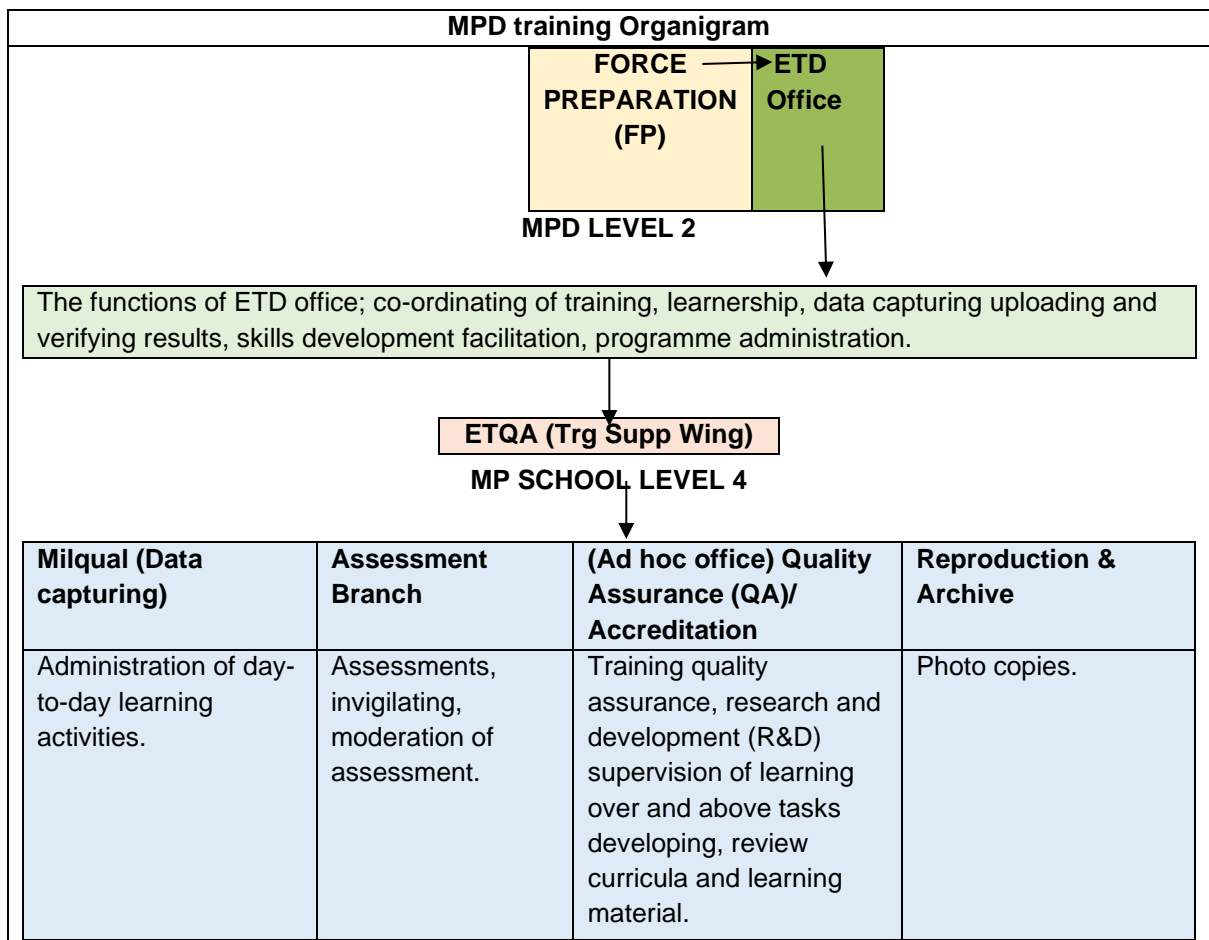


Figure 3.3: Military police division training Organigram

(Source: Researcher’s illustration of the MPD training Organigram)

The MPD training under the Force Preparation office has two offices: the Education, Training and Development office operating at the FP office level 2, and the Education Training Quality Assurance (ETQA) operating at level 4 in the Military Police School (MPD, 2021:24). The ETQA is the body that ensures quality assurance within education and training (MPD, 2021:24). The training institution is located at Level 4 as illustrated in Figure 3.3 above.

The Military Police School is responsible for the provision of ETD opportunities as it produces, implements and evaluates individual training programmes. The key element of these offices is strategic level and functional. The vital link between the two offices is to prepare an effective training foundation for the MPOs in alignment with the goals, mission and objective of the MPD through a sound administrative training policy foundation developed by ETD office. The purpose of these training offices in the military is to provide a comprehensive programmatic training guidance to the trainers in order to shape the training objectives (Army Regulation 350-1, 2017:6).

This means that the ETD office at level 2 has to structure and organise training procedures that should direct MPD training policy formulation, including management and maintenance of the training policies (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2013:6). The ETQA is the Training Support Wing located at the Military Police School level 4, and is responsible for implementing the training policies at the MP School. In that regard, the ETQA is responsible for supporting effective training. Accordingly, the MPD Education, Training and Development office is primarily responsible for the formulation of the ETD policy/instruction and the development of all the curricula, while the MP School focuses on the implementation of these curricula.

From a curriculum perspective, the problem is accentuated with a legacy from the SADF that is a tendency in the SANDF to have a bottom-up approach in the writing of the curriculum, which is contrary to accepted education, training and development principles (Esterhuyse, 2007:165). The latter author states further that the bottom-up approach is due to the lack of a dedicated ETD office responsible for developing curricula, or inadequate training structures at the strategic level to provide all the training needs. This sentiment is supported by the MP School (2018:54), which cites that there is no structure that is responsible for maintaining curriculums; and suggested that the MPD Head Quarters must issue guidelines with regards to the updating and development of curricula.

The MPD training is characterised by two phases of policing training models, one rooted in the military training model and the other one based on education, training, and development. Prior to 1994, training was traditionally military-oriented (instructing). On the other hand, the post-1994 MPD training consists of the establishment of outcomes-based learning, which contributed to the adult-based approach. Moorhouse (2007:4) states that a number of the South African National Defence Force training institutions are implementing mixed mode training delivery as a training strategy. With the advent of outcomes-based education and training, all this has changed.

The traditional military training model of facilitating learning required only the instructor, a textbook and whatever additional resource materials the instructor was able to gather (Adendorff, 2004:3). Killen (2000:7) added that the military training model's emphasis was on the results of the training conducted, with little concern

being given to students. According to the Military Police Agency (2006:6), an adult education approach should be followed. This aspect is discussed in more detail in Chapter 4. Vodde (2012:29), states that most police training is still conducted in the old 50-year militaristic training strategy.

Vodde (2012:13) states that training should be based on the adult education methodology, solely focused on directing police officials on how to perform their day-to-day tasks as MPOs and acquisition of skills needed to solve problems and accomplish their jobs effectively as police. The MPD training was inherited from the SACMP which existed before 1994. However, the reasons for the existence of the MPO are not the same as those prior to 1994, during which the SACMP focus was the justification of enforcing the military law and its emphasis on the maintenance of law and order, enforcing discipline, amongst others. However, after 1994, the democratic changes necessitated a paradigm shift in real-time policing.

Vodde (2012:27)'s statement can be observed within the MPD training, where there was no clear distinction between training a police official and a general soldier such as an Infanteer. Currently, discipline issues are the duty and obligation of each member of the SANDF, which has existing formal structures at various levels to address discipline issues. For instance, Commanders (OCs), Regimental Sergeant Majors (RSMs), section heads and members amongst themselves (Fouche et al., 2021:96). The Military Police Agency (2006:35) stipulates that disciplinary offences must not be accepted by the Military Police for handling from the rest of the Military community. Any member of the DoD who reports such matters to the MP must be advised to complete a DD1 form and hand it to the adjutant of the relevant Unit or Formation.

Over the past years, police training programmes were conducted in a military environment that is not conducive to both learning and police training. The MP School (2018:28) has also acknowledged that the current structure does not comply with the South African Qualification Authority requirements. Prior to 1994, the recruitment of MPOs was based on physical stature, based on the rationale that a strong police officer was more ideal as a deterrent in the fight against crime. The interest was in crime control and following command decisions without hesitation, which is a military

model that has created numerous problems in the current training environment of police (Vodde, 2012:29).

The researcher views the MPD training of MPOs as paramilitary. Vodde (2012:29) upholds that, paramilitary police training leads to failure as it creates a warrior-like mentality on the part of the police, and this hinders the philosophy of community policing. According to the Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF) (2015:3), it is important to remember that successful learning occurs when a transfer of knowledge and skills has been operationalised. Milhen, Abushamsieh, and Arostegui (2014:19) assert that it is necessary to choose the type of training model that is most appropriate to the nature of the work being carried out. The MPD training in practice is discussed in the following section.

3.4.2 Military police division training in practice

In essence, this section on the MPD training in practice is a precursor to the MPD training curricula that are discussed fully in Chapter Four. The intention is to determine whether the MPD training is sufficiently effective to prepare MPOs for the policing profession. Training in the MPD is important to support the DoD operations and the maintenance of the law and order within the DoD. The MPD training is provided at the MP School located in Thaba Tshwane, the only MPO School in South Africa with extensive experience in the training of MPOs.

The training provided at the MP School is non-informal learning, which implies that organised learning activities do not result in formal credit-bearing outcomes; such learning is not explicitly designated as learning towards the achievement of a qualification, may be preceded by a qualification, and is often associated with improving individuals' skills and capacities workplace practice (Eaton, 2010:1). The MPOs possess a dual status as both a soldier and a police official. The MP Officers and Non-commissioned members attend their training at the MP School for policing training for five months to become MPOs, after which they return to the MP School at intervals to attend additional courses.

The researcher has observed that the method used in training is the traditional military model, mixed with education, training and a development model. The courses are provided in English. The duration of the training programme varies from course to

course, depending on the nature of the training provided. According to Reed, Gultig and Adendorff (2012:30), the curriculum emphasis is placed on:

- School subjects and their knowledge content;
- Guidelines for how knowledge might be taught in the classroom;
- Providing the minimum knowledge, skills and values that learners must gain; and
- Articulating what curriculum designers and policy makers regard as important knowledge for learners and society.

Reed et al. (2012:30) aver that the focus of Military Police curriculum design must be directed mainly towards the development of a well-trained, informed, self-reliant, and reliable MPO. Reed, Gultig and Adendorff (2012:30) further explains that the Military Police curriculum provides content which is covered by all ideal learning areas of the knowledge programme planned. The MP training curriculum is the training document that schedules the maintenance of training in terms of planning, preparation, execution and evaluation of periods that should have clear, focused and measurable objectives (United States, 2003:16).

Therefore, it is required that the training should provide police officials with adequate knowledge of a specific area for them to perform their policing duties effectively (Daniels, 2015:14). The greater part of the MPD training curriculum is devoted to the theoretical module. The MPD's mandatory legislative framework is outlined in the following section, with specific detailing of the norms and procedures to be followed in fulfilment of the MPD's organisational mandate and obligations. The MPD training curriculum itself is the subject of Chapter 4.

3.5 THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION'S MANDATORY LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

All institutions and organisations in any country are bound by the applicable laws, regulations and rules in order to guide and standardise their functioning (Di Vita & Ferrante, 2021:542). Such a framework of regulation could also be regarded as overarching policies or programmes intended to achieve organisational or institutional objectives within the parameters of the law (Bouwman, Gerristen, Kamphorst & Kistenkas, 2015:13). According to Section 150(2) in Chapter 12 of the Military Discipline Bill of the Republic of South Africa (B21 of 2019), MPOs should recognise

and uphold the laws of the Republic of South Africa when conducting police functions within the SANDF (South Africa (2019a:1)).

According to the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA, 2015:4), regulatory frameworks are effective to the extent that they establish norms, laws, rules, measures, and processes that ought to be complied with by an organisation in order to fulfil its obligations. Accordingly, the MPD mandate and training are regulated under auspices of the following statutes, directives, and regulations, which are also detailed hereinafter. The researcher proposes upfront that the sequencing of the below-mentioned Acts and attendant policy frameworks is neither random nor chronologically selective.

Rather, the sequence itself is reflective of the logic of the employer (DoD)-employee (MPO)-workplace (SANDF/MPD) 'triple helix' in terms of which employment terms and conditions and skills development and training are eclectically presented in their conducive or respective legal frameworks.

- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996).
- The Defence Act, 2002 (Act No. 42 of 2002).
- The Criminal Procedure Act, 1997 (Act No. 51 of 1997).
- The White Paper on Public Service Training and Education 1997.
- Department of Defence Instruction No. TRg/0004/2001.
- Military Police Agency Instruction (MPAI) No. 11/00.
- Labour Relation Act, 1995 (Act No. 66 of 1995).
- South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995 (Act No. 58 of 1995).
- Skills Development Amended Act, 2008 (Act No. 37 of 2008).
- Skill development Act, 1998 (Act No. 97 of 1998).
- Basic conditions of Employment Act, 1997 (Act 75 of 1997 as amended Act 11 of 2002).

3.5.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996)

Dicey (2013:185) emphasises that all public and private institutions or organisations are bound by the Constitution of their respective countries, which is also regarded as the supreme law pre-eminent to any other laws of that country. Likewise, the

Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996) establishes and regulates the fundamental tenets and basic principles that should be the pinnacle of any other law in the Republic.

It is in the context of the Constitution that the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) was promulgated and established the SANDF as an amalgamation of the previously fragmented 'defence forces' created under apartheid. Principally, Section 200(2) of the Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996) mandates the SANDF to protect and defend the Republic, its sovereignty, freedom, territorial integrity, national interests, people and values. Additionally, Section 200(1) of the Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996) enjoins the SANDF to be structured and managed as a disciplined military force.

Whereas the SANDF is constitutionally entrusted with a broader (externally focused) mandate, the MPD was specifically formed to execute internal policing duties within the SANDF, as well as to maintain discipline and order in the military environment (MPD, 2021:9). Therefore, the MPD provides policing capability to manage and maintain discipline within the SANDF. In that regard, the MPD is entrusted with training MPOs in order to achieve effective policing guided by training procedures that enhance the Military Police's expertise in the performance of their everyday duties (Basilio & Riccio, 2017:570; MPA, 2006:1; Ness,1991:183). The training itself should promote and inculcate military discipline in order to assist in the character development of MPOs, while also contributing towards the formation of a cohesive unit within the military (US Marine Corps, 2010:3-4).

According to the United States Army Regulations 600-20 (2014:26), personnel in the military divisions, units, and platoons would almost certainly be incapable of operating as a cohesive unit during missions, drills, and training if military discipline is both unenforced or non-existent. Moreover, military discipline is most helpful in strengthening the chain of command insofar as outlining and inculcating the respect for authority and lawful subordination among the military personnel (United States Army, 2010:2).

However, it should be borne in mind that the respect for superiors should be distinguishable from allegiance to these authority figures, lest the latter practice becomes a breeding ground for private armies within the public's own army, whose

very existence and operations are paid for, by the public's taxes through the national fiscus (Draper, 2015:1). Therefore, allegiance of all military personnel is to the Constitution, while military discipline fosters cohesive functioning of the various units and divisions within the armed forces. Kolomiets (2020:72) and the United Nations (2019:3) also make the case that nations have established their own military police to combat crime and maintain discipline, as well as foster cooperation within their defence force.

3.5.2 The Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002)

The Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) is the statutory law for the establishment, mandate, and operations of the SANDF in compliance with the regulatory legislative framework and prescripts of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996). Accordingly, the MPD derived its mandate from Section 31 of Chapter Five in the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002), and articulates the MPD's policing mandate and appropriate functions within the SANDF and Department of Defence (South Africa, 2002:1).

Organisations operate at a consistently high standard on account of their clearly understood and shared mandates across the entire organisation (Pitt, 2014:123). In this regard, the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) stipulates that the MPOs should at any given time and place perform their policing function, which entails the investigation of alleged crimes, maintenance of law and order, as well as prevention of crime in enforcement of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002). Clearly, then, policing constitutes the fundamental capability requirement within the SANDF in which the MPD enforces the rule of law (PMG, 2007:7).

The MPD fulfils a dual mandate: providing military support to the SANDF during operations, and managing military policing capability during peace time and during conventional warfare (Draper, 2015:10). Section 31(6)(a) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) stipulates further that the Military Police may arrest any person involved in a crime committed on military property or equipment, and that should the perpetrator or suspected person be a civilian, s/he should be immediately handed over to the South African Police Service. Section 31(2)(a) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) also stipulates that the MPOs have the same powers and duties as those of a member of

the SAPS, provided they (MPOs) are exercising such powers in pursuance of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002), or any other law - including the common law within the military environment.

The SAPs and the MPD work together in country-wide crime prevention operations or initiatives (South Africa, 2002:80). However, the Parliamentary Monitoring Group (PMG, 2000:1) contends that military personnel should not be vested with police authority, because such a situation would be an affront to, and violation of the democratic ideal of military subordination to civil authority. Furthermore, vesting policing authority to military personnel is emblematic of the failure to recognise the fundamental discrepancy in training methods, knowledge and skills acquired, attitude and character development in the military and the police force, which increases the risk of human rights transgressions and disproportionate use of force (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2000:1).

Section 20(11) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) articulates that SANDF members employed in terms of Section 20(1) of the self-same Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) must necessarily, receive appropriate training prior to permanent employment in the SANDF. Therefore, the MPD has an obligation and legislative mandate to ensure that MPOs undergo specific required policing training once they have been recruited, and continue to train as they progress in the organisation (Mnisi, 2015:42). Such (continuous) training also serves an administrative control authority of the military (US Army, 2017:5).

In the South African context, the Minister of Defence may establish a Defence training institution for the purpose of providing instruction and development in accordance with Section 63(1) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002). Furthermore, Section 8(g) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) provides that the Secretary of Defence is responsible for training development of the Defence Force, pursuant to the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002), in terms of which an MPO is further accorded the status of a peace officer as stipulated in the Criminal Procedure Act/CPA (No. 51 of 1977) - which is discussed in more details in the next section.

3.5.3 The Criminal Procedure Act (No. 51 of 1977)

An MPO exercising any power pursuant to Section 31(7) in Chapter Five (5) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) is regarded as being a peace officer as defined in Section 1 of the Criminal Procedure Act (No. 51 of 1977) (South Africa, 2002:36). However, Section 1 (xv) of the Criminal Procedure Act (No. 51 of 1977) broadly describes a peace officer as encompassing any magistrate, judge, police official and member of a correctional facility (South Africa, 1997:1). Be as it may, Section 1(xv) of the CPA (No. 51 of 1977) does not specifically include the MPO as envisioned in Chapter Five of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002).

Section 334(1)(a) of the Criminal Procedure Act (No. 51 of 1997) enjoins the Minister of Defence by means of a notice in the Government Gazette, to declare any person who, in the view of the Minister's office, is referred to in such notice, shall within an area specified in the self-same notice, be referred to as a peace officer in pursuance of the powers defined in such notice (South Africa, 2002:36). The researcher is of the view that Section 31(7) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) must be interpreted together with Section 1(xv) and Section 334(1)(a) of the Criminal Procedure Act (No. 51 of 1997). The application of the Criminal Procedure Act (No. 51 of 1977) becomes even more relevant to MPOs for the purposes of enforcing any provision of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) or any other law to fulfil their mandate.

For example, Chapter 6 of the Republic of South Africa Military Discipline Bill (No. 21 of 2019) states that MPOs who are regarded as peace officers can exercise the power to search with or without a warrant and confiscate any article, and arrest, or issue an administrative notice within the military environment. On the other hand, the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) stipulates that the MPO has the same powers, duties and function as members of the SAPS. The implication then, is that the exercise of MPD police functions must be conducted within legal prescripts. It is in the latter regard that the Criminal Procedure Act (No. 51 of 1997) comes to the fore.

Mnisi (2015:42) intimate that knowledge acquisition, continuous skills training and development interventions or tools are critically instrumental for the effective functioning of organisations and their employees in respect of the knowledge and

application of statutory laws. In this regard, the following sections focus on the applicable training and development contexts of the MPD in the SANDF environment.

3.5.4 The White Paper on public service training and education (WPPSTE), 1997

The White Paper on Public Service Training and Education (WPPSTE) of 1997 points to the need to align public service training and education development with the international trend towards competency-based training and education, and also establishes broader parameters within which education and training takes place in the SANDF (South Africa, 1997:28).

The emphasis of the WPPSTE is on mandatory training by SANDF members, and that such training should be based on clearly identified SANDF needs linked to national and international standards for improvement of the individual competences of SANDF members (South Africa, 1997:28). Therefore, competency training should both qualify and empower individual members to reach the highest levels of their potential and ability (Hill & Jones, 2012:30). The White Paper on Public Service Training and Education in the SANDF supplements the Department of Defence Overarching ETD Instruction No Trg/00004/2001 which is discussed in the next section.

3.5.5 The Department of Defence Overarching ETD Instruction No. Trg/00004/2001

The Department of Defence's Overarching Education Training and Development (ETD) Instruction (No. Trg/00004) of 2001 is the overarching policy for education and training in the DoD, and is aimed at achieving the highest level of ETD implementation preparedness in this Department (Department of Defence, 2005:iii). For purposes of this study, this overarching policy documents worth referring to, to the extent that it promotes career-development practices through the continuous development and training of the employees – in terms of which MPD personnel are viewed as such employees of the SANDF.

This policy document was promulgated for purposes of ensuring the co-ordination, implementation, management, and standardisation of ETD policy approaches across all organisational levels of the DoD and its structures, while also providing continuous ETD support to the DoD (Department of Defence, 2005:iii). Continuous or further

training is reflective of the on-going process of improving and updating current or existing knowledge and skills (Pinc, 2010:8). Such a policy orientation is consistent with the Constitutional imperative of improving and freeing every citizen's quality of life and potential, which is important in providing a national imperative for human development through education, training and development.

Therefore, the Defence Force, through the MPD, should be a crime-free environment capacitated through effective education, training and development for its MPO in order for them to gain knowledge and skills on how to perform their duties diligently, objectively, and with discipline (Department of Defence, 2005:iii). Continuous training further empowers the MPOs with skills, development and good understanding of the process and procedures involved in the military (Williams, 2010:144). With regards to the MPD, the Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996) highlights the need for the maintenance of discipline as well as training and development to enhance the capacity to perform mandated duties.

It is in this context that other legislative frameworks such as the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) are derived from the Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996) to regulate MPD operations. According to the Department of Defence (2015:4), the fundamental emphasis of the afore-cited policy is on the ETD policy compliance within the Department of Defence. The Department of Defence's Overarching Education Training and Development (ETD) Instruction (No. Trg/00004) of 2001 guidelines prescribe that implementation of this policy should be in accordance with the following prescribed Acts, and regulations:

- Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002);
- National Qualification Framework Act (No. 67 of 2008);
- Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998);
- South African Qualification Authority Act (No. 58 of 1995);
- South African Defence Review, 2014;
- White Paper on Public Service Training and Education (Government Gazette No. 19078 of August 1998); and
- Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) Act (No. 85 of 1993).

The policy guidelines recommend the formulation of ETD policy at all levels of the Defence Force (including the MPD), linking action mandates to the lower structures in order to develop their own ETD policy describing procedures for implementation of education, training, and development in their structures according to their specifications, needs and requirements (Department of Defence, 2005:3). Department of Defence (2005:2) state that the effective implementation of this policy aims to accomplish the following outcomes:

- Provide the framework for developing a professional ETD capacity and promote comparable ETD service delivery and integrity, which is aligned with national and international best practices and legal prescripts.
- Promote an integrated ETD strategic approach in addressing Department of Defence personnel developmental needs.
- Facilitate access, mobility and progression within every individual's learning and career paths.
- Create a culture of life-long learning.
- Promote fair and transparent ETD practices.
- Efficient resource management and allocation ensure the effective, efficient and economical achievement of the DOD ETD objectives and commitments.
- Enable the coordination, monitoring and evaluation of learning activities through a representative, advisory body.

By virtue of the DoD ETD policy chain linking action, the MPD promulgated the Military Police Agency Instruction (MPAI) No 11/00 as the guiding key ETD policy for the MPD, which is discussed below.

3.5.6 The Military Police Agency Instruction (MPAI) No. 11/00, 2006

The aim of a skills development training policy is to provide comprehensive guidance and to ensure that the training and development unfolds as prescribed within the particular organisation (Brevis & Vrbra, 2014:95). At the DoD level, the Chief of the SANDF develops policies that regulate the military policing process with the assistance of the PMG. By virtue of the above statement, the researcher can attest to the fact that the MPD is an extremely regulated work environment, and training is not excluded in this regard. The MPD published the MPAI No. 11/00, 2006 for the training

and education of MPOs, thus effectively regulating training within the MPD (MPA Instruction 11/00, 2006:i).

The training policy strives to provide employees (MPOs) with specific competencies in order to meet the clients' requirements, entrenches a learning culture, and encourages formal and informal learning (South Africa, 2013:1). In essence, then, the MPAI (No. 11/00) provides the MPD with the necessary information to develop the policing training that provides the MPOs with sufficient skills and efficient and effective service to their client in conjunction with a clearly defined vision, specific goals, and a systematic method to manage organisational objectives, and supporting training models (United States Army, 2017:12).

However, the researcher opines that the MPAI 11/00 is not detailed for guiding development of education, training and development in the MPD; and is not linked or aligned to the relevant South African training legislations and regulations such as the National Qualification Framework (NQF), Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998), and the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) Act of 1995. Education, training and development, could not be compromised to the detriment of learners. As such, it is the responsibility of the SANDF to provide learners (i.e., MPOs) with the appropriate skills, knowledge, and attitudes in line with their careers as military professionals (Department of Defence, 2018:1).

Therefore, the training policy should be precise and detailed, especially that such training is meant to provide users with dependable and creative training that the organisation (i.e., SANDF) would deliver. It is then the responsibility of the MPD HQ training department to provide a clear training policy to users for execution.

3.5.7 The Labour Relations Act/LRA (No. 66 of 1995)

The Labour Relations Act/LRA (No. 66 of 1995) is a statutory framework designed to protect all employees and employers in a democratic society, as well as promoting economic growth, fair labour practices, industrial peace and harmony, and social development (Bendix, 2010:3). The provisions of the Labour Relations Act (No. 66 of 1995) applies to all workplaces in South Africa, regardless of whether they are in the public or private sectors (Matlou, 2018:14). Similarly, the SANDF and its MPD are bound or governed by all the employment practises and prescripts of the Labour

Relation Act (No. 66 of 1995), unless exceptional circumstances dictate that this category of employees is regarded as protecting the integrity and security of the State. Such exceptional circumstances are clarified in Section to of the Labour Relation Act (No. 66 of 1995).

For instance, in terms of Schedule 8(1)(e) of the LRA, the employer should provide an employee with reasonable training during the probation period in order to enable such employee to render a satisfactory service. Schedule 8(2)(a) of the Labour Relation Act (No. 66 of 1995) further states that an employee should be provided with appropriate continuous training even after the initial probation period, which is also consistent with provisions of Section 20(11) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002). However, the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) is superseded by the Labour Relation Act (No. 66 of 1995) with regard to employment and labour rights and practices in this regard.

3.5.8 The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act (No. 58 of 1995)

Globally, military qualifications are conferred in conjunction with a registered university, and the general understanding is that a military certificate is only applicable to the military or security organisations and institutions (Paile, 2021:21). Necessarily then, the case for aligning the MPD training to NQF requirements as envisaged in the SAQA Act (No. 58 of 1995) is even more compelling.

The SAQA Act (No. 58 of 1995) provides for the creation and implementation of the National Qualifications Framework and the South African Qualifications Authority with regard to the standardisation of training and qualifications in the country (SAQA, 2015:5). Apartheid's fragmented and incoherent education and training system had a profound effect on the structure and form of the South African labour market, resulting in fragmentation, low levels of skills and abilities, a lack of meaningful career paths, no avenues for prior learning recognition, no means for learning transfer, and inflexible routes for learning acquisition (Johnson, 2007:1).

Therefore, the purpose of the SAQA Act (No. 58 of 1995) was also to establish a unified national framework for learning achievements, facilitates access to, and mobility and progression within education, training, and career paths; improve the quality of education and training; and expedite the redress of past unjust discrimination in education, training, and employment opportunities (SAQA, 2015:5). In addition, the

SAQA Act (No. 58 of 1995) stipulated the establishment of an authority to oversee the implementation of the National Qualification Framework by ensuring the registration, accreditation, and monitoring and auditing of bodies responsible for establishing education and training standards and qualifications.

According to Lombard, Grobbelaar, and Pruis (2003:1), the authority or body established by the SAQA Act (No. 58 of 1995) should also verify that accreditation requirements are met, and that registered standards and credentials are globally competitive and comparable. The MPAI (No. 11/00) technical manual is available but not detailed enough to guide the development of education, training, and development within the MPD as it is not linked to, or aligned with South Africa's pertinent training legislations and regulations as intended by the South African Qualifications Framework (Lombard et al., 2003:1).

Since the objective of the NQF (as envisioned in the SAQA Act (No. 58 of 1995)) is to standardise and evaluate the previously fragmented education and training credentials in industries and institutions nationwide, the NQF also promotes the lifelong learning by allowing all learners to access and advance educationally by means of previously acquired and recognised credentials (Lombard et al., 2003:1; South Africa, 1995). The NQF also enables credit transfer across modes of study and certifications (Kilfoil, 2003). Therefore, the MPAI 11/00 manual needs to be aligned to the NQF in order to allow credit transfers within the military qualifications.

The SAQA Act (No. 58 of 1998) offers essential methods for evaluating learning programmes appropriateness to adhere to established national standards and norms (Mohlala, 2011:49). In this regard, it is critical that the educational programmes provided by the MPD are relevant to military policing and recognised by SAQA as well. Such an orientation would be consonant with the fundamental purpose of the SAQA Act (No. 58 of 1995) in promoting lifelong learning. In this regard, training and development in the MPD should be prioritised to enable MPO access to the necessary recognised credentials.

3.5.9 The Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998)

The Skills Development Act/SDA (No. 97 of 1998) is basically the institutional framework for implementation of compliant workplace skills development strategies

across the public and private sectors throughout the country (South Africa, 1998:1). Section 2(1)(a)(i)(ii)(iii) of the Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998) states categorically that the purpose of the Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998) is to develop the skills of the South African workforce, improve productivity in the workplace and competitiveness of employers, promote self-employment, and improve the delivery of social services (South Africa, 1998b:1).

This Act is also one of the vital legislations in relation to skills development, and is governed by the National Qualification Framework in conjunction with:

- the South African Qualification Authority Act (No. 58 of 1995); and
- the Skill Development Levies Act (No. 9 of 1999).

The Department of Education (2006:3) asserts that the Skills Development Act (No. 9 of 1999) is required to develop individuals, hence, applies to areas of the workforces even within the education, training and development sectors. For example, the MPD training facilitators, assessors and moderators should be appropriately developed in accordance with the Training, Education and Development Practitioner's (ETDP's) requirement to add value to the training of the MPOs. Masilela (2014:18) corroborates that the skills development legislation has had a major impact on the training and development functions in organisation as it focuses on the supply and demand of relevant skills within organisations.

3.5.10 The Skills Development Amended Act (No. 37 of 2008)

The Skills Development Amended Act (No. 97 of 1998) is a component of the National Skills Development Strategy, which seeks to solve South Africa's social and economic challenges (Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). 2016; SAQA, 2016:1). This Act is also the primary instrument for increasing both individual and institutional competitiveness, and was enacted in response to the recognition that economic performance was also significantly constrained by a skills deficit. Mohlala (2011:11) contends that the recognition itself signifies the political power to address unjust discrimination in training and development possibilities, which include the acquisition of information, skills, and abilities, such as interpersonal and communication competencies required for work performance (Clinton, Emmanuel, & Denzel, 2016:56).

The Skills Development Act (97 of 1998) was enacted to foster the development of the South African workforce's skills which aims to enhance employees' quality of life, employment opportunities, and labour mobility; increase workplace productivity and employer competitiveness; encourage self-employment and to boost labour market investment in education and training, as well as to inspire workers to view the workplace as a place of active learning through learnerships (Chieta, 2017:2). According to the Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998), a learnership comprises of a structured component and practical work experience that leads to an occupation-related qualification recognised by the South African Qualifications Authority (South African Qualifications Authority, 2016:43).

It is in this context that the MPD is expected to provide learnerships and skills development programmes for its members. According to Litchfield-Tshabalala (2004:129), the MPD should provide training that is recognised by SAQA to the MPOs despite the on-the-job training maintained by the employer - which is already mandated to every employee of the SANDF and forms part of encouragement to further their studies and knowledge. Additionally, SAQA recognised qualifications should improve the employability of an individual, based on their high standards that ensure consistency of the workforce towards the achievement of the organisational vision (Collins & Wisz, 2020:1647).

3.5.11 The Basic Conditions of Employment Act (No. 75 of 1997 as amended Act No. 11 of 2002)

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act (No. 75 of 1997) is intended to ensure that the right to fair labour practices is implemented at the workplace (South Africa, 1997:1). According to Article 29 of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (No. 75 of 1997), the employer is required to provide written information and details to the employee concerning the conditions of employment, including particular aspects such as working hours and salary. The Basic Conditions of Employment Act (No. 75 of 1997) stipulates further that an employment contract should be in line with the criteria in South African law, the failure of which is not considered binding or enforceable (Ferreira, 2019:47).

Furthermore, there should be consensus where both parties are aware of the nature of their obligations and have the desire to carry them out lawfully (Smit, Cronje, Brevis, & Vrbra, 2011:91). Engelbrecht (2007:1) and Mathebula (2018:125) mention that the Act applies to all employees and employers except for members of the National Defence Force, the National Intelligence Agency, the South African Secret Service, and unpaid volunteers working for charity. The Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) guides the conditions of service and training-related issues for members of the SANDF, while the legislative mandatory framework guides the implementation of training of the MPOs so as to achieve the mandate.

All the above-mentioned training legislations and policies are the most significant documents that compel the MPD to provide appropriate and quality education, training and development. The Constitutional and primary DoD legislations (e.g., Defence Act No. 42 of 2002) mandates the existence of the MPD, which highlights the obligations of the MPD and is discussed below.

3.6 MANDATE OF THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION

A mandate is defined as the authority given to fulfil an obligation within given and agreed boundaries by a superior body to a lower body (Chartered Institute of Building, 2014:14). The mandate further specifies actions to be taken in accordance with the particular organisation's policies and legal frameworks (Petit, 2017:133; Woiceshyn & Daellenbach, 2018:183). A mandate also includes the types of organisational engagements or undertakings, the nature of its work, the authority to operate, as well as its guiding values (Pitt, 2014:133).

In the public sector or State institutions, mandates are derived from the Constitution or other legislative frameworks. Accordingly, the mandate of the SANDF is primarily derived from the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996) and the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) (Engelbrecht, 2007:1; Mathebula, 2018:125). The MPD mandate is categorised according to its core policing functions; as well as the operational functions rendered in support of the SANDF. In this regard, the conventional warfare mandate of the Military Police is to support the SANDF during operations (MPA 01/01, 2001).

Provision of policing within the SANDF and to the general soldier community is regarded as the primary mandate of the MPD, and is executed through a variety of essential duties, including patrolling, arresting individuals suspected of committing crimes, and testifying in court (MPA 01/01, 2001). The secondary mandate is to provide support to the SANDF during operations, such as: military and joint support operations in rural and urban areas, at the borders of the country, and during international peace support operations.

According to Section 31(1) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002), the Military Police has the same powers, duties and functions as those of a member of the South African Police Service when performing such functions within the military environment (South Africa, 2002:36). Mathebula (2018:97) has noted that in the maintenance of law and order, the SANDF acts in cooperation with the SAPS and supports any other State department for law-and-order purposes. A member of the SAPS is mandated to arrest any person for committing a crime, including members of the SANDF. Similarly, members of the MPD are mandated to perform policing functions at anytime and anywhere.

It is in this regard that the MPO is regarded as a peace officer in consonance with Section 1 of the Criminal Procedure Act (No. 51 of 1997) while exercising any power referred to in Chapter Five of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002). According to Section 36(1) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002), any civilian arrested by MPO must be handed over to the SAPS without any delay since the MPD is not mandated to detain any civilian. On the whole, the mandate guides the vision of MPD, which is discussed hereafter.

3.7 VISION OF THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION

Papulova (2014:13) explains that a vision is an essential ingredient in the success of an organisation insofar as it describes the desired future accomplishments of the particular organisation. Furthermore, a vision should be developed based on the ideas about future dominant factors that impact and create the organisational environment differently. In that regard, a vision serves as a practical guide for developing strategies, establishing goals and objectives, making choices, and organising and assessing work for the benefit of the organisation and its stakeholders (Kirkpatrick, 2016:113).

In addition, a vision assists companies and individuals in remaining focused and cohesive, particularly through complex undertakings and stressful periods (Suranga, 2014). Therefore, a well-written vision statement should be succinct, unambiguous, and unique to the organisation without any room for misinterpretation (Jantz, 2017:2). According to Tankovic (2013:332), a vision should have two key components: a base ideology for describing the reason for the organisation’s existence; and a vision that primarily describes the future state of the organisation.

A solid vision statement establishes a simple but challenging goal that is not easily expressed in concrete terms, but rather at a higher level of abstraction to allow for flexibility in the methods by which the goals are accomplished (Jantz, 2017:2). As such, the specific goals and objectives should also be included when defining the vision of an organisation (Tankovic, 2013:332). The definition of a goal itself articulates the requirements of the organisation in achieving the goal, while the objectives are the specific actions and measures to achieve the defined goals (Taiwo, Lawal & Agwu, 2016:129).

In the context of the MPD, its vision rests on the establishment of an effective vanguard for military discipline (MPD, 2018:7). According to South African Army (1998:3-7), the vanguard consists of the advance and main guard, with its troops at the forefront of the main force. In military formations, the vanguard protects, secures and is expected to clear ground in advance of the main force’s counter-attack capabilities in order to prevent enemy ground observation (South African Army, 1998:3-7). Figure 3.4 below is an illustration of the position of the vanguard according to the explanation given above.



Figure 3.4: Diagrammatic layout of the position of the vanguard
 (Source: SA Army, 1998:3-7)

An organisational vision statement creates expectations long-term, and pushes the particular organisation to look beyond its current situation and focus on what it hopes to be in the future (Smit et al., 2011:95). Therefore, the vision statements serve as a road map and benchmark for an organisation as it progresses, and provides a point of reference, direction, and destination over a certain time period of time (Kirkpatrick, 2016:113). In the context of this study, the vision and destination of the MPD is to create an effective vanguard, but does not provide points of reference or road map to direct the achievement of such a vanguard.

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006:113) illuminates further that a vision statement is utilised as a strategic document for encouraging effective stakeholder participation in an organisation, and should be able to inspire and encourage individuals to support a particular idea that defines the very organisation. Therefore, the vision of MPD should inspire all the members of SANDF towards the notion of military discipline, highlight the intended future course of an organisation, as well as be closely linked to the mission of an organisation as strategic tools for aligning conduct towards organisational objectives (Smit et al., 2011:95). Both the vision and mission of an organisation are critical elements in an organisation. The mission of the MPD is discussed hereafter, and articulates the reasons for the MPD's existence.

3.8 MISSION STATEMENT OF THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION

Understanding the mission statement of an organisation is a critical first step in the achievement of organisational objectives, as it (understanding) allows for operational reviews and, if necessary, reconciliatory measures (Khalifa, 2012:25). The mission statement itself represents the commencement of the strategic planning processes and values of an organisation (Hill & Jones, 2012:31). Such a statement also formally identifies the industry in which a firm or business organisation operates, as well as the reason or purpose for its existence (Khalifa, 2012:128; Rajasekar, 2013:np). Therefore, based on the assertion by Khalifa (2012:25), understanding the mission statement of the MPD would enable it (the MPD) to achieve its vision and evaluations of activities such as MPD training.

Given the above assertions and multiple perspectives, it is evident that a mission statement should address the question: "*What is the fundamental or core reason for the organisation existence*", which essentially an articulation or description of the basic

or core services provided by such an organisation as distinct from others; as well as the purpose of such an organisation's existence – or the framework within which the organisational strategic goals are formulated (Hill & Jones, 2012:9; Taiwo et al., 2016:128). Furthermore, a mission statement should be flexible but enforceable, environmentally adaptable, market oriented, and also inform both insiders and outsiders about the organisation's clearly stated values (Mittal & Sridhar, 2021:48; Tankovic, 2013:333).

Taiwo et al. (2016:128), elaborates that the mission statement of an organisation should be clear and precise, since its aim is to produce a strategic orientation and combine diverse areas of the particular organisation's core activities. In addition, a mission statement also serves as a guide to assist an organisation's personnel in understanding *what* should be done, and *how* it should be done in respect of the daily activities and fundamental decision making in that regard (Taiwo et al., 2016:129). The mission statement of the MPD states: "The Military Police must detect, prevent and investigate crime to ensure a disciplined military force capable to execute its constitutional mandate as well as to provide prepared and equipped MP forces to support Joint Force Employment requirements of the SANDF" (MPD, 2018:7).

In this regard, the purpose of the mission statement is to establish an enduring guidance to the mission of the MPD in relation to providing policing and preparing the MPOs to provide support to the Joint Force Employment requirements of the SANDF in order to ensure a disciplined military force capable of executing its mandate (MPD Strategic Planning, 2018:7). The above-cited mission statement of the MPD shows that the MPD is consistently upholding a high level of discipline in the military force as one of its guiding organisational pillars as posited by Hill and Jones (2012:10). According to Xobiso (2018:131), the mission of the MPD is also directed towards the other SANDF members as external stakeholders.

Hence, it does not include the general populace as the military police have limited jurisdiction over civilians. According to Mittal and Sridhar (2021:47), a mission statement of an organisation should be short, precise, and not more than 12 words in order for it to be comprehensible and embedded in the minds of the stakeholders who implement it. Based on this assertion, the difficulty of understanding the mission of the MPD is attributable to the fact that it is longer than 12 words. Ortiz (2021:2),

emphasises that a mission should be aligned to the vision of an organisation for the purpose of enabling both to achieve the same objectives with some degree of grounded-ness to similar values. In the case of the MPD, both its mission and vision - as contained in MPD Strategic Planning (2018a:7) - are grounded on discipline as the guiding values.

Therefore, the MPD vision and mission are aligned towards achievement of a disciplined military force; as opposed to the mission of an organisation which is embraced by all the employees mainly through the process of training (Messina, 2018:3). For the MPD to achieve its strategic goals and meet the law-and-order needs of the nation, the MPD should approach training and development from a strategic point of view (Ketchen & Short, 2012:45). In the execution of its mission statement, the MPD strives to provide a military policing capability to the Department of Defence and to adhere to its organisation values. Therefore, any constraints that affect the MPD's organisational objectives could equally affect the MPD's vision and eventually render the MPD stagnant.

According to Papulova (2014:14), such an eventuality of stagnation could be avoided by instilling or institutionalising a coherence between the MPD vision and mission. Most organisational missions show an orientation towards institutional reform, and the MPD mission indicates commitment to transformation within the SANDF (Litchfield-Tshabalala, 2004:63). The mission is closely linked to the values of an organisation, which is the subject of discussion in the next section.

3.9 VALUES OF THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION

Good values should be informed and derived from the vision of an organisation, because values lay the foundation for the achievement of the organisation's mission (GrowthPlay, 2015:2). The values themselves are basically a set of principles that define the fundamental ethics or standards to which the business adheres and influence quality in the organisation (Bounazef & Van Caillie, 2017:1). Additionally, values guide members' actions within the organisation regarding the basic beliefs and behaviours deemed vital for the particular organisation's survival and success (Nauffal & Nasser, 2012; Vilma, 2018:1). Moreover, values reflect the shared commitment in the organisation, as they explain the manner in which the organisation intends to conduct its affairs (Hinton, 2012:10).

According to the MPD's Strategic Planning document (2018b:3), the MPD is expected to perform their duties by conforming to certain values pursuant to good conduct. Furthermore, the MPD officers execute their duties in line with the values of SANDF and ensure that there is discipline in the military forces. For the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) (2015:4), values specify the core ethics or principles by which the individuals in the organisation must abide. As such, it is on the basis of the declared values that individuals' attitudes and beliefs are guided on how to make effective decisions as they (values) set boundary conditions to determine how the very individuals should, or should not conduct themselves within an organisational context.

Therefore, values constitute the core beliefs that steer the organisation's mission, and play an essential role in the cultivation of an optimistic culture within the organisation (Huetteman, 2012:6). According to Growthplay (2015:2), the organisation's values unite and inspire the organisation's members to perform at their best effort because they (values) provide a fundamental framework for success by also restricting undesirable behaviour. Accordingly, the role of values in the organisation is to elicit behavioural alternatives by stimulating and influencing human behaviour and morality (Brevis & Vrba, 2014:405). Huetteman (2012:6) believes that values fill the gaps void left unfulfilled through organisational policies cannot reach.

It is in this regard that values provide a solid foundation for work-related policies as they demonstrate accountability to external stakeholders. The OECD (2012:5) clarifies that it is essential to develop and establish a common framework and shared understanding for a language that defines the key value terms within the organisations. Section 200(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996) stipulates that the Defence force should be structured and managed as a disciplined military force. Similarly, the MPD Strategic Planning (2018:8) mentions the following key values to which the MPD is committed and represented in the D-I-S-C-I-P-L-I-N-E acronym: **D:** (Discipline); **I:** (Integrity); **S:** (Solidarity); **C:** (Commitment); **I:** (Innovation); **P:** (Patriotic); **L:** (Loyalty); **I:** (Initiative); **N:** (Neutrality); and **E:** (Ethical conduct).

Clearly, the discipline-oriented values of the MPD are derived from the MPD mission as articulated in Section 3.8, and provide a foundation for the attainment of the organisation's goals by motivating each worker to perform optimally (GrowthPlay, 2015:2). According to the PMG (2007:1), there is an increase in crimes in military stations despite the presence of the MPD values. Such an assertion by the PMG (2007:2) implies that the values of the MPD may not be sufficiently restrictive to control or monitor undesirable behaviour in the SANDF. The OECD (2012:5) further suggests that values should be incorporated into curricula and reinforced and embedded into every training.

Training members on values should educate them on the implications of their actions on the organisation and instil a sense of discipline, respect, and accountability for their job requirements (Malik, 2018:12). The organisational values are also derived from the mandate of the organisation which highlights the activities undertaken as guided by policies (Padaki, 2000:426). Moreover, the principles on which the values are founded should be communicated by actions, mostly in the ways that activities are conducted on a daily basis to achieve the objectives of the organisation (Vilma, 2018:44). The objectives of the MPD are discussed hereafter and highlights the predetermined goals that division work towards achieving.

3.10 STRATEGIC OBJECTIVES OF THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION

According to Hinton (2012:33) and the United Nations (2018:6), objectives are guidelines that describe the activities within an organisation and must be delivered to the stakeholder in order to fulfil the mandate of the organisation. Hinton (2012:12) explains further that objectives are clear, realistic and specific sources of guidance that express the work of the organisation. For Larson and Gray (2018:33), objectives are helpful in setting the course and direction of an organisation. In the context of the SANDF and its MPD, it is important for the objectives of the division to be linked to military police training activities that support the mission statement of the division (Military Police, 2010:14).

Such linkage of clearly defined objectives should enable soldiers to understand their commanders' vision, goals and missions. The mandate of the Defence Act (Act 42 of 2002) is applied within the military environment in relation to any member, employee

or property of the Department of Defence, or to any person, area, land, premises or property under the protection or control of the Department of Defence. Moreover, the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) regulates the MPD in term of its core law enforcement and policing objectives in accordance with the provisions of Section 31(1)(a)(b)(c) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002). Therefore, the Defence Act (Act 42 of 2002) is instrumental in assisting the MPD to structure and implement its policing functions and objectives, which relate to: preventing and combating crime, investigating any offence or alleged crime, and maintaining law and order.

Gillmore (2017:66) ascertains that the objectives of an organisation are highly dependent on the quantity of available resources, and the more these resources are available, the higher the probability of attainment of organisational objective. In terms of the resource-based theory, the resources of an organisation primarily determine the achievement of organisational objectives as they (resources) improve stakeholder capabilities and competences in an organisation (Vinesh, 2014:10). Therefore, a well-structured training framework is vital for achieving the organisational mandate, which is helpful for also defining a competency framework for the accomplishment of an organisation's goals in tandem with its mission and mandate (International Atomic Energy Agency, 2020:5).

Vinesh (2014:10) intimates that organisations should provide training to their employees and equip them with the skills, expertise and competencies that enable effective achievement of objectives. In this regard, MPOs may at any time and any place perform police function as mandated by the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002). The achievement of such a mandate requires that MPOs should perform their policing and law enforcement functions as prescribed in Section 31(1)(a)(b)(c) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002). There is a need to appoint personnel to manage and direct an organisation towards optimal efficacy and efficiency. The following section addresses the appointment of MPOs, which is also a mechanism to ensure optimal efficacy and efficiency within the MPD of the SANDF.

3.11 APPOINTMENT OF THE MILITARY POLICE OFFICERS

Appointment relates to the process of selecting appropriately suited individuals to occupy a vacant position in an organisation and results in an acceptance of an official offer for employment (Board of the University of the Fraser Valley, 2017:1). According to the South Africa Revenue Service (2012:3), an appointment relates to “the right to be appointed to an office, the action of an appointing authority to place a person in a position within the agency in accordance with rules of the supervisor”. In the context of this study, the powers to appoint the MPOs to execute the mandate of the MPD are vested in the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002), in terms of which Section 30(1) authorises the appointment of the MPOs.

Section 30(1) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) provides that any member of the Defence Force can be appointed as an MPO by the Chief of the Defence Force or any other person so designated by him or her to make such an appointment. However, the commander's accountability of selecting, directing, and overseeing subordinates is still the bedrock of a competent armed force. Military leaders may also be held accountable for war crimes committed by their subordinates, and therefore participate in the personnel appointments of different divisions to ensure that subordinates are aligned with the goals, values and vision of the military (Scott, 1998:52; Valasik, 2016: n.p.).

Section 30(1) of the Defence Act (Act 42 of 2002) further stipulates that the Chief of the Defence Force (CSANDF) may instruct the subordinates to carry out appointment of the MPO, provided that the appointment is submitted to him/her for approval, and is made on his/her behalf. In this case, the wording of “any person designated” refers to the Provost Marshal General (PMG) – the senior MPO in command with the rank of Brigadier-General or Rear-Vice Admiral in compliance with the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) (Department of Defence, 2020:2).

In terms of Section 30(1) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) and the MPD Instruction 21/00 (2006:2), any appointed member of the SANDF who has completed the MP Individual/Official Training or other equivalent Military Police course should be issued with the Military Police identification card. Equally, and in terms of Section 344(2)(a) of the Criminal Procedure Act (No. 51 of 1997), “no person who is a peace officer shall

exercise any power conferred upon him/her under that subsection, unless he/she is at the time of exercising such power in possession of a certificate of appointment issued by his/her employer, and the said certificate shall be produced on demand”.

In the military, a soldier is ranked as a Lance Corporal to indicate that he/she has achieved academic success and is now required to obtain practical experience and integrate it with theory (Litchfield-Tshabalala, 2004:60). It is incumbent on the MPOs to possess specific skills and knowledge in order to fulfil the organisational objectives as prescribed in Section 30(2) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002). The first fundamental stage of the MPD in attaining its mandate is to train recruited members to acquire policing skills (MPD Strategic Plan, 2018). According to the South African Police Service (2019:1), the training ensures that the standard of the acquired skills is sustainable and conform to the changing policing world and its requirement for the police to perform according to acceptable standards.

Training is important for military personnel because it enhances a better understanding of their duties as well as the information and skills required to perform their tasks effectively and efficiently with the highest level of confidence (Smit et al., 2011:91). In order for training to be effective, the content should translate into, and reflect on the pragmatic realities confronting the trainees (Rodriguez & Walters, 2017:208). Accordingly, Smit et al. (2011:91) aver that military organisations should provide training that exposes individuals, teams, units, and crews in the actual environments and situations they would confront in real life. In order to attain its mandate, the training content of MPD training should then be reflective of the reality of the trainees and adapt to the changing needs of the Defence Force.

3.12 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher presented a broader scope of the MPD mandatory framework, and also outlined the significance of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996), the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002), the Criminal Procedure Act (No. 52 of 1997) and the Labour Relation Act (No. 66 of 1995), as well as other training and skills related Acts. This legislative framework is necessitated by the fact that the training of MPOs should comply with the prescripts and mandates of the law and be able to meet their clients' needs and the MPD's strategic objectives in

accordance with the training. The researcher further explored the policies that govern the MPD training and development.

These policies include, but are not limited to the White Paper on Public Service Training and Education, the Department of Defence Instruction No Trg/00004/2001, and the MPAI No 11/00, and serve as MPD training guidelines to ensure effective training that is in synchrony with national and international norms and standards in order to enable the MPOs' acquisition of the skills and knowledge that benefits the MPOs from training presented. The MPD's objectives, vision, mission, values and the MPOs' appointments were also discussed in order to highlight their importance in relation to training.

The MPD's objectives, vision, mission, values, and the MPOs' appointment are vital as they form a foundational framework for training and development for MPOs' in order to execute the MPD mandate effectively. The next chapter presents the MPD training initiatives/curricula.

CHAPTER 4: THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION TRAINING INITIATIVES/ CURRICULA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The quality of a curriculum can be as good as the quality of the process of developing the very curriculum (Bediako, 2019:3). The implication is that effective training is determined by a good quality curriculum. In that regard, this chapter then focuses on various perspectives and definitions or characterisation of the term, 'curriculum'. The chapter further presents an overview of the importance and application of the major learning theories, develops an explanation of pedagogy and andragogy, additional learning theories that contribute to adult learning; as well as the efficacy of these theories in training. Given their various critical roles in training, the outcomes-based and competency-based curriculum approaches are defined.

The chapter then concludes with the curricula of the MPD training in policing. The present MPD training of MPO is based on the curriculum, and is designed to assist and enhance MPOs with the requisite knowledge, skills and attitude in responding to crime prevention, investigation and other police functions. The chapter also specifies the nature of the training entailed in the curricula in detail. Accordingly, this chapter also answers the fourth research question as appearing in Section 1.5.2 of Chapter 1, namely: "To what extent do the current MPD training initiatives/curricula provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills?"

According to Stabback (2016:4), the curriculum largely determines whether the provision of learning is equitable, and whether the quality of such learning is relevant in its articulation and support for the holistic development of all learners. Therefore, it could be stated that curriculum is the foundation of training. The United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation's (UNESCO's), 2016:np in International Bureau of Education (2013:16) confirms that curriculum defines the learning foundations, contents and characteristics of the learning experiences. However, it must be noted that the curriculum could meet certain quality standards, but still be fraught with problems that remain unnoticed without a purposeful effort to detect them (Khan, Spruijt, Mahboob & Van Merriënboer, 2019:11).

The quality of the curriculum itself cannot be determined in isolation from the processes of curriculum development, implementation and evaluation (Bediako, 2019:3). The Curriculum Management, Naval Service Training Command (2020:4-2) affirms that the effectiveness of the curriculum does not only depend on knowledge and skill content, but also on the method used to convey that content to the learners, as well as instructional and training system experts who would evaluate the instructional materials. It is necessary to clarify the conceptualisation of the term 'curriculum', prior to providing an overview of the various learning theories and evaluating the MPD curriculum-related aspects, since there are various definitions and perspectives associated with the term, 'curriculum'.

4.2 PERSPECTIVES ON CURRICULUM

Carl (2009:26) fulminates that the challenges of the curriculum emanate from the institutions of higher learning where curriculum decisions are championed by curriculum novices and administrative staff who have very little expertise in the field of curriculum studies. The point being made by Carl (2009:26) is that understanding or comprehension comes before application, and thus for one to apply a concept or idea one needs to first and foremost understand the concept. Having an authentic understanding is the reason why the definition of the curriculum is important to understand, because it directs our actions regarding the practice of such concepts (Mulenga, 2019:4; Woyo, E. 2013:184). Understanding the term curriculum is essential to make the required distinctions as to identify and articulate one's own involvement more clearly.

The term curriculum has been defined in different ways by different scholars and one should know what one implies by the term curriculum (Carl, 2009:26). The term 'curriculum' is a word derived from the Latin "currere" meaning 'run more quickly or a race course', which in education stands for course of studies referring to the path to be followed by a learner in a teaching institution as well as the frame within which it has to be followed (Husain, 2015:2). Sasidhar (2019:22) explains that curriculum is the means by which experience attempts to put an education proposal into practice. It involves both contents and method in its widest application and it takes account of the problem of implementation in the institution of an educational system.

According to Carl (2009:27), the above definition offers a perspective according to which educational aims are realised in practice and includes contents, methods in its broadest sense. Husain (2015:3) describes curriculum as a plan of action which incorporates the learning outcomes to be attained over a period of time by exposing the learning experiences of the learners. Mark, Ronald and Susan (2016:27) view Husain's (2015:3) description of a curriculum as the sum total of the means by which a learner is guided in attaining the intellectual and moral requisites to the role of an intelligent person. This description encompasses all the learning experiences the learners have under the direction of learning.

Marsh (2005:19) explains that the curriculum framework is a tool that provide controls, direction and evokes creative ideas and activities in curriculum planning. The curriculum framework itself refers to a group of related subjects or themes which fit together according to a predetermined set of criteria to cover an area of study appropriately (Marsh, 2005:21). In the South African military context, the Department of Defence Instruction Trg/00004/2001 (2004:C-4) defines the curriculum as a structured series of planned or intentional learning outcomes.

It encompasses all the teaching and learning opportunities that take place in a learning institution and include a collection of learning activities and teaching methodologies, as well as the forms of assessment and evaluation which are used in the learning institution to achieve the intended outcomes of the learning programme. According to Marsh (2005:5), the South African military curriculum seems to assume that what is studied is learned, but it may limit the planned learning outcomes to those that are easiest to achieve, not those that are most desirable, and it does not address questions such as: 'Is unplanned but actual learnings excluded from the curriculum?'

Marsh (2005:19) further explains that a curriculum framework is predominantly a guide that is explicitly designed and written to assist developers and trainers in the development and review of curricula in a training institution, as it is an important control element. According to Reed, Gultig and Adendorff (2012:30), the curriculum component is placed on the guidelines for course design; broad goals and purposes of subjects/modules within the curriculum area; the scope and parameters of what is regarded as vital knowledge for learners, content, and teaching; as well as the learning principles that learners must gain.

Of the many definitions associated with the term, 'curriculum', the definition that suites the purpose of this study best is provided by Husain (2015:3), because the total effectiveness of training is demonstrated by all the activities which are reflected or written in the curriculum. The definition by Husain (2015:3) motivated the researcher to think of curriculum as the tool in an educational environment that is responsible to change an individual's mind to be able to convert what he/she has learnt, to knowledge and skills. The two important key elements of Husain's (2015:3) definition of curriculum are learning outcomes and learning experiences. According to Chalmantzi, Dimoliatis and Bazoukis (2013:21), learning outcomes are broad statements usually designed around a framework of 8-12 higher order outcomes, recognising authentic interaction and integration in police practice of knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Nicholson (2011:1), views learning outcomes as "clear learning results that trainers want learners to demonstrate at the end of significant learning experiences". In the same vein, the Chartered Financial Analyst Institute (2018:v1-a) explains that learning outcomes are provided at the beginning of each reading in learners' study sessions. According to the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) (2013:101), learning outcomes should not be treated as being merely technical constructs, but should be applied to curricula and teaching, and used to identify appropriate criteria for assessment standards. Chalmantzi et al. (2013:21), concur that learning outcomes represent what is to be achieved and assessed at the end of a course of study, and not only the aspirations or what is intended to be achieved and assessed beyond only the aspirations

Aubrey and Riley (2016:9) explain that presenting learning experiences as a means that ensures learning designs, takes advantage of engaging learners in ways that best meet their needs; encouraging learning in a knowledgeable and forward-looking way; as well as encouraging learners to respond creatively and imaginatively in times of doubt. According to SAQA (2005:17), a curriculum should be more positive in nature, which could allow whole-person development, as it would enable the achievement of the objectives of motivating learning, enhancing knowledge and abilities.

According to SAQA (2005:17), the National Qualification Framework contextualises a standard curriculum according to the following attributes which form the foundation of a curriculum:

- determining the purpose and values of the learning;
- analysing the needs and nature of the learners;
- deciding on the outcomes or learning objectives;
- selecting the content, the subject matter that supports achieving the outcomes;
- presiding on the activities, methods and media for teaching and learning;
- planning how and when assessment is done; and
- planning the evaluation of the overall effectiveness of curriculum delivery.

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (2020:11) states that the curriculum is a powerful tool for enhancing learner achievement and well-being, and preparing learners to succeed and shape the future, while at the same time providing and ensuring a consistent level of quality across all types of educational provision and contributing to a more equitable system. The following section describes characteristics of a good curriculum, which focuses on educational quality.

4.2.1 Characteristics of a good curriculum

Characteristics of a good curriculum mean that each aspect of the curriculum should have a clear goal or end-goal to be achieved (OECD, 2012:40). According to Subharani, Bhuvanewari, Tamil and Sujithra (2014:48) a good curriculum is characterised by the following below-mentioned attributes:

4.2.1.1 The curriculum is constantly evolving

The curriculum evolved from one historical period to another, leading to the present. For a curriculum to be effective, it must be continuously monitored and evaluated, and should adapt its educational activities and services to meet the needs of a modern and dynamic community (Subharani et al., 2014:48).

4.2.1.2 The curriculum is based on people's needs

A good curriculum reflects the needs of the individual and society as a whole. The curriculum is in an appropriate form to meet the challenges of the time and to make education more relevant to the constituency it serves (Subharani et al., 2014:48).

4.2.1.3 The curriculum is designed democratically

A good curriculum is developed through the efforts of a group of people from different societal sectors that understand the interests, needs and resources of both the

learners and society (Subharani et al., 2014:49). Additionally, the curriculum is construed as the product of many minds and energies.

4.2.1.4 The curriculum is the result of many years of work

A good curriculum is the product of an extensive and demanding process, taking a lot of time to plan, manage, evaluate and develop (Subharani et al., 2014:49). However, the curriculum planners are also obliged to consider changing circumstances over time.

4.2.1.5 The curriculum is a complex of details

A good curriculum provides appropriate teaching equipment and meeting places that are often most conducive to learning. Such a curriculum also includes the student-teacher relationship, the orientation and counselling programme, health services, school and community projects, libraries and laboratories; as well as other school-related work experiences (Subharani et al., 2014:49).

4.2.1.6 The curriculum provides for the logical sequence of the learning content

Learning is development-oriented, and also allows for planning of lessons and activities (Subharani et al., 2014:49). As such, assessment mechanisms should also be logically sequenced in the order of the curriculum offering.

4.2.1.7 A good curriculum provides continuity of experience

The curriculum is based on the needs of society, complements and collaborates with other community programmes (Subharani et al., 2014:50). In this regard, the school offers its support in improving and implementing ongoing community programmes. There is a collaborative effort between the school and the community towards greater productivity.

4.2.1.8 The curriculum has educational quality

Quality education results from the situation of the individual's intellectual and creative abilities for social well-being and development (Subharani et al., 2014:50). Accordingly, the curriculum helps the learner to become the best they can be. The curriculum support system is secured to extend existing sources for its efficient and effective implementation.

4.2.1.9 The curriculum offers administrative flexibility

A good curriculum must be ready to incorporate changes whenever necessary (Subharani et al., 2014:51). Furthermore, the curriculum is subject to revision and development in order to meet the demands of globalisation and the digital age. Moreover, a good quality curriculum should emphasise more on articulating both the competences required for lifelong learning and the competences required for holistic development (International Bureau of Education, 2016:22).

Accordingly, the next section provides an overview of learning theories and the practical application of these learning theories, which are vital as they can offer a powerful tool for understanding the learning theory and its associated practices with regard to reshaping and refining learning (Harasim, 2017:4). Mugford, Crey and Bennell (2013:313) states further that there are three important areas of learning, namely cognitive (thinking), affective (feeling) and psychomotor (doing).

4.3 LEARNING THEORIES THAT ARE EFFECTIVE FOR TRAINING

Learning theories provide a set of laws or principles about learning, and different theories represent different assumptions and different beliefs about learning. In addition, learning theories present an attempt to describe how people and animals learn, thereby assisting us to understand the inherently complex process of learning (Shirani, 2011:5). The phrase “learning theories” is generally used to refer to both learning and educational theory (Mukhalalati, 2017:17; Varpio et al., 2020:989). Learning theory describes the ways that influence human beings’ learning behaviours (Kumi-Yeboah, 2015:187). Diverse learning theories in the learning process can assist the trainer to improve the training process (Mukhalalati & Taylor, 2019:1).

Furthermore, Mukhalalati and Taylor (2019:1) emphasise that an understanding of various learning theories is essential for several reasons. It can assist trainers to select the best instructional strategies, as well as learning objectives, assessment and evaluation approaches based on the content and learning environment. Duchesne and McMaugh (2018:4) state that theories form the foundation that guides the understanding of learning that can assist trainers to become more effective in their training practice, while Mukhalalati and Taylor (2019:1) believe that trainers need to thoroughly understand these learning in selecting and justifying the educational activities that they apply.

These activities have a solid theoretical foundation based on the learning environment and setting. A discussion of the learning theories leads to the clarification of pedagogy and andragogy, which are two divergent instructional design paradigms related to the education of children and adults (Cochran & Brown, 2016:73). Both terms pedagogy and andragogy end with 'agogos' meaning leading'. Pedagogy is an educational methodology in which knowledge is transferred by means of the teacher to the learner, meaning that the learner is dependent on the trainer for guidance, evaluation and acquisition of knowledge (Delahaye, 2011:33).

Pedagogy originates from the Greek word 'paidi', meaning 'child', and 'agogus' means to guide, with a more precise meaning associated with "the art and science of teaching children" (Queen, 2016:76). On the other hand, the term andragogy was later linked to the work of Knowles, who explained how adults learn. Knowles's ideas have guided the development of teaching strategies that are suitable for adult learning (Mukhalalati, 2017:17). According to Mukhalalati and Taylor (2019:1), the term 'andragogy' with 'andr' refer to 'man' was developed by Alexander Kapp, a German teacher.

According to Cochran and Brown (2016:73), the term andragogy includes six assumptions, namely: the need to know, the learner's self-concept, the role of the learner's experiences, readiness to learn, orientation to learning, and motivation. In this type of learning andragogy, it is crucial that learning should follow the needs of the learner and allow the learner to be responsible for his/her learning (Delahaye, 2011:33). The next section explores major learning theories, namely: behaviourism, cognitivism, humanist, connectivism, constructivism and other learning theories. These theories are closer to the specific contexts of adult learning, andragogy, and experiential learning theory.

4.3.1 Behaviourist learning theory

Learning theory includes behaviourism, cognitivism, constructivism, humanist and connectivism (Kumi-Yeboah, 2015:187). According to Queen (2016:64), learning theories such as behaviourism, cognitivism, constructivism, humanism and connectivism may contribute significantly towards the appropriate adjustments needed in police education. Mukhalalati and Taylor (2019:48) explain that the behaviourism theory utilises key ideas from the work of Skinner, an American psychologist who based his philosophy on the belief that learning occurs through a series of rewards or

punishment, where rewards increase the likelihood that behaviour would be repeated; while punishment decreases the probability of repetition.

According to Mukhalalati and Taylor (2019:48), Skinner theorised that rewards and punishment could be either positive or negative in nature. For example, when one gives or adds something to the environment, the interaction is positive. However, when one takes something away, the interaction is negative.

4.3.1.1 The main principles of behaviourist learning theory/tenets

According to Limniou, Holdcroft and Holmes (2015:411), the behaviourist learning theory defines learning as a change in observable behaviour due to environmental stimuli, where learners are essentially regarded as passive, and their behaviour is shaped through positive or negative reinforcement and punishment. According to the behaviourists, the environment determines and controls our behaviours (Inankul, 2016:1543).

This means that learning occurs by establishing a link between stimuli and behaviour, and behaviour change occurs through strengthening or reinforcement (Özden, 2003:21). In other words, an individual that behaves in a certain way in a particular situation shows the same behaviour when he or she encounters a similar situation (Inankul, 2016:1543). Therefore, behaviourists were not interested in what might occur in people's minds, but only interested in behavioural responses (Weegar & Pacis, 2012:4). Tusting and Barton (2003:7) indicate further that behaviourist models of learning imply that it may be possible to 'train' learners' responses by using behavioural techniques, breaking complex behaviours down into simple chains and rewarding correct performance.

According to Skinner, education creates behaviours that can be useful for individuals or others. In such a case, the trainer is the engineer who creates the beneficial behaviours (Senemoğlu, 2004:169). Scepanovic, Guerra and Lübcke (2015:684) explain that the major contribution of the theory of behaviourism to learning started with the learning enhancement aiding the educational systems to reproduce the role of experts in learning processes, as well as having their instructional design based in the classical behavioural methods of punishment (for an incorrect answer) and reward (for correct answer). The behaviourists also contend that learning is a relatively

enduring change in observable behaviour that occurs as a result of experience (Ng'andu, Hambulo, Haambokoma & Tomaida, 2013:6).

4.3.1.2 The relevance of behaviourist learning theory to the study

Birzer (2003:6) points out that behaviourist instructional methodologies are familiar in many police training environments. Birzer (2003:6), argued that law enforcement training is a field dominated by a militaristic and behaviourist orientation. Skinner believed that all learning could occur in the law enforcement mode, while Birzer (2003:6) explains that the philosophy of most police training programmes is based on three precepts. It should closely follow the military training model, it is a punishment-centred experience in which trainees must prove themselves, and it assists in screening out those who cannot cope. In order to adapt the Skinner theory to police training, we need to have police trainers with professional experience, who are specialised in their fields and who have a pedagogical foundation.

Traditionally, when MPD training was initiated, it was conducted on the basis of the behaviourist theory learning, in terms of which the principles of punishment and reward were emphasised in relation to learning. However, the same processes from the implementation and assessment of learning and have not changed significantly, with summative assessment as the only that has continuously been applied to evaluate the training (Scepanovic et al., 2015:683). The problem with the behaviourist theory is that learning constitutes much more than a uniform, structural environment (Birzer, 2003:7). Learning is actually a very complex process and involves many different types of behaviour to determine that learning has occurred (Birzer, 2003:7).

According to Skinner, successful training could be possible with good understanding of training and learning processes. Therefore, it is vital to determine the learning objectives to be reached before beginning the training. The learning objectives are actually behavioural objectives in that they set standards on how learners are expected to behave at the end of the learning experience (Inankul, 2016:1549). Modise (2010:33) avers that by creating behavioural objectives, the trainer can specify precisely what learners need to be able to do, then create a learning environment that encourages trainees to elicit the desired behaviour.

4.3.2 Cognitive learning theory

Jean Piaget (1896-1980) a Swiss psychologist, is best known for his pioneering work on the development of intelligence in children and studies that have had a major impact in the fields of psychology and education (Zhou & Brown, 2015:13). As the most influential exponent of cognitivism, Piaget the child psychologist rejected the idea that learners are passive and simply react to stimuli in the environment instead of focusing solely on observable behaviour. In that regard, Piaget proposed that learning is a dynamic process, comprising of successive stages of adaption to reality during which learners actively construct knowledge by creating and testing their own theories of the world (Gas Safety International (GSI), 2016:5).

Cognitive perspectives were further inspired by the works of Gestalt psychologists in Germany, who asserted the person's ability to organise and transform what is taught into a general pattern. In essence, gestalt theory is viewed as the forerunner to cognitive learning cognitive (Celikoz, Erisen & Sahin, 2019:20). Cognitive psychologists believe that learning is an internal process; as such, they focus on thinking, understanding, organising, and consciousness (Aliakbari, Parvin, Heidari & Haghani, 2015:1). According to Inankul (2016:21), cognitive psychology looks at learning from an information processing point of view.

They believe that cognitive learning theory is based on processing information, and that learning occurs by processing external stimulants within mental and internal processes (Inankul, 2016:1540). The emphasis of the cognitive approach is on what is happening inside the learner's brain (Sheridan, 2014:119). Cognitive theory further seeks to explain how the mind works during the learning process (Queen, 2016:74).

4.3.2.1 The main principles of cognitivist learning theory/tenets

Cognitivism is the belief that "human thinking and learning" are similar to that of computer information processing (Sheridan, 2014:118). According to this theory, the information that is acquired through sense organs is processed in the mind, similar to a computer processing data (Inankul, 2016:1542). Cognitive theorists view learning as involving the acquisition or reorganisation of the cognitive structures through which humans process and store information (Shirani, 2011:16). According to GSI (2016:5), when a child has reached the fourth and last stage of development, he/she is able to understand abstract, complex concepts, with existing structures in the learner's brain

assisting to accommodate the newly acquired information to solve the new type of problem.

At the start of every lesson, the trainer should ask questions to activate the prior knowledge of his/her learners, as this might help to link the new learning concepts to previously retained ideas, increasing the possibility that the new learning material should be remembered. According to Mugford et al. (2013:313), the most widely accepted theories of cognitivism in education are based on Bloom's taxonomies of learning goals related to the development of different types of learning skills or ways of learning.

4.3.2.2 The applicability/relevance of cognitivist learning theory to the study

The applicability of the above theory in this study is linked to the area of cognitive reasoning. To demonstrate effective training, the learner must be able to understand, translate, interpret and extrapolate what is being learned. Therefore, the cognitive learning theory is relevant for problem solving, especially when the concepts are complex and need to be fragmented into smaller parts.

Such ideas and concepts are linked to prior knowledge, and can help the MPD learner to develop higher forms of thinking in real police situations (Stavredes, 2011:36). The MPD learners should use scenarios of a real problem and this would help the learners to outline the main problems, identify resources available to solve the problem and then create an action plan to solve the problem. Scenario-based training activities are believed to leverage cognitivism because the main goal of cognitivist learning theory is to transfer knowledge to the learner in the most efficient way by enabling such learner to use the most effective cognitive strategies to encode information (Kimmons & Caskurlu, 2020:30).

Cognitivism is relevant to MPD training, whose decision-making, communication, critical thinking, and problem-solving orientations are guided by assessing whether the learner can apply what has been learned during the training to different situations in the work environment (Reno Police Department, 2015:32). Meanwhile, Mugford et al. (2013:315), assert that in order to develop high-level cognitive skills, scenario assessment must be used in the training as it promotes the development of a higher form of thinking in learning required for the unpredictable encounters in the police

environment and the cognitive structures on the part of the learner; including the preservation and transmission of knowledge and skills.

4.3.3 Humanist learning theory

John Dewey is regarded the most notable humanist theorist, while other humanist educational theorists include Abraham Maslow (1970) and Carl Rogers (1990) (Parker & Hyett, 2011:11). Humanism is a pedagogic paradigm/philosophy which upholds that learning is viewed as a personal act of fulfilling one's potential, centered on human freedom, dignity and potential (Sheridan, 2014:115). Humanistic theories promote individual development, and are more learner-centred (Taylor & Hamdy, 2013:e1562).

Humanists further believe that learning should focus on practical problem solving and making full use of previous experience (Behlol & Hukam, 2010:235). Abraham Maslow's theory of motivation (1970) is premised on the assumption that there are levels through which a learner ought to go in order to reach a state of actualisation (Parker & Hyett 2011:11). The goal of this theory is to produce learners who have the potential for self-actualisation and are self-directed and intrinsically motivated (Taylor & Hamdy, 2013:e1562).

4.3.3.1 The main principles/tenets of humanist theory

It is essential that instructional activities be based on the learners' basic needs for the success of the learning process (Behlol & Hukam, 2010:231). Maslow's five levels of the hierarchy of needs is a major conceptual contributor in the humanist theory, as it focuses on the cognitive and affective needs of the learner as well. According to Behlol and Hukam (2010:236), the major assumptions underlying humanism are that:

- human nature is inherently good and might strive for a better world;
- individuals are free and autonomous and capable of making major personal choices;
- human potential is virtually unlimited in respect of growth and development;
- self-concept plays an important role in growth and development;
- individuals have an urge toward self-actualisation; and
- reality is defined by each person; and individuals have responsibility to both themselves and to others.

The fundamental belief of the humanist approach is premised on learning influences, and gives direction to teaching (Sheridan, 2014:111). In addition, Sheridan (2014:111), point out that the humanist learning style is evident when self-directed learning takes place in a learning environment; taking into consideration learners' needs, concerns and expectations. Such a scenario exists when the learning environment stimulates motivation, encourages participation and where the learner experiences and perceptions are characterised by care (Simon, 2019:23). Humanists are interested in how people can be motivated to learn, and how learning can be made relevant to life situations and circumstances (Parker & Hyett, 2011:11).

4.3.3.2 The applicability/relevance of humanist learning theory to the study

The application of humanistic learning theory requires a paradigm shift for both educators and learners (Purswell, 2019:363). The humanistic theory of learning is closely related to andragogy based on adult education which promotes learner growth. Hence, Maslow's principle of self-actualisation is relevant to this study as it inspires the education system to fully promote and develop learners' optimal growth in all spheres of their lives (Aruma & Hanachor, 2017:22). This concept corresponds to what Valett (1977:np) describes as the ultimate goal of education, which is to produce a good and relatively happy human being, capable of leading creative and meaningful lives (Singh, 2012:23).

From a learning theory perspective, humanism emphasises that perceptions are centred on experience, freedom, and responsibility to become what one is capable of (Belanger, 2011:35). The applicability of the principle of self-actualisation through MPD training would be a response to the effectiveness of MPD training, given the emphasis of humanistic learning theory on emphasising the uniqueness of the individual (Khatib, Sarem & Hamidi, 2013:46). According to Purswell (2019:363), the MPD training of members' belief in human growth tendencies is paramount. Since the theory holds that self-actualisation is the ultimate goal of each individual's growth, MPOs desire to realise their potential in an enabling environment where they are trusted to set their own goals, individual standards and evaluate their own work (Sheridan, 2004:24).

Learners need to know how the training might improve their lives. It is important that the training should support the learner to be a worthy MPO of the future. This should

be undertaken by means of attention to the training in order to ensure that learners receive effective training. In addition, the training must be able to engage with the curriculum while focusing on other aspects of the learner; as well as the career path, promotion and any future aspirations of the learner. Without the provision of basic needs such as food, security, self-respect, self-esteem, and intellectual curiosity, no learning would take place (Maslow, 1970:np; Hiemstra & Brockett, 2006:np).

Therefore, it is a necessary condition for the success of the learning process that the teaching activities should be based on the needs of the learners (Behlol & Hukam, 2010:235). Humanistic learning principles have been described as a better framework for police training than behaviourism or cognitivism (Birzer, 2003:6; Werth, 2009:23).

4.3.4 Connectivist learning theory

Connectivism has emerged in recent years as a new philosophy of education in the digital age intended to focus more on the connection of active information seeking and knowledge was founded by George Siemens and Stephen Downes around 2005 (Siemens, 2005:4). Connectivism itself is defined as actionable knowledge in which an understanding of *where* to find knowledge may be more important than answering *how* or *what* that knowledge encompasses (Duke, Harper & Johnson, 2013:4). According to Behlol and Hukam (2010:238), the connectivism learning theory provides insight into learning skills and tasks needed for learners to flourish and progress in the digital era. Using technology in teaching and learning has transformed traditional learning theories into technology integrated variants such as Web-based and Internet-based learning (Sahin & Safieh, 2021:38).

4.3.4.1 The main principles/tenets of connectivist theory

The contributions of connectivism theory do not merit its treatment as a new and free-standing theory (Kop & Hill, 2008:3). However, the pedagogical view on education with the apparent underlying philosophy that learners from an early age need to create connections with the world beyond the school to develop the networking skills that allows them to manage their knowledge effectively and efficiently in the information society (Verhagen, 2006:17). Kop and Hill (2008:5) credit Downes for having expounded an “epistemological framework for distributed knowledge which provides a strong philosophical basis for the connectivist learning framework”.

Meyerrose (2014:38) asserts that connectivism is rooted on the following nine principles:

- learning requires a diversity of opinions and permission to select the best approach;
- learning is a network development process, which connects information sources as nodes;
- knowledge resides in networks;
- knowledge resides in certain technologies for its facilitation;
- the capacity to learn more is more critical than what has been previously learnt;
- learning and knowing are on-going processes and not end-products;
- the ability to recognise patterns in information, see connections within areas of knowledge, and make sense of ideas and concepts are the critical skills for adult learners today;
- accurate, and up-to-date knowledge is the intent of all learning; and
- decision-making enhances learning, in that the choice of *what* to learn and deciphering incoming information is a non-static process; for example, a correct answer today could be incorrect the following day because new information may affect the decision.

Therefore, connectivism believes that the learner must be equipped to see connections between the field, ideas and concepts, and continuously search for up-to-date knowledge (Behlol & Hukam, 2010:238).

4.3.4.2 The relevance of the connectivist learning theory to the study

The relevance of the connectivist learning theory in this study is that it can help in explaining how the learner acquires more knowledge about his/her learning from external sources. Connectivist learning theory can alleviate the problem of insufficient information sources to support learning, since the theory encourages learners to choose their own path to explore relevant information sources that allow them to make suggestions or even develop different views and perspectives that support their learning without the guidance of the traditional teaching process (Corbett & Spinello, 2020:e03250).

Since learning and knowledge are based on diversity of opinion, the connectivist theory of learning then encourages learners to build networks of information and expertise in a variety of fields from many different sources (Corbett & Spinello, 2020:e03250). Therefore, the establishment of the library and internet stations at the MP School can play an important role in MPD training. Corbett and Spinello (2020:e03250) further explain that connectivism recognises the shift of knowledge acquisition from the finite area of a learner's brain to the learner's external environment, giving the individual access to information residing throughout the network. However, since there is no library at the MP School to support the training, nor Internet stations where learners can connect to the external world, it is therefore impossible to obtain other views from other sources about their training to demonstrate the principle of connective to support learning theory.

4.3.5 Constructivist learning theory

Lev Vygotsky is the founder of the constructivist learning theory (Taylor & Hamdy, 2013:1). Constructivists view learning as the process by which a learner constructs new knowledge based on what a learner already knows (Taylor & Hamdy, 2013:1). New learning is shaped by the experience that the learner brings to the learning process. Tomei (2009:np), quoted in Alzahrani and Woollard (2013:1), believes that constructivist learning theory is a collaborative process, and that social interaction is fundamental to cognitive activities that produce mental models that represent perceptions of reality. In other words, constructivism is a philosophy that emphasises the development of cognitive structures by learners based on their prior knowledge (schema) and experiences in learning environments (de Villiers, 2002:44).

4.3.5.1 The main principles/tenets of constructivist theory

The constructivist learning theory is based on the following key principles or tenets: learner-centredness; active participation of learners in the knowledge construction process; self-regulation, which implies that learners must take responsibility for their learning; use of integrated assessment models; learning taking place in real contexts; appreciation of multiple perspectives on the subject; as well as embeddedness of learning in social experiences (Schoeman, 2015:4).

In addition, the constructivist theory is premised on the notion of a zone of proximal development - a condition of cognitive readiness that must be present for learning to

take place (De Villiers, 2002:45). Furthermore, constructivism is imbued with the belief that learners learn best when working with people whose level of competence is higher than their own, which enables them to do tasks that they cannot yet do on their own (De Villiers, 2002:45).

4.3.5.2 The relevance of constructivist learning theory to the study

For Jenkins (2018:10), this theory poses greater challenges for instructional designers within the military, as they cannot treat the learner as an empty vessel waiting to be filled, but rather the learner's role as an active participant must take into account a complex learning system. In the same vein, Jenkins (2018:41) upholds that incorporating a constructivist approach into the military training would create better learning opportunities with the up-skilling of military instructional designers. Alzahrani and Woollard (2013:6) believe that constructivist learning theory is an appropriate learning theory for both trainers and learners because of the characteristics of the roles of the trainer in training and the learner in learning.

In constructivism, the learner actively participates in the construction of knowledge, analysing it and processing it in their own way, rather than passively absorbing information, while the trainer is viewed as a facilitator (Fox et al., 2017:79). Constructivist theory focuses on the belief that problem solving helps learners to think, learn and develop, with the facilitator using problem-based learning to inspire learners to solve real-world problems, achieve multiple learning goals while giving learners autonomy to make decisions (Alzahrani & Woollard, 2013:1).

It could be stated that constructivism is best used when the learner takes control of the learning situation by exposing them to problem-based learning according to which they develop an understanding of the meaning of the problem, the relevance of understanding the topic, and constructing knowledge derived from their experiences (Stavredes, 2011:37).

4.3.6 Andragogy

Andragogy is a transactional model of adult learning that is designed to transcend specific applications and situations (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2005:143). Andragogy is defined as “the art and science of helping adults learn” (Queen, 2016:67). Knowles labelled andragogy as an emerging technology which facilitates

the development and implementation of learning activities for adults (Henschke, 2014:143). Knowles' andragogy contributes to the establishment of a democratic society in which learning is no longer controlled by trainers, but by learners (Chan, 2010:32).

Chan (2010:30) believes that andragogy promotes the use of relevant learning experiences which constitute the key element in police training. Chan (2010:30) adds further that the application of andragogy in police training could assist police officials to develop problem-solving skills and become self-directed in addressing community issues. Henschke (2014:4) indicates that adult learning assumptions have a complementary relationship and are supported by adult learning theories such as experiential learning, transformative learning and self-directed learning, to mention a few.

Chan (2010:30) mentions that andragogy assists trainers to understand the learners' behaviour and identify causes of learners' anxiety. Knowledge of the principles of andragogy supports trainers to encourage learners to search for options to a problem and self-directed. Knowles's andragogical model posits six assumptions, providing for a learner-centred education focusing on the characteristics of adult learners that differentiate them from child learners (Knowles et al., 2005:143).

4.3.6.1 The relevance of andragogy to the study

According to Chan (2010:32), andragogy has been adopted in many fields and by trainers in different countries. It is regarded as an adult learning theory, whereas others view it as an approach, a set of principles, a set of assumptions or a guideline for education practice. Therefore, it is the above statement by Chan (2010:32) that convinced the researcher that the application of andragogy is relevant in this study. Andragogy could be the best way to improve the learning environment for adult MPD training.

Since MPD training is for adult learners, recruits and other MP Officials should then be treated as such. Andragogy could be the best way to provide training for MP Officials, as learners are encouraged to build problem-solving skills that are applicable to their jobs.

The principle of self-directed learning should be encouraged in a training environment, and trainers need to embrace andragogy as an adult learning principle that enables the learner to participate in their learning, as it is vital to the skills needed to deal with everyday challenges that the learners encounter (Keily, Sandmann & Truluck, 2004:20). The andragogical assumptions namely; self-concept, role of experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learn, need to know, and motivation, are discussed below in the next section, including the theory of experiential learning.

- **The learner's self-concept**

Adult learners tend to see themselves as more responsible, self-directed, and independent (Keily et al., 2004:20). As adults, such learners have a deep psychological need to be self-directed, perceived and treated by others as able to take responsibility for themselves (Henschke, 2014:144). Therefore, adult learners need to be actively involved in the learning process (Henschke, 2014:3).

Tennant (2006:10) states that the key elements in self-directed learning are the following:

- knowledge and ability to apply the basic process of planning, conducting, and evaluating learning activities;
- ability to identify one's own learning objectives;
- ability to select the appropriate planning strategy and planner expertise;
- ability to direct one's own planning when that course of action is appropriate;
- ability to make sound decisions about the setting and time management of learning activities;
- ability to gain knowledge or skill from the resources utilised;
- ability to detect and cope with personal and situational blocks to learning; and
- ability to renew motivation.

- **The role of experience**

Adults have a larger, more diverse repertoire of knowledge and experience to draw from (Keily et al., 2004:20). Henschke (2014:145) states that adults enter into an educational activity with a greater volume and a different quality of experience than youths. The greater volume is obvious -the longer adults live, the more experience they accumulate (Henschke, 2014:145).

The difference in quality of experience arises from the different roles adults and young people perform (Henschke, 2014:144). Adults need consideration of their prior experience which the instructor should acknowledge. Adults' learners need to connect new knowledge to past events (Henschke, 2014:3).

- **Readiness to learn**

Adults' readiness to learn is based on developmental and real-life responsibilities (Keily et al., 2004:20). Adults become ready to learn when they experience the need to know or to be able to do something to perform more effectively in some aspects of their lives (Henschke, 2014:145). The developmental tasks associated with moving from one stage of development to another are a demonstration of some of the chief sources of readiness. Any change in marriage, the birth of children, the loss of a job, divorce, the death of a friend or relative, or a change of residence -can trigger a readiness to learn (Henschke, 2014:145).

- **Orientation to learning**

Adult learners' orientation to learning is most often problem- centred and relevant to their current life situation (Keily et al., 2004:20). The orientation to learning is due to the fact that adults are motivated to learn after they have experienced a need. They may then enter an educational activity with a life-, task-, or problem-centred orientation to learning and often see learning as acquiring subject-matter content (Henschke, 2014:145).

- **The need to know**

Adults have a stronger need to know the reasons for learning something in particular (Henschke, 2014:144; Keily et al., 2004:20). Also, adults need to see the link between what they are learning and how it should be applied to their lives (Henschke, 2014:3). Adults need to feel that learning focuses on issues that directly concern them and they want to know what they are going to learn, how the learning is might be conducted, and why it is important (Henschke, 2014:3).

- **Motivation**

Adults tend to be more internally motivated (Keily et al., 2004:20). Although the andragogical model acknowledges that adults respond to some external motivators for example, a chance for promotion, a change of job, or a change in technology. The

more internal the motivators, for example benefits as self-esteem, recognition by peers, better quality of life, greater self-confidence, or self-actualization, the more potent they become (Henschke, 2014:145). Henschke (2014:4), explains that there is no solely adult learning theory that can be successfully applied to all adult learning environments without other learning theories.

The existing theories (learning, experiential learning, transformational theory, work-based learning, self-directed learning), provide frameworks that contribute to our understanding of adult learning (Henschke, 2014:4). Queen (2016:67), point out that andragogy provides for student-centred learning by utilising analytical and conceptual skills such as group work, problem solving, role playing, and interactive scenarios. The following sections explain each of the additional learning theories that have a bearing on adult learning.

4.3.7 Experiential learning theory

David Kolb's experiential learning theory focuses on the process by which experience becomes knowledge (Collins, Miraldi & Spencer, 2018:21). Kolb (1984:np) proposed a four-stage cyclical developmental model of knowledge that combines conscious cognition of individuals and transformation of experiences, namely: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation (Yardley, Teunissen & Dornan, 2012:105). According to Collins et al. (2018:21), experiential learning results from a combination of capturing and transforming experience.

The above model presents two methods of capturing experience, namely concrete experience and abstract conceptualisation, and two methods of transforming experience, namely: reflective observation and active experimentation. Kolb's experiential learning style theory, which is typically presented through a cycle of four stages is illustrated in Figure 4.1 overleaf.

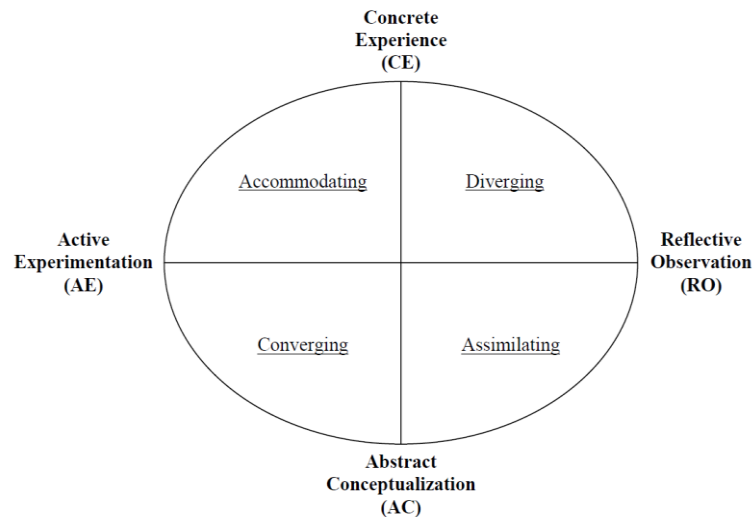


Figure 4.1: The experiential learning cycle and basic learning styles

(Source: Romanovs, 2016:4)

The learning cycle starts with concrete experience or gathering facts. The most typical methods and activities include lectures, simulations, and other in-class activities to recall someone’s experience (Romanovs, 2016:5). Reflective observation, on the other hand, is the stage of the learning process according to which the student reflects on what he/she has noticed during the experiential stage of the learning. In this stage, students evaluate the facts (Romanovs, 2016:5). The traditional methods applied for reflection are; group discussions, brainstorming or answering questions. Romanovs (2016:5) explains that abstract conceptualisation is the process during which conclusions identified during the reflection stage are developed into a hypothesis, contextualised, linked with other experiences, and related to earlier acquired theories.

During this phase, instructors should provide additional facts and theory, thereby supporting the achievement of the learning standards. Romanovs (2016:5) mentions further that the final stage of the learning cycle is active experimentation, where the projects, concepts and hypotheses are tested. During this stage, students apply earlier acquired theoretical knowledge and after accomplishment of the task students would arrive back at the first stage of the cycle with new, concrete experience. Learning experiences that focus on developing understanding as opposed to rote memorisation, produce more vigorous mental models that are easier to apply (Collins et al., 2018:21).

4.3.7.1 The main principles/tenets of experiential learning theory

Kolb's model gave rise to the Learning Style Inventory (SLI), an assessment method used to determine an individual's learning style. An individual may exhibit a preference for one of the four styles, namely: accommodating, converging, diverging, and assimilating, depending on their approach to learning via the experiential learning theory model (Sheridan, 2014:133). These four styles are based on experience (Lauritz, Åström, Nyman & Klingvall, 2013:197). Sheridan (2014:133) suggested that each learner has different preferences for learning.

In- training groups are emblematic of other work which developed the ideas of widely used learning styles. Sheridan (2014:133), modified Kolb's cycle and suggested four learning facilitation styles, corresponding to each of the stages as follows:

- **Activists:** respond most positively to learning situations that offer challenges and which include new experiences and problems;
- **Reflectors:** respond most positively to structured learning activities in which time is provided to think, reflect and observe. Such learners prefer to work in a detailed manner;
- **Theorists:** respond most positively to logical, rational structure, and clear aims. They need time to explore ideas and the opportunity to question; and
- **Pragmatists:** respond most positively to practically based, immediately relevant learning activities which allow them to practise and make use of theory.

In training groups, it is an advantage to rely on the personal diversity and the differing strengths of the participants (Dobos, 2013:5088). Table 4.1 overleaf shows the experiential learning theories of Wolf and Kolb (1981:np), Kolb (1984:np) and Honey and Mumford (1992:np) in relation to experiential learning theory.

Table 4.1: Experiential learning theories

Experiential Learning Theory	Strengths	Wolf & Kolb (1981)	Kolb (1984)	Honey and Mumford (1992)
Convergent	Practical application of Ideas	Abstract Conceptualisation Active Experimentation	Abstract Active	Theorist Activist
Divergent	Imagination and brainstorming	Concrete Experience Reflective Observation	Concrete Reflective	Pragmatist Reflector
Assimilation	Create theoretical models and interpret different observations in a meaningful way	Abstract Conceptualisation Reflective Observation	Abstract Conceptualisation	Theorist Reflector
Accommodative	Execute plans and tasks that involve new experiences	Active Experimentation Concrete Experience	Concrete Active	Pragmatist Activist

(Source: Sheridan, 2014:133)

Sheridan (2014:135), explain that convergers are people who perceive reality through abstract conceptualisation and process such reality through active experimentation. Their strength lies in the application of ideas to advance the use of deductive reasoning to arrive at answers (Sheridan, 2014:135). Sheridan (2014:135), describes the divergent learning style as concrete perception and reflective processing of learning content. According to Sheridan (2014:135), one of the strengths of divergers is their ability to look at concrete situations from many different perspectives.

Assimilators are similar to divergers in that both orientations process matter reflectively. The assimilation learning style is rendered unique by its perception of materials in an abstract manner (Sheridan, 2014:135). The latter author posits further that assimilators tend to specialise in science/social science fields. Accommodators on the other hand, are similar to convergers in that both orientations process subject matter through active experimentation (Sheridan, 2014:1350). A clear difference between convergers and accommodators is in their perception of processing materials. Additionally, accommodators perceive reality through concrete experience, and one of their main strengths lies in doing things and implementing ideas.

4.3.7.2 The relevance of experiential learning theory to the study

The application of experiential learning theories in the study manifest insofar as the learning environment requires learners to establish their own learning within the foundation of the probation period. An adapted version of the Kolbs principle of accommodators could be used as the basis for probation training in MPD training. For effective training, learners should complete a probation period or field training prior to the actual learning course.

According to Grant, Dahl and Bayens (2016:30), the guiding principle and belief is that the probationary period should extend training beyond the classroom to real-world environments. Learners learn through direct participatory observation, and not through indirect presentations of the environment, such as textbooks or lectures. Grant et al. (2016:30), mention that the probationary period is intended to go beyond transcend mere fieldwork into a dynamic learning experience that encourages critical thinking, encourages collaboration, and fosters identity development.

4.3.8 Transformative learning theory

Transformative learning theory was prompted by many studies that premised on the belief that what a person experienced in life that was not as important as their interpretation and explanation of what happens to them in relation to their actions, contentment, hopes, performance, and emotional well-being (Buchanan, 2018:72). Kitchenham (2008:104) avers that Mezirow is the theorist most closely associated with personal transformational models of learning through his model of learning as a form of perspective transformation (Tusting & Barton, 2003:13).

From the perspective of Han (2012:758), transformative learning theory is defined as “the social process of constructing and appropriating a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one’s experience as a guide to action”. However, Tusting and Barton (2003:13) clarify that Merizow’s definition regards learning primarily as a means of personal or social transformation. Transformation relates to a deep and structural shift in the thoughts, feelings, and actions of a person, which represents and explains the world around oneself (Han, 2012:758).

Transformative learning involves three stages. The first stage involves experiencing a confusing issue or problem and reflecting on previous perspectives about the event.

The second stage involves engaging in critical evaluation and self-reflection on the experience, which requires metacognitive thinking, while the third stage entails taking an action about the issue, based on self-reflection and previous assumptions, which leads to a transformation of meaning, context, and long-standing propositions (Mukhalalati & Taylor, 2019:3).

4.3.8.1 The main principles/tenets of transformative learning theory

Kitchenham (2008:104) views Mezirow's transformative learning theory as being transformative when it reached the point of causing a significant change in a person's life (Buchanan, 2018:75). In other words, it is a process according to which learners are enabled to change previously held characteristics of thinking (Harold, 2020:8). For this to happen, individuals engaging in reflective discourse need to challenge each other's assumptions and encourage group members to consider various perspectives.

The transformative learning theory is considered uniquely adult and based on human communication, with learning understood as the process of using previous interpretations to construct a new or revised interpretation of one's experience to guide future action (Moon, Brewer, Januchowski-Hartley, Adams, & Blackman, 2016:50). Moon et al, (2016:51), explain that transformative learning theory focuses on the interrelationship between personal change and learning.

4.3.8.2 The relevance of transformative learning theory to the study

The applicability of transformative learning theory in this study implies the integration of the curriculum into training in a way that allows MPOs to realistically practice using all the relevant skills and knowledge required for effective policing; as well as making unique personal judgments. The ultimate goal of a police training institution is to produce a police force that resembles the product of a transformative educational process, with recruits transformed into police officials who can combine and synthesise information to make legal and ethical judgments (Staller, Koerner & Zaiser, 2023:61).

In the policing context, the police need to think critically about the policing challenges they face, and analyse possible causes and influences, such as the impact of global trends on the development and advancement of criminal activities (Adams, 2010:59). Therefore, in support of the theory of transformative learning, Ihsan (2020:30)

suggests that trainers/ facilitators should adhere to the following, since transformative learning results from an inquiry into personal experiences:

- act on learners' experiences;
- recognise learners' initial and ongoing needs;
- encourage analysis of learners' motivation;
- involve learners in review and re-goal setting;
- teach principles of reflective practice;
- encourage learners to explore;
- discuss their meaning building on experiences;
- use tools like learning logs and journals to record experiences and reflections; and
- promote self-regulation of learning.

4.3.9 Workplace learning theory

Workplace learning is viewed as a combination of planned formal learning and informal learning, and occurs during the process of working (Oslen & Tikkanen, 2018:548). According to Kankaras (2021:9), workplace learning is a process of acquiring knowledge, skills upgrading, capacitating employees to complete their work tasks, roles and creating an environment where learning can flourish, leading to improved individual and organisational performance.

The workplace is the heart of learning for many adults throughout their working career; thus, workplace learning represents an integral and substantive part of lifelong learning (Oslen & Tikkanen, 2018:546). In this context, a better understanding of workplace learning is becoming increasingly important, as it is viewed as the critical tool for both employees and organisations in their continuous adjustment to a growing number of global trends that are reshaping our workplaces and societies (Kankaras, 2021:7).

4.3.9.1 The main principles/tenets of workplace learning theory

Workplace learning is a dynamic process to solve workplace problems through learning (Lee & Lai, 2012:2). Workplace learning mostly occurs through work-related interactions, and is generally described as contributing to the learning of both the individual employee and the organisation as a whole (Collin, Sintonen, Palomiemi, & Auvinen, 2011:303). Workplace learning focuses mainly on the acquisition of formal

skills that may lead to formal qualifications, and informal learning which results in informal narrowly- focused skills (Cacciattolo, 2015:24).

4.3.9.2 The relevance of workplace learning theory to the study

According to Silverman (2003:2), workplace learning can be classified into three types, all of which involve some form of learning intervention: internal training, experiential learning opportunities and training through coaching and mentoring; as well as continuous learning. In-house training includes planned learning activities that take place alongside or outside of work (Cacciattolo, 2015:224). According to Silverman (2003:4), experiential learning is a workplace learning activity that is primarily supported and evaluated through coaching and mentoring.

Furthermore, the application of work-based learning can address the fulfillment of basic needs (Erasmus et al., 2021:347). In the case of the current study, workplace learning for MPD training relates to the field phase or probationary period at the military police station, which provides learners (trainee MPOs) with an opportunity to develop practical learning experiences and conceptual skills related to their real-life training as they in turn might apply it again in the workplace settings where they would be placed.

4.4 THE OUTCOMES-BASED APPROACH

The Outcomes-Based (OB) approach is cognate from the Outcomes-based Education (OBE) perspective of curriculum development and implementation processes (Networx, 2015:1). According to Networx (2015:1), the concept of an '**outcome**' is a means of defining learner achievements and/or desired results of learning within the context of a transformative approach to education, training and development. For Spady (2008:7), the term '**base**' clearly means ground or foundation, that is, the deep, solid layer from which a design is built or constructed. Therefore, a 'base' in this context implies five closely connected aspects, that is: defined by, designed from, built on, focused on, and organized around.

Such a combination further implies something more intense and more impactful than ordinarily being 'oriented toward' and/or 'related to' something; therefore the term 'based' makes outcomes the true foundation and propellant of an outcome-based education model (Spady, 2008:7). Accordingly, OBE refers to the process to a learning environment that supports the learning activities appropriate to achieving the desired

learning outcome (Spady, 2008:7). According to Eldeeb and Shatakumari (2013:9) and Nakkeeran, Babu, Manimaran and Gnanasivan (2018:1486), OBE is a more directed and coherent curriculum approach to learning in which decisions about the curriculum are structured content activities that can lead learners to demonstrable proficiency of a specific skills, knowledge, abilities and attitude.

Networx (2015:43) acknowledges that the outcomes-based education approach to curriculum has a number of benefits for educators and learners, and offers a strategic opportunity to improve the quality of teaching and learning; as well as supporting learners to take responsibility for their own learning and providing a means for learners to articulate the knowledge, skills and experiences they have acquired throughout their programme. In the context of an OB-focused educational system, its organisation emphasises on what is essential for all learners to be able to do successfully at the end of their learning experiences (Nicholson, 2011:1).

The implication is that the process of learning experiences should start with a clear picture of what is important for learners to be able to “do”, then organising the curriculum, as well as instruction and assessment to ensure that learning ultimately occurs.

4.4.1 Seminal Tenets/Principles of the outcome-based approach

The philosophy of outcome-based education remains the foundation of a curriculum, as outcome-based education starts by designing the outcomes to be achieved by the end of the educational process and then describes the knowledge, skills and values learners should acquire and demonstrate during the learning experience (Eldeeb & Shatakumari, 2013:9; Nakkeeran et al., 2018:1486). This means that outcomes are the basic unit of the specificity of those learning aspects relating to actual tasks that a learner must be able to perform in relation to the specificity of level (unit standard), learning area (content) and learning programme (curriculum/course) (Mkhonto, 2007:257).

The outcome-based approach to learning is characterised by the following three aspects (Nicholson, 2011:1):

- an **explicit statement** of learning intent expressed as outcomes reflecting educational aims, purposes, and values;

- the **process or strategy** to enable the intended learning to be achieved and demonstrated (i.e., curriculum, teaching, learning, assessment and support and guidance methods); and
- **criteria for assessing learning** in alignment with the intended outcome/s. Similarly, Johari and Noor (2014:41) state that the OBE approach to curriculum development and implementation is characterised by the following:
 - it has programme objectives, programme outcomes, course learning outcomes and performance indicators;
 - it is objective and outcome -driven, where every stated objective and outcome can be assessed and evaluated;
 - every learning outcome is intentional, with outcomes that must be assessed using suitable performance indicators;
 - programme objectives which consist of abilities to be attained by learners' attainment within 3-5 years after their graduation;
 - programme outcomes address knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be attained by learners;
 - course outcomes must satisfy the stated programme outcomes; and
 - it is centred around the needs of the learners and the stakeholders.

Since of its inception, outcome-based education has progressed to cover Outcome- and Competency-based education (Morcke, Dornam & Eika, 2012:852). According to Networx (2015:1), the competency factored has introduced the learner-centred approach to curriculum. In that regard, the next section below examines the learner-centred approach, which takes more responsibility for knowing learners' individual abilities and creating an environment in which learners can learn.

4.4.1.1 Learner-centred education, training and development

In its theoretical context, the learner-centred approach emanates from constructivism and the belief that learning only occurs when learners are actively involved in the process of knowledge construction (Maheshwari & Thomas, 2017:85). In a constructivist environment the learning process is equally as vital as the outcome, as the problem drives the learning and learners learn in a specific context to solve the problem rather than solving the problem as an application of learning (Romanovs, 2016:3).

According to Romanovs (2016:3), this characteristic of the constructivist learning theory emphasises an important factor, namely that the problem context of learning must be realistic and within the scope of tasks the learner considers relevant for his/her future benefit. Such an orientation upholds that learners and their ability to achieve the learning outcomes of a learning programme (Eldeeb & Shatakumari, 2013:9; Networx, 2015:1). The learner-centredness implies that the learners' needs are prioritised, with learners' consciousness of competencies expected to be demonstrated at the end of their learning.

This approach is flexible enough to adjust to a learner's strengths and weaknesses, so that learners are given enough time to attain proficiency (Eldeeb & Shatakumari, 2013:9). Manqele (2017:20), affirms the learner-centredness and result-orientedness approach to education and training, which builds on the notion that all learners need and can achieve their full potential. The term, 'learner-centred' describes a concept and a practice in which learners and teachers learn from one another and it is a universal shift away from instruction that is primarily teacher-centred (Madhak, Kundaliya & Road, 2013:3).

The notion of learner-centredness emanates from the revolutionary premises of different psychologists and educationists supporting the transition from the traditional teacher-centred mode, with the primary focus on empowering learners to take more responsibility for their own learning and ownership of their learning in order to enhance their learning experiences and goals (Maheshwari & Thomas, 2017:85). In essence, the focus of a learner-centred approach, is on the learner's individual heredity, experiential perspectives, background, talents, interests, skills and needs (Networx, 2015:58).

Therefore, it is important for instructors to remember that outcome-based training and education premises on learners and their ability to achieve the learning outcomes of a learning programme as the application/transfer of the newly acquired knowledge, skills and attitudes in the workplace (Department of Defence, 2011:2-3).

According to Madhak et al. (2013:3) and Nicholson (2011:1), the move from 'teacher centred ness' to 'learner centred-ness' implies two main shifts, namely:

- a **shift** from simply thinking about *what* is taught, to *how* and *why* it is being taught (what/how/why are the three words that should be at the top of our concerns when engaging with teaching/learning); and
- a shift from thinking about teacher performance, to the **learning processes** through which the students should go in order to learn effectively.

Furthermore, Weimer (2013:1) outlines the characteristics of learner-centred learning:

- Engages students in the demanding task of learning, which generally leads to a more positive attitude towards what is being learnt, and improves learners' motivation and understanding at a deeper level and therefore, new knowledge is retained better.
- Includes explicit skills instruction for the purpose of involving learners in the learning process for them to apply their knowledge to emerging challenges, and helps learners to integrate discipline- or subject-specific knowledge in the learning process.
- Encourages students to reflect on what they are learning and how they are learning it.
- Motivates learners by giving them some control over learning processes, so that they can understand their learning strengths and weaknesses and feel self-directed in their knowledge quest.
- Encourages collaboration with other learners.

Nicholson (2011:2), states that the OBE paradigm can be achieved if educational/training institutions are managed, based on the four below-mentioned four principles, namely: clarity of focus on outcomes of significance; design down from ultimate outcomes; high expectations for high level success; as well as. Expanded opportunities and support.

- **Clarity of focus on outcomes of significance**

Clarity of focus on outcomes of significance entails a clear focus on the ultimate learning results educators desire for students; continuously sharing, explaining, and modelling that clear focus with them from the very beginning of any learning experience; as well as keeping all instruction and assessment directly aligned and consistent with that desired result (Macayan, 2017:6). This means that outcomes must

be pre-determined to guide the teachers and learners in defining and clearly stating the focus of the course in advance so that teaching, learning and assessments can be consistently focused on a particular standard that applies to all learners' attainment (Macayan, 2017:6).

- **Design down from ultimate outcomes**

Design down from ultimate outcomes entails systematic development of the curriculum experiences back from the ultimate, desired end of putting in place, and keeping in sight the enabling skills that provided a clear pathway (Saint, 2020:5). This level is crucial in deciding the kind of knowledge required, topics to be covered, the level of understanding desirable for learners to achieve, and how it is to be displayed.

- **High expectations for high level success**

High expectations for high level success involves the establishment of consistent employment of high expectations regarding every student's ability to eventually reach those ultimate learning results qualitatively (Macayan, 2017:6). Furthermore, there is an insistence that no student is to be 'written off' as incapable of learning successfully. This principle requires that all learners should have access to the curriculum to ensure performance from all learners for the learners to meet desired learning outcomes set for a course by the curriculum successfully, and consequently enable them to demonstrate outcomes at higher levels (Macayan, 2017:6).

- **Expanded opportunities and support**

Expanded opportunities and support involves expansion of the number, range, and kinds of opportunities students are given to learn and ultimately demonstrate their learning successfully (Hejazi, 2015:409). This requires for time be viewed and used flexibly, and not as a calendar and schedule-bound descriptor of the educational process. In this regard, training institutions ought to encourage students to become deeply engaged with the learning process in order to create possible ways to enhance learners' success (Hejazi, 2015:409).

4.4.2 Applicability/Relevance of the outcomes-based education approach to the study

The outcome-based approach can be used to transform the MPD training in order to eliminate the current shortcomings. Therefore, if applied correctly, they can create a

learning environment that supports the learning activities, suitable to achieve the effectiveness of the training. The predominant focus of this study is on the critical exploration and analysis of the effectiveness of MPD training. In the context of this study, the applicability or relevance of the OBE approach in this study lies in its learner-centred approach as part of curriculum design. Accordingly, the real focus is on determining how MPD trainers and their trainees find a learner-centred approach to achieve effective training and learning.

As supported by Manqele (2017:33), the MPD trainers could benefit by pursuing a learner-centred approach in terms of which process is as important as product; focusing on the trainee MPOs' questions and interests, providing interactive learning; building on what the trainees already know and trainers helping learners to construct their own knowledge while working primarily in groups. As supported by Fosnot (2013:np) and Maheshwari and Thomas (2017:85), the MPD trainers could benefit by enabling or fostering a learning environment in which their learners are at liberty to raise questions about their learning, and to interpret and defend their ideas and strategies.

Furthermore, and as supported by Manqele (2017:26), the MPD trainers could benefit by exposing the trainee MPOs to participate in a variety of class activities and interact with one another to ensure that they are involved in higher-order thinking skills such as analysing, synthesizing and evaluating. This type of learning enables learners to reflect on their learning and the processes involved, which demonstrates that effective learner-centred instruction and facilitation is both an art and a science and focuses on both learning and the learner (Manqele, 2017:37).

The observation and personal experience of the researcher as an MPD Accreditation Officer/Quality Assurer has been of great value insofar as determining the extent of the MPA Instruction Number 11/00's compliance or non-compliance with any known curriculum, practices, perspectives or orientations. As a training guide or manual, the MPA Instruction Number 11/00 does not show any specific approach to be followed when conducting training. According to the South African Police Service (2021:6), OBE means that training is designed and developed to focus on what the learner might be able to do. Therefore, each of the ETD solutions must have a particular outcome in terms of what the learner must be able to do in the workplace.

In terms of the South African Police Service (2019:4), the ETD solution means any structured learning activity associated with the curriculum implementation, leading to the achievement of a particular qualification, unit standard or organisational standard. With relevance to the current study and the MPD, the Australian Army (2018:8) upholds the perspective or approach that skills, knowledge and attitudes in the military context are defined in terms of skills as the ability to carry out a function; knowledge as the awareness or cognisance of information; and attitude as opinions that influence action. The next section presents and discusses the competency-based approach to curriculum development and implementation. This approach is part of the learning theories that constitute a central tenet of the current chapter.

4.5 THE COMPETENCY-BASED APPROACH

The curriculum must enable learners of all ages to acquire competencies for the effective uptake of opportunities and for effectively addressing challenges across fast-changing and sometimes disruptive 21st century development contexts (Marope, Griffin & Gallagher, 2017:7). According to Rychen (2016:3), competence is defined as the ability to meet complex demands in a particular context successfully through the mobilisation of knowledge (cognitive, metacognitive, social-emotional and practical, skills, attitudes and value).

In this regard, competence becomes the acquired output to demonstrate a task. In essence, this definition by Rychen (2016:3) means that, without competence, learners cannot demonstrate an understanding of the knowledge and thinking that underpins the action. For this reason, the discussion on competencies is relevant to this study. Competence is based on the idea that performance can be directly observed (Mkhonto, 2007:248). Competencies encompass knowledge, skills and behaviour/attitude, all of which are required for an individual to perform the functions attendant to a position or designation effectively (Sasidhar, 2019:30).

According to Sasidhar (2019:31), the fundamental principle of the competency framework is that a job or task should be performed by a person who has the required competencies (knowledge, skills and behaviour/attitude) for the job. Therefore, the essential role of a curriculum is to provide a structure conducive to the provision of quality learning, articulate the competencies necessary for lifelong learning, as well as the competencies needed for holistic development (UNESCO, 2016:13). To this effect, Marope et al. (2017:10), state that the power of a curriculum in fostering the learning

system is recognised in efforts to articulate competences considered relevant to emerging contexts of changing demands in the labour market.

4.5.1 Competence-based-approach

A competence-based approach (adopted from OBE) describes the outcomes relating to a specific job, and does not focus on the learning method thereto (Erasmus et al., 2021:347). Furthermore, Morcke, Dornan and Eika (2012:852) believe that a competency-base-approach equips learners to respond effectively in complex situations, and continuously expand the depth and breadth of the requisite competencies with more efficiency. The MPOs (post- training) need a wide array of learning opportunities to practise acquired competences and knowledge to allow them to function effectively and efficiently.

Erasmus et al. (2021:9), explain that the competence-based approach is described in terms of the three below-mentioned elements which form the standards and both knowledge specifications and evidence requirements:

- elements of competence: an action that a person must be able to demonstrate;
- performance criteria: statements against which the performance of an individual is measured; and
- range statements: statements which define the range or breadth of competence required for the individual to be considered occupationally competent.

The first step towards a competency-based-approach is to identify relevant and desired field competencies to guarantee success (Le Roux, Popescu, Koops, Kantola, Barath, Nazir & Andre, 2017:1252). A competency-based-system equips all learners with meaningful experiences and opportunities for powerful learning at every stage of development, prepare learners for the world of work, and supporting interests as they gain real work skills and experiences (Patrick, 2021:27). Furthermore, Erasmus and Scheepers (2008:269) indicates that competence-based training is explicit, with measurable standards of performance which are outcomes-based, reflecting the precise expectations of performance in a work environment.

If the new way of the competence-based approach is implemented, training becomes multidimensional, directing the trainer to think of work roles and to plan training that crosses traditional job barriers (Erasmus & Scheepers, 2008:69). Eventually this

places the focus on outcomes rather than on inputs. Kauffman and Kauffman (2016:3) allude that besides gaining technical skills and disciplinary knowledge in competency-based education, learners should learn how to construct, process, and apply fundamental knowledge by using constructivist/ cognitive strategies, analytical reasoning and problem-solving skills in authentic learning environments (Ruslin, Mashuri, Rasak, Alhabsyi & Syam, 2022:235).

This implies that it is imperative that training should be relevant and that the curriculum content also reflects real-life issues so that learner acquire knowledge, skills, values, attitudes to solve any situation encountered in everyday life and across the world (UNESCO, 2017:10). Kabombwe and Mulenga (2019:21), elaborates further that an outcomes-based education type focuses on “what learners should know at the end of their schooling career, what learners must be able to do, and what do learners need to feel or believe”

Consequently, a competency-based curriculum capitalises on competency-based learning which focuses on understanding the concepts, skills and attitudes which in turn calls for changes in teaching, learning and assessment approaches (Woods, 2008; World Bank, 2011; Kabombwe & Mulenga, 2019:21). The conceptual learning model of the competency-based-approach is summarised below as Figure 4.2.

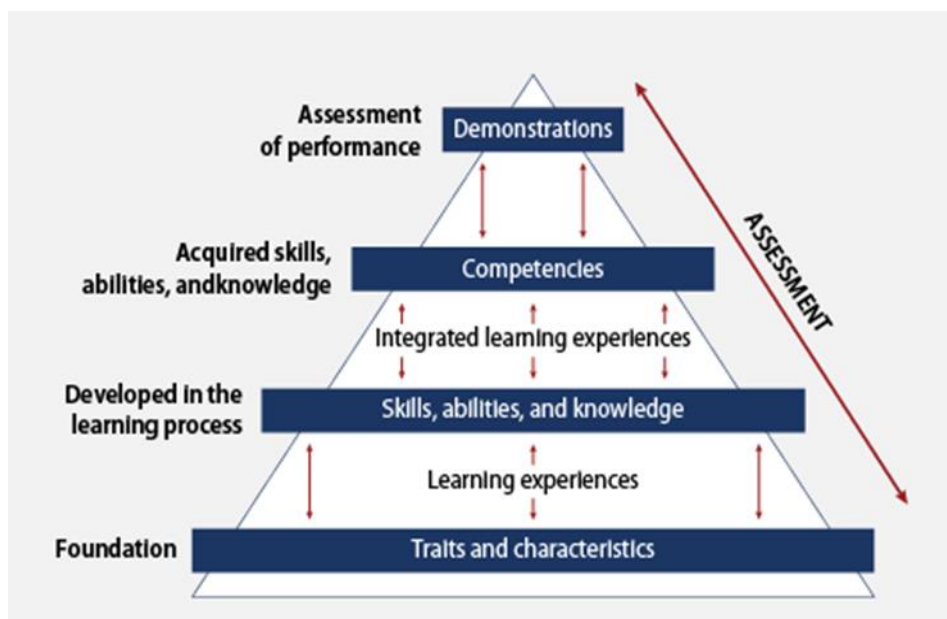


Figure 4.2: Competency-based education and training approach
(Source: Obwoye, 2016:54)

Figure 4.2 above illustrates the four foundational levels of the pyramid of the competency-based approach. Zuva and Zuva (2020:141) explain that a competency-based approach starts with an occupational standard that has been developed and assesses the profession or occupation on the basis of knowledge gained from practicing experts in the sector. The second level, according to Obwoye (2016:54), comprises skills, abilities, and knowledge developed in the learning experiences.

Zuva and Zuva (2020:141) believe that the second level is the crafting of competencies of the occupation which are carefully selected on the basis of proficiency schedules. Obwoye (2016:54) states that competencies are placed in the third level, and reflect the outcomes of the learning experiences. As illustrated in Figure 4.2 overleaf, assessment constitutes the final level. Zuva and Zuva (2020:141) state that learners are assessed in accordance with the competencies and the information given during the occupational standards development. According to Obwoye (2016:54), assessment of a competency-based approach is deeply embedded at all stages of the learning process in order to provide students with guidance and support toward mastery.

Therefore, vital knowledge is used to support the performance of skills in a competency-based approach. According to Kim (2015:283), the competency-based approach is characterised by a mapping of the curriculum to achieve competencies that are often linked to workforce requirements defined by employers, and by the curriculum-defined specific knowledge, skills, and abilities designed to equip learners. The next section focuses on the MPD curriculum. It should be mentioned that the trajectory pursued in the section is that of the current and ideal state of the MPD curriculum in the context of the various curriculum approaches and attendant learning theories presented from Section 4.2 to Section 4.5.

4.6 THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION CURRICULUM

In this section, the curriculum of the MPD is presented and discussed in the context of the MPD corps competency; the MPO's Basic Programme; content of the MPO's Basic Training Programme; as well as MPO's Investigation Programme. In that regard, the MPD serves as the central or fundamental curriculum tenet from which the various programmatic competencies are referred in relation to the broader functions of the curriculum concept.

4.6.1 Overview of the military police division corps competency

Competencies are determined by the occupational roles, responsibilities and complexity of duties outlined in the job descriptions (International Atomic Energy Agency, 2020:6). The formulation of competencies within the police environment is vital to establish a common set of police tasks and competencies across the Department of Defence, which can be used to create assessment and selection techniques and tools, and also establish common practices and terminology for recruitment, performance management, workforce planning, training, and employee development (US Department of the Interior, 2020:2). Ideally, the MP official should have the same competencies as the SAPS, since the MPD adopts the same SAPS policing training.

Currently, the MPOs do not have written MPD core competencies. However, there is a draft of MPD corps competency which was compiled, but not implemented (MPD, 2006:1). An example of the list of competences found in the draft of the MPD Corps Competency includes problem-solving, assertiveness and listening skills (MPD, 2006:7). These competences/skills are considered essential and should be included in the curriculum, since they entail knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes (Marope, Griffin & Gallagher, 2017:19). De Fruyt, Bockstaele, Taris and Van Hiel (2006:569) state that the profession-specific attributes should be described in terms of competencies, reflecting a broad range of skills and qualities that are necessary for successful job performance. Table 4.2 overleaf illustrates the required MPD proficiency level scale definitions by grade level (MPD, 2006:5).

Table 4.2: MPD proficiency level scale definitions

Rating	Description
1	Basic – able to apply basic concepts and methods, but requires assistance. Demonstrates a sufficient understanding of the particular competency to be used in the work place, but requires guidance. Tasks or work activities are generally carried out under direction.
2	Proficient – able to apply concepts and methods independently. Demonstrates a sound level of understanding of the particular competency to adequately perform related tasks, practically without guidance. Work activities are performed effectively within quality standards.
3	Advanced – able to apply more advanced/complex concepts/methods. Demonstrates high level of understanding of the particular competency to perform fully and independently related tasks. Frequently demonstrates application that indicates profound level of expertise. Can perform advisor or trainer roles. Work activities are carried out consistently with high quality standards.
4	Expert – Is a specialist in the field; can assist/coach others.

(Source: MPD, 2006:5)

The grade level proficiencies are vital in guiding curriculum developers to articulate the alignment of a curriculum based on proficiency levels that would be relevant to well- defined learning groups to acquire knowledge and skills deemed to be essential to their application of learned knowledge and skills at their level (Nevenglosky, Cale & Aguilar, 2019:35). According to Morcke, Dornan and Eika (2012:856), the competencies of someone who has successfully completed a learning programme should be at least equivalent to the prescribed learning outcomes. The best overall MPD training curriculum must provide learners with the necessary tools to become the best MPOs.

Therefore, the curriculum developed for MPOs is very important to the MPOs' success in their chosen career paths. The MPD curriculum is the ETD document that describes a structured set of learning objectives, outcomes, learning experiences, instructional resources and assessments for a specific MPD training discipline, and aims to present an articulation of what learners should know and be able to do (MPD, 2006:5). This provides trainers with the required knowledge, skills and experience to fulfil their tasks in order to achieve the training goal. Most of the MPD training curriculum current being used at the MP School are compiled from the SAPS learner material and contains elements that are part of a unit standard.

It is to the advantage of the Department of Defence for the curriculum to include all aspects, or as many as possible in the curriculum as this leads to consistency within the Department's Education, Training and Development system (Xabanisa, 2010:51). According to the observations by the researcher, the characteristics of the MPD training curriculum lie between an outcome-based-approach and competence-based-approach. The mandated curriculum for recruits, crime prevention officials and investigators and the training specifications in these programmes need to be linked to a learner's ability to perform certain core functions of the profession. These functions represent the knowledge, skills, abilities and underlying behavioural constructs required for minimum competency as an MPO (Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards, 2012:7).

According to the South African Department of Defence Instruction Trg/00004/2001 (2005:8), the curriculum content of all formal learning programmes shall be based on approved Department of Defence ETD doctrine. The definition of a doctrine is the accepted description applied in the Department of Defence, the fundamental principles by which the military forces guide their action support of objectives and it is authoritative, but requires judgement in application. According to the South Africa (2014:23), the Defence Training Doctrine is defined as the core principles by which the Department of Defence guides its training efforts in support of its objective.

The Department of Defence ETD doctrine has yet to materialise, and there is no signed document superseding this Department of Defence Instruction Trg/00004/2001. For this reason, the existence of the DoD's Education, Training and Development doctrine as a curriculum guide underpinning the MP Division Training/SANDF curricula is questioned. The question arising is: *Since there is no ETD curriculum, what has determined the training in the SANDF for the last 20 years?* Esterhuysen (2014:35) believes that most ETD matters do not exist within the SANDF's Education, Training and Development as implementation processes are outsourced, which means that the SANDF does not rely on their own educational capacities, which is a noticeable challenge induced by the lack of academically qualified managerial staff.

Furthermore, Esterhuysen (2007:164) believes that the management process for the development and dissemination of a new doctrine within the SANDF is very bureaucratic, and the more bureaucratic a process is, the less room there is for

professional criticism. According to the UK's Development, Concepts and Doctrine Center (2014: xxxv), military doctrine is essential for providing a handrail of commonly agreed and understood principles and procedures that are particularly helpful in chaotic situations and help bring coherence to decisions being made. Without doctrinal bases, evaluation is subjective and unguided.

Mulenga (2019:4), points out that the source of curriculum deficiencies is from institutions where curriculum decisions are championed by curriculum lay people with very little expertise in the field of curriculum studies. According to UNESCO (2016:13), there should be a well-considered and contextually appropriate curriculum development plan that allows for expert input, technical elaboration and consultation. The essential role of the curriculum is to provide the structure for quality learning and to articulate the competencies needed for lifelong learning, as well as the competencies needed for holistic development. The following section presents the MPOs basic programme curriculum. Examining this basic programme could assist the researcher to determine whether such a programme is appropriate, effective, and relevant for the training of the MPOs.

4.6.2 MPOs basic/ foundation programme

The effectiveness of the curriculum depends not only on the knowledge and skill content, but also on the methods used to convey that content to the learners, instructional and the evaluate the instructional materials (UNESCO, 2016:13). The MPO basic/foundation programme curriculum represents the first step in a lifelong commitment to professional learning in the military.

It is important to understand the type of recruits who attend the MPO Basic Training as it is designed to grade ranks for the MPOs. A Private/Amen/Lieutenant Seaman/Sub-Lieutenant within the MPD needs to fulfil MP duties on the basis of the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes (MPA 16, 2014:ii). These recruits either come from civilian life and are selected according to their curriculum vitae and have passed the SANDF medical examination and then completed the basic training of their arms of service, Army, Air Force and Navy Armed Forces. Alternatively, they are recruited at some point from other arms of service already employed by the Defence. Therefore, the prerequisite for the background, the member must have completed his basic service training.

The MPOs basic programme is grounded on policing practices, and forms the foundational structure of the MPO's learning. In addition, this basic training programme is of 21 weeks' duration, and provides MP recruits with the essential knowledge and skills needed to carry out MP duties within the SANDF and to deploy operations inside and outside the borders of South Africa. The core knowledge and skills are the foundation of the learning areas, which provides the specific knowledge, skills and abilities the trainees should acquire in MPO Basic programme (MPA 16, 2014:ii).

4.6.2.1 Content of the MPOs' basic training programme

The current MPOs basic training programme curriculum consists of 543 hours of training, which excludes times for administration matters and sport. Table 4.3 below displays the content of the functional training areas of the MPOs basic programme.

Table 4.3: MPOs basic training functional areas, practical/observation and assessment by hours

Area	Hours (Theory)	Hours Observation/ Practical	Hours Summative (Theory)	*Obs/ Practical ¹
Combat training phase Humanitarian law of armed Conflict Please support operations	6hrs 11hrs 20min	10 hrs	1hrs 20mins 1hrs 20mins	N/A 4 hrs
Firearm control Act Use of firearms in a military and law enforcement environment 9mm R4	46 hrs 40mins	9mm- 2hrs 40mins R4 – 2hrs 6hrs 40mins 6hrs 40mins	2hrs	2hrs 2hrs 40mins 6hrs 40mins 6hrs 40mins
Combat orientation PR 24 baton legal aspects Traffic Combat orientation Basic computer CAS D-Profile	6hrs 40mins 14hrs 24hrs 12hrs 40min 46hrs	40 hrs 6hrs 40mins	1hrs 20mins 2hrs 1hrs 20mins 2hrs 11hrs 20mins	11hrs 20min 8hrs 6hrs 40mins
Client/Community service Centre (CSC) Manage a csc Receive and attend complaints Manage detention of custody	11hrs 20mins 14hrs 22hrs 40mins		1hrs 20mins 2hrs 1hrs 20mins	
Crime investigation Docket admin Fingerprints	11 hrs 20mins 10 hrs		1 hrs 20mins 1 hrs 20mins	4 hrs 40mins

¹ *Obs= Observation

Area	Hours (Theory)	Hours Observation/ Practical	Hours Summative (Theory)	*Obs/ Practical ¹
Giving evidence in court	10 hrs 40mins	6 hrs 40mins	2hrs	
Crime scene management	11 hrs 20mins		2hrs	
Domestic violence	19 hrs 20mins		1 hrs 20mins	
Specific crime	4 hrs		1 hrs 20mins	
Statement/Confession			1 hrs 20mins	
Crime prevention				
Intro to crime prevention	5 hrs 20mins		1 hrs 20mins	
Community policing	11 hrs 20mins		1 hrs 20mins	
Sector policing	8 hrs 40mins		1 hrs 20mins	
Crime prevention Approach/ Techniques/Planning	12 hrs		2 hrs	
Law aspects				
Military law	12 hrs		1 hrs 20mins	
Criminal law	14 hrs 40mins		1 hrs 20mins	
Criminal Procedure Act	10 hrs 40mins		1 hrs 20mins	
Law of evidence	11 hrs 20mins		1 hrs 20mins	
Human rights	9hrs 20mins		1 hrs 20mins	
Statutory law	4 hrs 40mins		1 hrs 20mins	
Total modules	<i>Total: 366 hrs</i>	<i>Total: 81 hrs 40 mins</i>	<i>Total: 49 hrs</i>	<i>Total: 47 hrs 40 mins</i>

(Source: Curriculum 700 MPA 16, 2014:ii)

Table 4.3 illustrates the MPO basic programme curriculum's notional hours in respect of its 29 modules. All modules are formally assessed, and the learner should pass them all in order to complete the MPO programme successfully. The practical comprises 81hours and 40 minutes of observation, with a check list used for various assessment items. These practicals form part of the 21 weeks in Table 4.3, with 49 hours devoted to theory (summative), and 47 hours and 40mins devoted to observation/practical assessments, using a percentage score to depict 'competent' or 'not yet competent'. Recruits have one re-assessment if they are found to be 'not yet competent'.

Each learning area includes a statement of its structure and specific objectives to be achieved during each lesson. Fletcher and Chatelier (2000:iii-14) explain that training objectives are defined in terms of what learners are be able to do pertaining to skills, what they might know in terms of knowledge, and the attitudes they might display after completion of the learning programme. The words 'objective/specific outcome' within the DoD are used interchangeably as synonyms. According to Fletcher and Chatelier (2000:iii-14), the objectives are derived directly from the skills and knowledge required to perform the job.

The overall outcome based on this MPO basic programme curriculum, according to Curriculum 700 MPA 16 (2014:ii), is that on successful completion of the course, the learner should be able to:

- demonstrate his/her ability to perform Military Police duties;
- demonstrate his/her ability to correctly handle first information of crime;
- be able to effectively manage the Client Service Centre;
- familiarise himself/herself with the principles of the International Humanitarian Law and Law of Armed Conflict; and
- familiarise himself/herself with the principles of minimum force and the handling of the baton.

Development and evaluation of learning is unlikely in the absence of specific training/ learning objectives, relevant system design (Fletcher & Chatelier, 2000:iii-14). In this regard, the curriculum must contain detailed assessment approaches, methodology used and assessment criteria in order to ensure consistent execution, assessment, evaluation instruments and methods must be directly linked to outcomes (Xabanisa, 2010:52). According to Mkhonto (2007:256), the South African revision of outcomes subscribes to broadly-defined non-behaviouristic inclinations in terms of key generic skills and knowledge, such as the ability to understand a task theoretically, apply skills and knowledge to a task, and transfer them to another context.

Outcomes become an integral component of learning by complementing curricular content and learning methods (Masilela, 2014:34). However, the MPO basic programme is not fully detailed, while the assessment criteria and critical cross field outcomes are not documented. It is impossible to ensure quality in the ETD system if the syllabus is not consistent in design, layout and according to customer specifications. It is also impossible to guarantee quality as each outcome must be linked to the assessment criteria to be assessed in order to determine learner competence.

According to SAQA (2016:4), assessment criteria premisses on the descriptions of the standards used to guide learning and quality of evidence against which learners are to be assessed. In this regard, the question that arises is: *How do the MP School assess their learners?* The Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards (2012:6)

indicates that the objectives are tested through performance assessment. Critical cross-field outcomes (CCFOs) are derived from education, training and development outcomes and are an additional mechanism through which coherence is achieved in the learning framework (Masilela, 2014:34).

Any person undergoing education, training or development should necessarily demonstrate these qualities at the end of any education, training and development initiative. After completion of any education, training and development initiative, the trainee should be a good communicator, able to solve problems efficiently, work effectively with others in a team and be organised and able to manage him-or herself effectively, amongst other competencies (Smit et al., 2011:91). These are the outcomes deemed critical for the development of lifelong learning capacity (SAQA, 2005:18).

According to Bellis (2002:23), training that excludes critical cross-field outcomes or any understanding of reasons why such training is applicable and necessary does not contribute to personal development. According to the Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards (2012:6), military policing refers to all law enforcement occupational classifications enforced by MPOs under the military statutory documents. In this regard, the mandated curriculum for the recruits and the training specifications in the MP training programme must be linked to a learner's ability to perform certain core functions of the profession as these functions represent the knowledge, skills and abilities and underlying behavioural constructs required for minimum competency as a law enforcement agency.

Required functions are derived from the job task analysis (Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards, 2012:7). The Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards (2012:13) further explains that job task analysis prescribes the identified skills and abilities needed by police officials to perform efficiently as law enforcement officials. Furthermore, the Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards (2012:8) expounds that job task analysis is the first step when designing the curriculum, since essential job functions in the job task analysis are translated into worker requirements and eventually amended into training objectives subject to theoretical and practical assessments.

4.6.3 MPOs' investigation programme

This curriculum is designed to equip the MPOs (rank: Lance Corporal/ Able Seaman to Major/ Lieutenant Commander) with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for the execution of investigations in a competent and professional manner (MPA, 2014:B2). The investigation programme consists of one residential phase of 12 weeks that learners attend at the MPS continuously (MPA, 2014:B2). Table 4.4 below presents the specific outcomes of the MPOs investigation programme attended during the residential phase for certain modules to be completed by trainees/learners in order to achieve certain specific outcomes.

Table 4.4: MPOs investigation programme specific outcomes

Investigation programme	Specific outcomes of the MPOs investigation programme
Criminal law	The learner must be able to explain and discuss all theory concerning criminal law.
Criminal procedure act	The learner must be able to explain and discuss all theory concerning the criminal procedure act.
Law of evidence	The learner must be able to explain and discuss all theory concerning law of evidence.
Human rights	The learner must be able to explain and discuss all theory concerning human rights.
Statutory law	The learner must be able to explain and discuss all theory concerning statutory law.
Defence act & MDSMA	The learner must be able to explain and discuss all theory concerning Defence Act and MDSMA.
Crime scene management	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning crime scene management.
Docket administration	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning docket administration.
Inquest docket	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge skills concerning an inquest docket.
Statements	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning statements.
Identification of specific crime	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning the Identification of specific crimes.
Management of exhibits	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning management of exhibits.
Investigative interview	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning interviews.
Witness protection	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning witness protection.

Investigation programme	Specific outcomes of the MPOs investigation programme
Tracing resource	The learner must be able to explain all knowledge concerning tracing resources.
Missing persons	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning missing persons.
Information gathering and Interpol	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning crime information gathering and Interpol.
Informer handling	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning informer handling.
Surveillance	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning surveillance.
Pointing out	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning Pointing Out.
Identification parade	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning an identification parade.
Giving evidence in court	The learner must be able to explain and demonstrate all knowledge and skills concerning giving evidence in court.

(Source: Curriculum 700 MPA 08, 2016:3)

Curriculum 700 MPA 08 (2016:3) documents the specific outcomes of the MPOs. After completion of the MPOs investigation programme, the learners might be able to have and induce a positive attitude and the knowledge and ability to be an investigator (MPA 08, 2016:H-1). The Curriculum 700 MPA 08 (2016:D-1) further stipulates that all learning must be to incorporate the specific outcomes in the functional and operational environment of the learner.

This can be achieved by means of practical outcome- based scenario problem solving models and the best method of training might be man-to-man training during physical practical demonstrations (MPA 08, 2016:D-1). The exit outcome of this programme is to equip the learner with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes required by him/her as a Military Police Investigator for the investigation of cases usually received by a Military Police Region Office HQ, Area Office and Detachment (MPA 08, 2016:3). According to European Lifelong Learning (2012:1), good specific outcomes focus on the application and integration of acquired knowledge and skills, and show the way in which the described knowledge and skills can be used by the learner after they have completed the module or programme.

According to SAQA (2015:1), a learner acquiring this qualification should have skills and knowledge to: use investigative principles and techniques, interview persons, gather and collate information, understand and apply evidence handling and collection techniques, present evidence and demonstrate recovery techniques. The learner obtaining this qualification should also be able to enhance service delivery to the internal and external clients that would endeavour to enhance satisfaction and trust.

Qualified learners would be able to exercise their investigative responsibilities in accordance with the Constitution of SA, as well as relevant legislation and this learner might be able to: apply legal prescripts to an investigation, interpret and present information in order to solve a crime or incident and apply investigative methods and techniques within a structured scenario. The researcher has drawn a few inferences by analysing the exit outcomes. The MPOs investigation programme exit outcome is based more on acquiring knowledge, while the second unit standard emphasises the day-to-day applications.

The common omitted component of the MPD curriculum is associated assessment criteria for exit level outcomes, which makes it difficult to compare the MPD curriculum with the original unit standard as most of their policing programmes are articulated from unit standards. The reason for the incomplete approved curriculum could be that within the MPD, there is no one appointed to maintain training. What the researcher has observed over the past 14 years as an MPD officer who worked at the MP school, is that the MPD has no document that explains who regulates the MP School and its courses as the designated training authority, and who sets the standards.

The result is that any trainer at the MP School can be appointed to produce a curriculum without writing skills and competencies. According to the researcher, this may indicate that trainers set the standards when they compile the curriculum. Moreover, the MPD lack a dedicated office for setting standards and designing curricula. Therefore, the question needs to be asked whether these curricula are questioned and evaluated to ensure refinement and good standards.

4.7 SUMMARY

This chapter essentially presented discussions concerning the MPD training initiatives within the context of predominantly known curriculum theories and learning

approaches. The discussion was initiated by exploring the diverse conceptualisations and approaches related to the term 'curriculum'. The chapter further discussed prominent learning theories in the form of behaviourism, cognitivism, humanist, connectivism, constructivism, experiential learning, transformative learning, workplace learning; as well as the outcomes- and competency-based learning approaches as appropriate learning strategies to underpin and support effective training.

The concept and principles of outcome-based education was expounded as the foundation of a specific curriculum and led to a discussion of OBE as a learner-centred approach. The researcher explored the above as they relate to the training and learning process of the MP Division training. Also presented and discussed were a discussion of the view of knowledge presupposed by the various learning theories, an account of how the theories enhance learning and learner motivation, and some of the instructional methods promoted by the respective learning theories.

Six assumptions of andragogy were explained, illuminating how adults learn best and their attitudes towards learning, which led to a discussion of the learning theories that contributed to adult learning, namely experiential learning, transformative learning and workplace learning theories. The presentation of the various learning theories is vital in the study as it addresses preferred learning methods since learners differ in terms of their learning requirements. The concept of competence was explained, which led to the exploration of the competence-based-approach.

The MPD curriculum was also discussed in respect of the discussion of the MPD curriculum, brief overview of the MPOs' basic programme curriculum and the MPDs' investigation programme curriculum was necessary to explore the structure of MPD training in the knowledge and skills. At the end of this chapter, the discussion of the overall specific outcomes for the investigation programme was also presented. In this study the specific outcomes are likely to assist the researcher to determine the effectiveness of these outcomes when it comes to application of the outcomes, because the goal of the outcome should be to promote the application thereof. The next chapter presents an overview of international and local police best training practices. International and local best practices highlight the organisational strategy and standard procedures guidelines.

CHAPTER 5: AN OVERVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL AND LOCAL POLICE BEST TRAINING PRACTICES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The phrase, 'best practices' has its origins in the 1970's, it grew out of manufacturing interest and implementation of benchmarking (Johnson & Christen, 2020:2). Benchmarking is defined as the process of identifying the best practice in relation to products and processes, both within and outside of the industry. In this study, the best practice is within the policing sector, with the objective of using the best practice as a guide and reference point of improving the practice of one's own organisation (Johnson & Christensen, 2020:2).

The term best practice means a standard or set of guidelines that is known to produce good outcomes if followed (Osburn, Caruso & Wolfensberger, 2011:6). The best practices are related to how to carry out a task or configure the dynamic body of knowledge, they are drawn from existing police capacity building and are supplemented by lessons learned from other countries (Bonilla, DeMure, Riano-Domingo, Manley, Sevilla & Warner, 2011:21). International and local best practices highlight the organisational strategy and standard procedures guidelines (Smit et al., 2011:91).

According to Dogutas, Dolu and Gul (2007:1) there are different practices in police training in different parts of the world in terms of their content and length, therefore even the policing philosophy differ from one country to another. The definition of philosophy that suits this study is the definition of Carlies Lamont as documented by Balbian (2019:2) which defines philosophy as "*the firm attempts of resolving men to think through most fundamental issues of life, to reach reasonable conclusions on first and last things to suggest worthwhile goals that command the loyalty of individuals and groups*" (Lamont & Boduszynski, 2020:45).

While the definition of term police training is considered as a training programme that systematically and purposefully develops skills and capabilities in order to professionally manage citizen contacts, especially in conflict situations, and operational situations, and to cope with acts of aggression against the police (Korner

& Staller, 2019:25). According to Fullan (2003:58) the best practice's intention is to handle and improve rules. Papadakis, Kyridis, Pandis and Zagkos (2012:149) believe that the best practice is implemented with the dual objective: to record how the training programmes in other countries international or local are structured.

Furthermore, the best training practice is based on the aim to improve an institution's educational services (Papadakis et al., 2012:149). In this study, the researcher examined police practices of the following: Military Police United Kingdom (MPUK) (UK), South African Police Service (SAPS) by comparing their strengths and weaknesses and showing their similarities and differences, a comparative analysis of the MPD training, United Kingdom Royal Military Police and the South African Police Service's strengths, weakness, similarities and differences would be presented followed by a summary. The researcher might give clarity on the question: *What are the international and local best policing training practices?* The researcher's intention is to make appropriate recommendations for better military policing training benefiting from the best practices of this country.

5.2 AN OVERVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL AND LOCAL BEST PRACTICES IN POLICE TRAINING

Nor, Mohamed, Mohamed and Hassan (2020:35) intimate that an analysis of the best practice is conducted to identify better solution for relevant guidance to enhance the effectiveness and accessibility of current and future mandatory training. The definition of the best practice should meet the following criteria: effectiveness; efficiency; and relevance (World Health Organisation Regional Office for Africa, 2017:6).

Osburn et al. (2011:6), perceived best practice as the successful initiatives which have a demonstrable and tangible impact on improving people's quality of life. Therefore, as a requirement for the legislated standards, best practices are utilised in order to maintain excellent quality as a possible alternative; and could be precisely based on accurate self-assessment (Smit et al., 2011:91).

The Michigan Commission on Law Enforcement Standards (2012:13) suggested that, in order to promote an effective and meaningful practical advice and guidance to develop the military programme, both the military police experience and civilian policing experience should be combined to bring connectivity between the relevant job

tasks so as to identify the best practices. Kleygrewe, Oudejans, Koedijk and Hutter (2022:2) posit that the diversity of best training practices in law enforcement might explain the vitality of the cross-cultural police training.

On the other hand, similarities and differences between international and local training practices highlight the diverse contexts in which law enforcement educates and trains police officers. The diversity in training practices encompass a wide range of solutions to training problems found in law enforcement (SAICA, 2020:np). In the following sections of this chapter, the researcher presents the effectiveness of the best practice police training.

5.3 EFFECTIVENESS OF THE BEST PRACTICE POLICE TRAINING

Before dwelling on the best practice police training, the question would be: What exactly qualifies effective training? Mensah, Agyemang, Acquah, Babah and Dontoh (2020:87) suggest that training is regarded as being effective during proper training of learners, which includes all the needed resources in order for learners to achieve the expected results on time and through a systematic monitoring process. Effective training helps learners apply their acquired information to their workplace, a process known as the transfer of learning.

Training effectiveness refers to the learning support and learning transfer during training. Learning from best practices in training from other agencies can assist the MPD see their own strengths and challenges in training more clearly. At the very least, law enforcement agencies can learn that they are not alone in certain problematic aspects of training, and can be invited to join other agencies to try and find improvements or solutions (Kleygrewe et al., 2022:2). The significance of the training cannot be ignored in delivering the needed knowledge and capabilities. Therefore, the training should be effective enough to attain these objectives (Johari and Noor (2014:41).

According to Mollahoseini and Farjad (2012:1), training effectiveness relates to a measurement of observable changes in knowledge, skills and attitude after training has been conducted. Manna and Biswas (2018:217) explain further that training effectiveness is fundamentally a determinant and evaluation of the level to which training enhanced the learner's skills, knowledge and behaviour. Accordingly, training

is effective when it meets certain criteria, such as the output of training results, additional knowledge acquired, ability to remember, and ability to practice (Umar, Tamsah, Mattalatta, Baharuddin & Latiefr, 2020:1031). Manna and Biswas (2018:217) clarifies that training effectiveness is a series of factors which are conducted on different levels of training, pre-training, during training and post training.

5.3.1 Pre-training

Pre-training entails factors including training needs analysis, analysis of actual tasks, organisational analysis including staff analysis, and ensuring a conducive learning environment, which includes attention to the timing of training and the way the training design is developed or constructed to match the particular needs of the learners (Lin & Shariff, 2008:299).

5.3.2 During training

During this phase, trainees should be motivated in order for them to benefit from the training (Lin & Shariff, 2008:299). It is important to follow the appropriate didactic principles derived from learning theory. For example, training programmes with an experiential component are usually more effective than training programmes that do not use this approach, which essentially entails the specificity of learning objectives (Lin & Shariff, 2008:299).

5.3.3 Post-training

Lin and Shariff (2008:299) assert that the post-training stage entails the crucial element of managerial reinforcement (training support) after initial training. In their study, Ismail, Sieng, Abdullah and Francis (2010:3) noted that the post-training supervisory support is crucial for the transfer of training. Research by Gyimah (2015:137) indicates that a supportive environment has tremendous impact on training transfer of learned skills, including support from the immediate supervisor. Furthermore, Salas, Kraiger and Smith-Jentsch (2012:82) posit that 7% to 9% of skills acquired in companies are due to formal training, and the rest of the skills emanate from on-the-job training.

The best way to determine effective training is by understanding the reason for the implementation of the particular training programme (Punia & Kant, 2013:153). Training effectiveness is premised on the attainment of the desired objectives and

goals in relation to expected results (Punia & Kant, 2013:153). The objective of conducting research on the best training practice effectiveness is important because it could shed light on many aspects, such as training structure, training methodologies, training programmes presented at different levels of the police official, objectives of each training programme, as well as training management.

Effectiveness is premised on both the degree to which the desired output is reached, as well as the degree to which the planning is followed. As such, effectiveness is reflective of the comparison between the desired output and the actual achieved output. Punia and Kant (2013:153) posit that the reason to conduct and implement training is a key factor in determining that training should be effective in achieving the desired outcomes. Therefore, an analysis of effectiveness involves taking into consideration the relative importance of the objective or results (OECD, 2019:9).

Kirkpatrick's (2016:1) model of training evaluation is significant in explaining the training effectiveness, reaction, learning, behaviour and learning outcomes (Manna & Biswas, 2018:111). Interpol (2012:4) describes Kirkpatrick's (2016:3) four (4) consecutive evaluation levels for measuring training effectiveness with "reaction", which evaluates the degree of participants' favourable reaction towards the training programme. The second level is focused on "learning", which evaluates the extent to which the learners acquire the intended knowledge, skills and attitudes. The third level is characterised by measuring the "behaviour" of learners training transfer after the training course, the ability of learners to apply the learning skills acquired during training when they are back on the job, as well as problem solving during skills and knowledge transfer.

The fourth level is premised on "results", which evaluates the targeted outcomes that occur as a result of the training event and its subsequent reinforcement. Kirkpatrick (2016:1) sought to stimulate those responsible for training and development to increase their efforts to evaluate training and development activities. The reason for evaluation is to determine the effectiveness of a training programme. Therefore, when an evaluation is conducted, it is hoped that the results would be positive and satisfactory (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006:3). The application-style of training delivery can accurately simulate the real work situation are factors affecting the effectiveness of the police training best practice.

Other training evaluation factors include, but not limited to, the failure to define business outcomes based on the inability to differentiate business needs and outcomes (Ahuja & Singh, 2019:107). Furthermore, the evaluation factors should be linked to training, and planning, which relates to the inability to pinpoint the precise success criteria and the training needs to be satisfied (Ahuja & Singh, 2019:107). In that regard, Bonilla et al. (2011:19), indicate that factors affecting training effectiveness for the best police training practice could be feasible when there is imbalance in training and capabilities would render the police training ineffective.

In this regard, the effectiveness of the best police training practice of another country such as the United Kingdom might deliver ineffectiveness training if it contradicts the MPD training, particularly when training follows different system (Bonilla et al., 2011:19). For a country such as the United Kingdom, it is possible for training and practice policy to be compromised, especially in the event of these training systems differing from the training methods employed by the MPD (Bonilla et al., 2011:19). Consequently, if the United Kingdom's best police training practices fail to address the complexities of MPD training, such failure could engender disagreements regarding the true essence of effective police training.

Therefore, adopting another country's best police training practices could produce inconsistent training outcomes when it conflicts with MPD training. It then becomes necessary for MPD training to evaluate the effectiveness of such practices. This evaluation is crucial for determining whether the best police training practice is realistic and effectively contributes to the professionalism of MPD training (Ahuja & Singh, 2019:107; Bonilla et al., 2011:19). In the next section, the researcher presents the efficiency and relevance of the best police training practice in the next section.

5.4 EFFICIENCY OF THE BEST POLICE TRAINING PRACTICE

Efficiency could be defined as a measure of the number of resources required to produce a single unit of output or achieve a specific outcome (Griffiths, Joshua, & Tatz, 2015:3). In addition, efficiency is viewed as the extent to which the use of existing resources is maximised (Griffiths et al., 2015:3). Beardwell, Holden and Claydon (2004:321) state that many police training institutions often use inappropriate training practices, which can be both costly and time-wasting, both of which result in little

improvement in the performance of the employees. Minimising cost might also affect the efficiency of the best practice of police and compromise the desired results of the best police training practice (Olubukunola, 2015:1).

5.5 RELEVANCE OF THE BEST POLICE TRAINING PRACTICE

Relevance of the best police training practice arises once there is a gap recognised by the country that has to benefit from the best training practice nationally (Neyroud, 2016:180). The best police training practice assists in bridging the gap of the training delivery to a standard approach, which is critical for effective exchange and make use of information between police forces (Neyroud, 2016:133). Therefore, the best police training practice is important for identifying similarities and differences between police training and to fill the gap based on differences in police training (Deverge, 2016:8).

Furthermore, police training practice should meet the standards recommended in the Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998). On that note, part of the training programme should be the implementation of firearms training, which has already been conducted by the MPD and the SAPS to an agreed set of national and international standards on the use of firearms in the military and law enforcement environment (Neyroud, 2016:133). Another important factor to be considered when analysing the relevance of the best police training practice is the appropriateness of the particular police training practice intended to benefit from the improved standards or training practice (Kleygreve et al., 2020:265).

5.6 OVERVIEW OF THE ROYAL UNITED KINGDOM MILITARY POLICE

It is important to understand that Military Police structures existed within the British Armed Forces, and in particular, the British Army. The origins of the RMP can be traced back to the 13th century. However, it was not until 1812 that the Staff Cavalry Corps was formed with the creation of the Military Foot Police (MFP) and the Military Mounted Police (MMP), stationed at Aldershot with an active policing role from 1855 to 1st April 1995 when Defence cuts necessitated their disbandment (Mackinlay, 2008:83).

The Corps of Military Police (CMP) was created as a single military police organisation in the British Army in 1926, which was later re-named as the Corps of Royal Military Police (RMP) in 1948 (Mackinlay, 2008:367). The RMP derives its powers and

jurisdiction principally from the Army Act of 1955 the Queens Regulations, and Home Office legislation, in addition to intergovernmental agreements (such as the Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) and various memoranda of understanding (MOUs) when serving overseas further strengthening RMP policing powers and ensuring service-women and men can police wherever they happen to serve in accordance with British law and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 (PACE) Navy Act, Air Force Act and Status of Forces in North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), Serious Organised Crime and Police Act 2005 (SOCAP 2005:1), Geneva Conventions, Treaty of Rome and HAIG Rules (Mackinlay, 2008:365).

The Military Police personnel have similar powers to those of the Home Office Police Officers, such as powers of arrest and search, and similar in terms of safeguards for the questioning and treatment of people in custody Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary and Fire & Rescue Services (HMICFRS, 2018:11). These powers and safeguards are published in the Service Police Codes of Practice which in turn are similar to the codes of practice for the Home Office forces (HMICFRS, 2018:11). Under British law, the RMP has jurisdiction over any military or regulated person anywhere in the world (on or off duty), including civilians who are subject to service discipline while residing in certain areas abroad (HMICFRS, 2018:21). In addition, the Armed Forces Act 2006 provides for the role of the RMP in relation to the investigation of military service offences, and Section 50(2) of the Armed Forces Act 2006 part 3, including powers of arrest, search and entry (HMICFRS, 2018:21).

The RMP are an integral part of the Adjutant Generals Corps (AGC), but this is generally ignored in day-to-day practice and would normally only be seen in court-martial/unit disciplinary documentation. The RMP do not consider themselves part of the AGC, and have all their regimental insignia, customs and traditions and their unique milieu preserved (Mackinlay, 2008:362). According to Blake (2006:50), the RMP is led by an Army officer of brigade rank, titled Provost Marshal (Army) (PMA) who is appointed by the Queen in her capacity as the Chief Officer of the RMP. The Provost Marshal Army (PMA) reports to the Chief of the General Staff and the Army Board through the Adjutant General for providing efficient and effective policy, as well as developing and implementing Provost support to the Army (Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary/HMICFRS, 2006:70).

The Royal Military Police is the corps of the British Army, and the Provost is responsible to provide the necessary military police, custodial and guarding service to the Army in order to ensure military effectiveness for deployment in operational exercises in the United Kingdom and abroad (HMICFRS, 2006:7). The RMP, which consists of approximately 2,200 military and civilian personnel deployed alongside other military units throughout the UK and abroad, are responsible for policing the British Army worldwide (HMICFRS, 2018:10).

While the RMP are a separate brigade in its own right, the RMP personnel report to both senior officers in the RMP and, for non-investigative activity, to the local brigade commander or commanding officers of units to which they are deployed (HMICFRS, 2018:10). According to Buehler, Oxburgh, Zimmermann, Willmund and Wesemann (2019:53), the UK Military Police comprises three distinct organisations. Each of these three entities has its own identity and specific roles which are responsible for its own force, namely, the Royal Military Police (RMP), the Royal Air Force Police (RAFP) and the Royal Navy Police (RNP). Mackinlay (2008:362) explains that the RMP consist of six (6) separate regiments, namely:

- Regiment Royal Military Police 1 REGT RMP raised for service in Northern Ireland;
- Another company in Germany to support the 1 (UK) Armed Division providing military police support;
- Regiment Royal Military Police 3 REGT RMP (3rd RMP) supporting element, 4th Regiments (RMP) are based in the west and east of the UK. Regular component 4 RMP provides Provost Support (primarily investigative and crime-reduction services) to the Greater London and South East England military community and to provide Provost Support to 101 Logistic Brigade during exercises or operations;
- Regiment Royal Military Police 5 REGT RMP (5th RMP) for controlling convoy traffic to and from the North Sea ports through Belgium and the Netherlands to the German border. Maintains close liaison with the Belgian military police groups;
- The 6th Royal Military Police Regiment 6 REGT RMP (6th RMP), organised as a regimental training wing; and
- The Military Provost Staff Regiment, which serves the Army's custody and detention requirements.

Blake (2006:50) documented that the RMP are the police with responsibility for law enforcement within the military community and the maintenance of good order and military discipline in peacetime and on operations. They also provide support to the force, and their functions are described as having to provide operational support; prevent crime; law enforcement within the military community and assist with the maintenance of military discipline; and the provision of assistance, advice and information service to the military community and public.

In the above regard, the RMP's role is to support operational effectiveness and wider military capability in the UK and overseas in both hostile and benign environments, by contributing to the prevention and investigation of crime by persons' subject to the Service Discipline Acts (HMICFRS, 2018:12). In order for RMP to meet the expectations that are set for them, the Provost Marshal (Army) clearly define and explain those expectations, which are fully integrated and implemented through, effective systems, working practices, monitoring and checking procedures. Therefore, for this aspect of inspection, training is then viewed by the RPM as a viable assessment approach (HMICFRS, 2018:31).

To develop capacity and capability, the Provost Marshal (Army) schedules training with the College of Policing for the relevant RMP personnel (HMICFRS, 2018:6). To ensure operational success, the UK's Royal Military Police must build and maintain a sustainable, diverse and skilled workforce. A key route to achieving this is maximising the talent of UK RMP's workforce through modern learning provision and making better use of skills across the UK RMP organisation (Joint Service Publication (JSP) 822a, 2022:1). The researcher presents the UK RMP training delivery in order to unpack and determine whether the MP Division training delivery is consistent with UK RMP training delivery, in the following section.

5.6.1 The United Kingdom Royal military police training delivery

Training delivery is the provision of tutoring based on the objectives produced by the design (Joint Service Publication (JSP) 822b, 2022:6). The defence systems' approach to training is utilised prior to training, with the DSAT as merely a tool to deliver services that meet the needs of the training requirements authority (TRA) as well as the quality management standard (QMS) mandated by Defence to aid in its

use (JSP 822, 2022c:6). Following below is a process with four elements of questions that were designed:

- Element 1: Analysis. What is the requirement; is a new or amended training activity needed; and, if so, what kind?
- Element 2: Design. What should the training activity look like; who might deliver it, and with what resources?
- Element 3: Delivery. The training activity is delivered.
- Element 4: Assurance. Is the training activity being delivered correctly and does it meet the requirement? Is the whole training system fit for purpose?

Furthermore, the DSAT process is used to achieve the most appropriate training system through proper governance and management that adheres to the high standards required for training in Defence (JSP 822, 2022a:9). As such, DSAT analyses pre-training use of resources especially where capability or capacity shortfalls exist and where time imperatives or the need for concurrency demand it (JSP 822, 2022d:9). The pertinent question would be: *What is a training system?* Therefore, a training system, comprises the analysis, design and delivery of training along with the governance, management and assurance activities (JSP 822, 2022a:12).

The UK RMP employs a safe system of training (SST) within all training environments comprising of four (4) key elements, namely: safe persons, safe equipment, safe place and safe practice discussed below (JSP 822b, 2022:16).

- To ensure that all personnel in the training environment are provided with the appropriate information, instruction, and supervision;
- Ensure that trainers and supervisors are competent and given an appropriate level of supervision to be able to deliver an appropriate training for the trainees;
- To ensure the availability of the correct equipment, operated and maintained by competent and appropriately supervised individuals and maintenance and record keeping of associated training materials;
- Ensure that all risks have been assessed, recorded and mitigated as far as reasonably practicable;
- To brief all relevant personnel are fully on the implementation of necessary controls;

- To strictly conduct training practices in accordance with drills, procedures and instructions and direction; and
- To identify, manage, record and escalate cumulative risk.

The SST sets the conditions under which defence training is to be conducted, ensuring personnel are provided with the appropriate information, instruction, and supervision. This enables Defence to meet the training imperative set by the operational requirement (JSP 822, 2022a:17). In accordance with the Provost Marshal's training issues, a defined and communicated training written strategy clearly articulates roles, responsibilities, and policies that set standards, training, skill development and effective accountability arrangements (HMICFRS, 2015:18).

The Direction is a document that sets out tasks, values and standards of RMP training (HMICFRS, 2015:18). UK RMP courses reflect NATO and British Defence doctrine. On that note, NATO doctrine requires Military Police and Gendarmeries staff to possess knowledge and skills necessary to perform tasks expected to MP functionaries in a multinational environment as an individual member of a team (NATO Military Police Centre of Excellence (MPCE), 2016:21). The main educational training efforts should be directed to provide adequately trained MP staff for interoperable MP task conduction within an international setting (NATO (MPCE), 2016:21).

The HMICFRS (2006:37) posits that each part of the training cycle is addressed by staff who have an appropriate qualification from the defence police college. This system is cemented by the Defence System Approach Training, which specifically states what process is to be used for each element of the training cycle. The HMICFRS (2006:37) states further that the staff is concerned with the identification of training gaps in some elements of refresher training. Moreover, the UK RMP learning delivery is modern, flexible and learning methods are employed to meet UK Defence and learner needs (JSP 822, 2022c:1). The UK's Royal Military Police employed evidence-based methods to achieve learning outcomes and experiential is integrated into the workplace (JSP 822, 2022b:1).

Evidence-based policing is most effective on evidence-based evaluation based on practices and strategies (Le Roux, 2005:11). The RMP NCOs receive basic training as soldiers at the Army Training Center in Pilbright, who then receive further training

at the Police and Security Defense School (DSPG), formerly known as the Police and Security Defense College (DCPG) at Southwick Park where UK Royal Military Police courses are conducted (British Army Training, 2018:9).

The DSPG is the UK's centre of excellence for the provision of appropriate variety UK RMP training in line with the UK's Ministry of Defence and Service Policing strategies (British Army Training, 2018:9). Phase one training is conducted by Army Training Regiments across the country, in which a recruit progresses through the Common Military Syllabus (Recruit) (CMS(R)) to acquire basic soldiering skills, regardless of an eventual cap badge, for approximately ten (10) weeks. Accordingly, the responsibility of organising this training and setting the standards rested with a branch of the Adjutant General's staff called the Individual Training Organisation (ITO) (Blake, 2006:71).

After the phase one (1) training, the recruit became a trainee who transitioned to phase two (2) with his or her own cap-badge to receive specialist trade training. During phase two (2) training, the trainee would become a fully trained RMP (Blake, 2006:71). Every person joining the RMP should undertake Initial Police and Driver Training at the Defence School of Policing and Guarding (DSPG) for a period of 24 weeks. This would include Non-commissioned Officers (NCO), Initial Police, as well as Police Generals whose duties would include driver training police duties, law, interviewing techniques, basic forensic awareness, personal safety training with the use of baton and handcuffs (HMICFRS, 2018:32).

Thereafter, the individual training of the RMP official would still continue throughout their RMP career and that would be referred to as phase three (3) training, during which the RMP would be sent back to training schools for limited periods of times in order to develop new skills or improve existing skills (Blake, 2005:71). The UK RMPs are able to undertake further qualifications or training and specialist training courses provided by the RMP. Such courses might include Serious Crime Investigation, Crime Scene Management and Investigation, Close Protection Course or the Special Investigations Branch (HMICFRS, 2018:32).

The RMP in-house training programme, is shared with the other service police forces: The Royal Navy Police, Royal Military Police and Royal Air Force Police train at the

Defence School of Policing and Guarding in Hampshire (HMICFRS, 2018:32). Training is provided to personnel in accordance with their experience and the duties that they undertook. Officers' training lasts for 44 weeks in total at the prestigious Sandhurst Academy and this prepares them for their first posting as an RMP Platoon Commander (The Steadfast, 2021:23).

The UK RMP training delivery methodology is based on the following: Strategic decision making in consultation with the field army customer, the training being informed and dynamic in terms of updating the curriculum, and the delivery plan looking forward some three (3) years, enabling a consistency of process and practice (HMICFRS, 2006:37). HMICFRS (2018:32) explains that training is provided to personnel in accordance with their experience and duties that they undertook. Specialist training courses provided by the RMP covered areas such as Serious Crime Management of Investigations and Crime Scene Management and Investigation (HMICFRS, 2018:32).

Furthermore, the UK's RMP has a detailed written description, called a 'job specification', with an 'operational performance statement' that describes the tasks that need to be performed within that role or job, and the standards to which those tasks need to be performed and sets out the system by which training should be provided (HMICFRS, 2018:33). In the British system, trainees receive policing training, receiving theory, and are then sent out to practice in the department (Dogutas et al., 2007:17). RMP training is kept under review to ensure that RMPs are trained fully in areas that have been identified as best practices (Blake, 2006:371).

For training effectiveness, the RMP uses a central database to record training details for RMP training. This allowed managers to monitor overall training levels and effectively informed their deployment decisions and allocation of personnel to positions for which they were appropriately trained (HMICFRS, 2018:32). In the next section, the researcher discusses the UK Royal Military Police training that includes the following: Conflict management and restraint course; Personal safety training basic user course; Level 2 investigations course; Level 3 investigations course; Crime scene investigation course; Military police officers' course and Royal military police officer course, to present a clear indication of UK MP training coverage and depth, as well as to be informed on career development of UK MPs.

5.6.1.1 Conflict management and restraint course

The Conflict Management and Restraint course is designed to support and inform operational decision-making and training to improve safety during the policing of violent or potentially violent situations. It further provides the Service Police Officer the base level of assurance required for competency as a Service Police Officer when faced with a kinetic or potentially kinetic situation. Table 5.1 below indicates the conflict management and restraint course's learning areas.

Table 5.1: The learning objectives of the conflict management and restraint course

UK MP CONFLICT MANAGEMENT AND RESTRAINT COURSE
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Components of Communication;• Use of Force;• Legislation covering the Use of Force; and• Use of unarmed Defensive Tactics.

(Source: British Army Training, 2018:12)

As reflected in Table 5.1 above, the conflict management and restraint course is provided over three days to test students formatively in legislative knowledge and practical Personal Safety Principles and Techniques. Upon the successful completion of the course the Service Police Officer is qualified to use Rigid Handcuffs and Autolock baton and is authorised to utilise this equipment in the discharge of their duties (British Army Training, 2018:12).

5.6.1.2 Personal safety training basic user course

The aim of the Personal Safety Training Basic User Course is the provision of the Service Police Officer with the base level of assurance required to be able to operate competently when faced with a kinetic or potentially kinetic situation (British Army Training, 2018:22-7). A breakdown of the Personal Safety Training Basic User Course learning objectives is depicted in Table 5.2 overleaf.

Table 5.2: Learning objectives of the personal safety training basic user course

UK MP PERSONAL SAFETY TRAINING BASIC USER COURSE	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Components of Communication • Tactical Communications • Use of Force • Legislation covering the Use of Force • The Rules of Engagement • The tri-service Policy for the use of defensive tactics equipment • The National Decision-Making Model 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The hazards and risks associated with personal Management • Basic operation of the Rigid handcuffs • Proficient use of the Autolock Baton • Post-Use Procedures • Unarmed defensive tactics • The correct application of limb restraints

(Source: British Army Training, 2018:22-7)

The five-day Personal Safety Training Basic User Course is presented to the Junior Non-commissioned Officers, and aims at improving safety since the Service Police Officer is then qualified in the use of Rigid Hand cuffs and Autolock baton and is authorised to utilise this equipment in the discharge of their duties.

5.6.1.3 The L2 investigations course

The L2 Investigations Course was previously known as Military Police Investigations. Furthermore, the rank of the L2 Investigations Course ranges from Corporal to Captain. Its duration is 25 training days and it covers an extensive amount of British Civil and Military Law (British Army Training, 2018:22-2). Table 5.3 below presents the background of the learning objectives presented in L2 Investigations Course.

Table 5.3: Learning objectives of the L2 investigations course

UK MP L2 INVESTIGATIONS COURSE
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sensitive Investigations • Ethics, Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 • Evidence, Witness Statements • Level 2 Enquiry, District Courts Martial • Investigative interviewing & Crime Scene preservation

(Source: British Army Training, 2018:22-2)

The aim of the L2 Investigations Course is to train learners in the necessary skills to conduct Level 2 (Intermediate) Investigations, which are procedures that deal with crime scene investigative interviewing, cognitive interviewing and conversation

management, as well as understanding the principles of English law and the different levels of crime.

5.6.1.4 The L3 investigations course

The L3 Investigations Course was previously known as Military Police Special Investigations. The aim of this course is to train selected Officers (i.e., from Lieutenant to Captain) and NCOs from Corporal to Sergeant to undertake Level 3 investigations (Special and Serious Investigations). The course enables trainees to understand the factors that need to be taken into account when preparing case files for court submission. Table 5.4 (below) displays the L3 Investigations Course and its learning objectives.

Table 5.4: Learning objectives of the L3 investigations course

UK MP L3 INVESTIGATIONS COURSE
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Criminal Offences• Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984• Forensic Science

(Source: British Army Training, 2018:22-3)

The duration of the L3 Investigations course is 45 training days and serves as the pre-entry for the Special Investigation Branch (British Army Training, 2018:22-23).

5.6.1.5 Crime scene investigation

The Crime Scene Investigation Course qualifies personnel to forensically examine volume and serious crime scenes in accordance with the UK's National Occupational Standards (British Army Training, 2018:16). This eight-week (40 days) course provides all aspects of crime scene investigation, which equips trainees with skills and knowledge necessary for accurate crime scene documentation, as well as identifying, interpreting and recovering evidence. The course syllabus is delivered within the classroom and also presented practically in a world class mock crime scene facility. According to the British Army Training (2018:16), the training objectives of the crime scene investigations course covers the main areas reflected in Table 5.5 below.

Table 5.5: Learning objectives of the crime scene investigation course

UK MP CRIME SCENE INVESTIGATION COURSE	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crime Scene Photography • Forensic Science • Crime Scene Management • Search Methods and Techniques • Alternative Light Sources • Anti-Contamination • Trace Evidence Recovery • Recovering Cyber Crime exhibits • Identifying and recovering the deceased 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Forensic Strategies • Evidence of Sexual Offences • Fire and Arson Investigation • Forensic post-mortem • Vehicle Examination • Forensic Odontology • Fingerprints • Presenting Evidence in a Court of Law

(Source: British Army Training, 2018:16)

Trainees in the Crime Scene Investigation course are tested on theory and practice throughout the course, and the assessments cover a number of areas, namely: Photography, Trace Evidence, Fingerprints, and four (4) practical assessments are conducted on Crime Scene (British Army Training, 2018:16). The purpose of this training is to enable trainees to understand the basic principles of forensics and their relationship to the collection of evidence. Furthermore, the trainees would be enabled to record a crime scene, identify, interpret and recover evidence using the world class digital forensic equipment (British Army training, 2018:267).

5.6.1.6 The MPO course

The British Army Training (2018:17) ascertains that the Military Police Officers Course teaches commissioned military personnel on leading and managing investigation procedures to incidents or crimes committed in both the UK and international theatres of operation. It includes custody and detention, support to security, stability policing, mobility support, the powers of entry, search and seizure, and powers of stop and search. The MPO course also serves as an addition to the skills and knowledge required from the management of personnel regarding both career and welfare. Table 5.6 below illustrates the learning objectives of this course.

Table 5.6: Learning objectives of the military police ‘ course

UK MP OFFICERS COURSE	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Core Investigative Legislation • Service justice system • Civil and Common Law • Use of Incident Logbooks • Evidence Recording Processes • Detention and search of Suspects of Crime • Principles of Sexual Crime and Victim Safeguarding • Collating biometric evidence (finger-prints and DNA) • Personal Safety Training Techniques 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responding to Road Traffic Accidents and Incidents • Incident Photography and Sketch Plan Recording • Forensic Awareness • Use of Service Police Computer Systems • Management of investigations • Interview techniques • Battle Craft Syllabus • Personnel Management- welfare processes, reporting responsibilities, career development

(Source: British Army Training, 2018:22-6)

The aim of this course is to produce Royal Military Police Officers that are able to lead and manage investigations procedures to incidents or crime committed in both the UK and international theatres of operations. Its duration is 13 Weeks, and is open to 2 Lt (OF1) – Capt (OF2) with International English Learning Testing System (IELTS) Level 6 (British Army Training, 2018:22-6).

5.6.1.7 The RMPO course

The aim of the Royal Military Police Officer (RMPO) course is to produce a Military Police Officer who is able to lead and manage Provost Operations and further manage Police enquiries to Level 2. The course is open to Second Lieutenant to the rank of Captain for a duration is 60 training days (British Army Training, 2018:22-4). Table 5.7 overleaf indicates the learning objectives of the Royal Military Police Officer Course.

Table 5.7: Learning objectives of the royal military police officers’ course

UK MILITARY POLICE OFFICER COURSE
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Army organisation • Welfare and Mess behaviour • Military police organisation • Communications and operations, including battlefield circulation • Police duties including arrest and restraint techniques, Investigative Interviewing • Crime Scene Preservation and Case Management

(Source: British Army Training, 2018:22-4)

As indicated in Table 5.7 above, the RMPO course covers an extensive amount of British Civil Law & British Military Law, and teaches commissioned military personnel on how to lead and manage (British Army Training, 2018:22-4).

5.6.1.8 Incident first responders

The aim of the incident first responders' course is to teach trainees in the rank of Corporal, Sergeant and Lieutenant on how to conduct initial response's procedures to incidents or crimes committed in both the UK and globally. The course components are standardised across the British military and have been proven to work in many theatres of operations (British Army Training, 2018:22-5). Table 5.8 below illustrates the learning objectives of the Incident first responders' course.

Table 5.8: Incident first responder's learning objectives

UK MILITARY POLICE OFFICERS COURSE	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Core Investigative Legislation • Use of Incident Logbooks • Evidence Recording Processes • Detention and search of Suspects of Crime • Principles of Sexual Crime and Victim Safeguarding • Collating biometric evidence (fingerprints and DNA) • Responding to road traffic accidents and incidents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responding to Road Traffic Accidents and Incidents • Incident Photography and Sketch Plan Recording • Forensic Awareness • Crime reduction principles • Principles of first response

(Source: British Army Training, 2018:22-5)

This 10-day course provides theory and practice relating to road traffic accidents, criminal incidents in various theatres of operations worldwide, including international military exercises and humanitarian missions (British Army Training, 2018:22-5). It is essential that first responders have the skills needed to perform their jobs properly. The RMP personnel who joined the force since 2020 received an adequate level of domestic abuse and rape and serious sexual offences as well as first responder training as part of their initial training. However, those personnel who received their initial training before the year 2020 were not trained at the same level therefore they may lack the skills to respond as effectively to such incidents (HMICFRS, 2022:3).

At the end of the incident first responder course, trainees are expected to be competent at addressing the whole first response process in role-play scenarios, where actors take on the roles of victims and witnesses (HMICFRS, 2022:32). An analysis of SAPS training is important in supporting the realignment of MP Division training programmes. The SAPS training is ideal for embedding in MP Division training such as arrest procedures, criminal investigation, working within local legal frameworks, court systems, crime prevention, effective relations with local communities and riot control. The next section provides an overview of South African Police Service (SAPS) training.

5.7 OVERVIEW OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE TRAINING

In this section, the researcher outlines an overview of the South African Police Service training and further explains the vision and mission statements of the SAPS Divisional training. The programmes or qualifications of the SAPS members are designed by experts from the Human Resource Development (HRD) Division in Pretoria. The Human Resource Development Division is mandated to develop and manage skills development for all staff in the SAPS and overseeing training and development in the service (SAPS, 2021:1).

In addition, the HRD ensures that standards are set and maintained, and Education, training and development (ETD) solutions are designed, developed, implemented and evaluated in order to improve the standards of education. These solutions include learning programmes, case studies, training aids, and other learning materials (SAPS, 2019:30). The HRD further ensures consistency in the development of newly developed ETD solutions in maintaining quality assurance, and controls and outlines the processes to be followed for the approval of all internally or externally developed ETD solutions.

Furthermore, the HRD ensures that all ETD solutions are registered in the training administration system and approved by the ETD evaluation committee and handed over to the appropriate delivery component for implementation (SAPS, 2021:1).

5.7.1 The vision of divisional training in the South African Police Service

The vision of the SAPS Divisional Training is to ensure quality education, training and development (ETD) to support the creation of a safe and secure environment for all

the people in South Africa (Modise, 2010:59). Mnisi (2015:46) intimates that the SAPS vision emphasises the importance of providing education, training and development as a key aspect within the police environment to meet the challenges of changing trends in the country. It is important that organisations such as the South African Police Service ensure creative initiatives of training and development to develop all employees to fulfil their missions (Reynecke & Fourie, 2001:86). The next section presents the mission statement of the Divisional training.

5.7.2 The mission statement of the divisional training in the South African Police Service

The Mission of the SAPS: Human Resources Development Division is:

“To invest in human capital through innovative and quality education, training and development (ETD) of all employees of the South African Police Service, promoting lifelong learning, in support of effective service delivery” (SAPS, 2006:3).

The aim of the Divisional training is to continuously train, educate and develop police officers in the field of police work. This includes examination of skills in the SAPS, determination of the ETD requirement in SAPS, facilitation of knowledge management in SAPS, research, design and development of outcome-based ETD solutions, establishment and assurance of ETD quality standards, provision of basic, advanced and specialised ETD solutions, facilitation of mentoring and coaching in the SAPS, facilitation of on-the-job learning in the SAPS; as well as the facilitation of international ETD assistance and the provision of tangible ETD management support (Modise, 2010:60).

The goal of Divisional training is to ensure quality education, training and development in accordance with relevant laws and standards through developing, maintaining and evaluating standards; research, development and maintenance of learning programmes; the provision and delivery of approved learning programmes; inculcating a culture of lifelong learning; and the provision of an administrative support capacity within the training Division (Modise, 2010:60).

Therefore, when training SAPS employees, it is imperative to take into account the vision, mission and goals in order to enable the employees’ fulfilment of the strategic goals of the organisation, as well as the needs of the community. In the section below,

the researcher focusses on the South African Police Service basic training and development.

5.7.3 South African Police Service basic training

The purpose of basic police training is to enable newly appointed police officials to implement legal and policing skills to protect and serve members of communities in terms of the Constitution of South Africa, 1996 (Act No 108 of 1996). Furthermore, the purpose is to provide a more effective service that satisfactorily improves the community's safety Africa (SAPS, 2006:8).

The SAPS recruits are employed according to the South African Police Service Act, 1995 (Act No. 68 of 1995). Accordingly, the SAPS basic training is the initial first phase police training, provided by the SAPS Academy for new recruits who are former civilians. The goal is to capacitate new recruits with the necessary basic policing knowledge, skills and attitude in line with the Constitutional mandate (SAPS, 2016:9). In Europe, the basic police training is the very first type of general police education or training provided to newly recruited police members of commissioned or non-commissioned upon joining the police service (Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), 2009:11). Such training is aimed at teaching them basic police competencies.

In the SAPS context, basic police development is composed of police theory and practice, the focus of which is to train and develop SAPS recruits in three (3) phases which normally last for 21 months as stated below.

Phase One - minimum of one month in service for induction programme Academy at the police station (theory and practical), designed to “*provide an induction into the police service, as well as presenting a general introduction to policing issues*” (SAPS, 2016:10);

Phase Two - eight months training delivery at Academy (theory and practical) (SAPS, 2016:10); and

Phase Three - 12 months' field training (practical) which serves as the probation period performing operational duties under the supervised relief Commander (SAPS, 2016:10).

On completion of the basic police development training, the newly qualified police are designated to different police stations where they might be monitored and evaluated and supervised on the use of a logbook (LB). In this regard, they are encouraged to be honest with their supervisors when reporting, and in cases where there are faults in the LB, they are encouraged to indicate the faults in order to correct them immediately (SAPS, 2016:15). Centrex (2003:2) explains that Phase Three (3) is meant to assist the recruits in developing their skills.

In Phase Three (3), the recruits are expected to practice what they have learned in training, whereafter they are sent to various police stations (Dogutas et al., 2007:14). During this phase they learn about legal issues on crime, evidence and procedure, road traffic, and general police duties: this phase is carried out in the form of on-the-job training and in-service training programmes (Centrex, 2003:xi). Upon the final stages of monitoring, the logbook is then signed off and sent to the training Academy confirming that the recruit has mastered his/her policing duties. Thereafter, upon meeting all the requirements, they are directly appointed as constables.

As a government employer, the SAPS has an obligation for the effective development of its human resources, as well as to address the ETD needs in accordance with existing government initiatives (SAPS, 2019:3). The general philosophy of the SAPS training system could be summarised as learning from experience (Modise, 2010:14). Therefore, the recruits are encouraged to use discretion and professional judgment and learn from these experiences and even learn from their mistakes (Modise, 2010:50).

Live training scenarios and exercises are integrated into the critical cross field outcomes (CCFO's), which was explained in detail in Chapter Four (see Section 4.6.2). Hereafter, the researcher outlines the SAPS training programme and the duration of the training South African Police Service; the basic training exit level outcomes South African Police Service; the resolving of crime learning programme; the resolving of crime learning programme competency rating; as well as the SAPS resolving of crime learning programme delivery.

5.7.3.1 The relevance of scenarios in police training

The relevance of scenarios in police training lies in practical application, which ensures learners' understanding and fluent application (Erasmus & Scheepers, 2008:44). Training is worthless unless the police recruits are mentally, physically and emotionally prepared for what they might encounter on the streets. Therefore, reality-based scenarios increase the ability of the recruits to address the reality of unpredictable on-the-job situations in which they may find themselves (Lindgen, 2012:863).

Di Nota and Huhta (2019:10) concur that the scenario-based training is fully immersive, utilising real-world situations and an artificially constructed environment that allows the trainee to create realistic environments that develop skills for solving complex situations encountered in everyday police work met after training. Recent work by Renden and colleagues (2015:np) indicated that police officers wished for more 'realistic' training delivered in a way that is "more comparable to the high-pressure situations that officers face in the line of duty" (Renden, Nieuwenhuys, Savelsbergh, & Oudejans, 2015:17).

5.7.3.2 SAPS training programme and training duration

The first month of the 21-month training entails detailed information concerning police station deployment for three weeks post training in an SAPS Academy. The trainees are mandated to sign the Memorandum of Agreement, registration of trainees on POLMED, induction of new employees in SAPS and explanation of the Logbook use at the police station (SAPS, 2016:11).

The SAPS basic police development is based on Outcomes-Based Education (SAPS, 2007b:3). Hence, skills development within the SAPS focuses on ensuring that training is appropriately channelled, and that the basic police development enhances the skills and competencies of the recruits by providing opportunities that enhance their capabilities and competencies within the South African Police Service (SAPS, 2007:4). Furthermore, the SAPS Education Training and Development Act 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 (SAPS, 2007c:6).

The 20-month SAPS basic training areas should be viewed as a long-term change that enhances the recruits' insight in order to achieve SAPS goals. In the ensuing Tables 5.9 to 5.10, the researcher elaborates on the 20-month SAPS basic training areas and their duration as enforced in the SAPS (2016:12). In that regard, Table 5.9 overleaf displays the eighteen functional training areas presented during basic training at the SAPS Academy from the second to the fifth month of the basic training.

Table 5.9: Modules presented at the SAPS academy from months 2 to 5

SAPS BASIC TRAINING LEARNING AREA			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional Conduct • Performance Enhancement Process • Criminal Justice System • Criminal Law <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Source of law - Elements of Crime - Common Law - Statutory Law 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General Duties in Community Service Centre (CSC) • Registers in CSC • Receives & Attend to complaints • Open Case Dockets 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Criminal Procedure • Search and Seizure • Custody Management • Investigative Interviewing • Statement Taking 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fitness • Use of Force • Tactical Combat (CQC) • Use of Firearm (Z88 – Theory & Formative Assessment) • Drill (Saluting & Compliments)

(Source: SAPS, 2016:12)

Table 5.9 above depicts the modules presented at the SAPS Academy from the second month to the fifth month. Meanwhile, Table 5.10 below illustrates the seventeen modules presented at the academy from the sixth month to the ninth month of the SAPS basic learning programme.

Table 5.10: Modules presented at the SAPS academy: Month 6 to 9

SAPS BASIC TRAINING LEARNING AREA		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crime Scene Management • Criminal Procedure • Conducting an arrest • Crime Detection • Law of Evidence • Giving evidence in Court • Crime Prevention 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fitness • Use of Force • Tactical Combat (CQC) • Tactical Procedure • Use of Firearm (Z88 – Summative Assessments) • First Responder to Crowd Management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 7 Survival Principles • Use of Firearms (Shotgun/R5 – Theory, Formative & Summative Assessments) • Tactical & Street Survival Techniques • Drill (Squad & Funeral)

(Source: SAPS, 2016:12)

The duration of the Crowd Management module and its associated learning areas at the SAPS Academy is three weeks (SAPS, 2016:12). The above-cited SAPS initial training emphasises that training is an opportunity granted to employees of an organisation to acquire a qualification that could enable them to perform a specific job or function (Modise, 2010:186; Udrea, 2014:598). The next section below presents the South African Police Service basic training exit level outcomes.

5.7.3.3 South African Police Service basic training exit level outcomes

The exit level outcomes are defined as the outcomes to be achieved by a qualifying learner at the point at which he or she leaves the programme leading to the achievement of qualification (South African Qualifications Authority, 2013:4). The exit level outcomes should indicate the learner's ability and knowledge as a result of completing the qualification (SAQA, 2013:7). According to the SAPS (2014:9), the learner, on completion of the SAPS basic training, might be to do the following:

- Balance the constitutional and legal rights of individuals with the competence to legally infringe those rights in the service of maintaining a safe and secure society;
- Evaluate policing principles and their application in relation to crime prevention;
- Conduct a criminal investigation by gathering information and evidence;
- Evaluate situations and select tactical technique and skills needed to perform policing duties and maintain the safety of the self and others;
- Support a criminal prosecution by preparing documents and giving evidence in a court of law;
- Apply the principles of operation and service delivery within a Client Service Centre (CSC) in the policing environment; and
- Maintain professional conduct to enhance the principles of service delivery to the community.

In essence, the exit level outcomes mean that the learner has completed and mastered the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the training programme (Council for Quality Assurance in General and Further Education and Training (Umalusi), 2021:6). After basic training the SAPS recruits would proceed with on-the-job training under supervision of their senior members. In the following sub section, the researcher discusses the learning programme based on how to resolve crime.

5.7.4 South African Police Service resolving of crime learning programme

After completing the basic police training, other SAPS recruits are deployed in the detective environment, which results in further or continuing training. Continuing education/training is defined as the provision of various types of police officials' training to enhance police officials with updated operational skills and knowledge (Dekanoidze & Khalashvili-kyiv, 2018:15). The Resolving of Crime learning programme is a continuing education/ training programme for the SAPS, and is a key area within any police service.

This learning programme is a 12-week (60 working days) classroom-based course at any designed SAPS Academy (SAPS, 2018:2). The pre-requisites for attending the programme is that the trainee should comply with the following entry level requirements:

- Be currently working as an investigating officer; and
- Members of visible policing who are already well experienced in statement taking, crime scene management, victim interviewing and empowerment as well as suspect interviewing.

This method of recruiting ensures that members have acquired at least two years' practical experience (SAPS, 2013:9). According to the SAPS (2018:3), resolving of crime learning programme is the pre-requisite to programmes such as the stock theft and detective commanders' learning programmes. The programme is developed to equip investigation officers in the detective environment to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes to successfully investigate various criminal cases. Table 5.11 overleaf depicts the 19 modules that are presented on the resolving of crime learning programme.

Table 5.11: Layout of the resolving of crime learning programme

Resolving of crime learning program	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stress management • Functioning in a team • General principles of criminal law • Criminal procedure act • Principles of law of evidence • Investigation of specific crimes • Statement taking • Management of exhibits • Crime scene management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Docket administration • Witness empowerment • Investigative interviewing • Missing persons' role in crime intelligence • Management of informers • Tracing resources and giving of evidence

(Source: SAPS, 2018:4)

The 19 modules depicted in Table 5.11 are meant to equip SAPS investigating officers in the detective environment with the required knowledge, skills and attitude to successfully investigate various criminal cases (SAPS, 2018:1). The resolving of crime learning programme ensures that professional detectives are available to perform effective resolving of crime responsibilities and better service delivery to the community's safety.

This in turn, might enhance economic growth and the successful investigation of crime that would contribute to the trust of the community and the stakeholders within the criminal justice system (South Africa, 2007:187). The resolving of crime learning programme reflects the workplace-based needs of the investigation environment to perform the relevant roles in the resolving of crime. The resolving of crime learning programme contributes to upholding the Constitutionally guaranteed human rights, and the protection of life and property in a safe and secure environment (South Africa, 2007:187).

Upon completion of the programme, learners are able to exercise their investigative responsibilities in accordance with the Constitution and other relevant legislation. The resolving of crime learning programme could be applied in various contexts. For instance, in the economic environment for investigating commercial crimes, as well as security in the context of society (South Africa, 2007:187). According to South Africa (2007:187), criminal tendencies are determined by the desire of the individual, the opportunity that exists to commit crime and the market that creates the need for the resolving of crime.

The concepts entailed in the Resolving of Crime learning programme should enhance service delivery to the internal and external clients in order to enhance their satisfaction and trust. In order to ensure standardised monitoring of the progress of the learning process, the learning programme competency rating is formulated as a guiding method for evaluating the delivery of the Resolving of Crime learning programme (SAPS, 2018:31). It is imperative that trainees are declared competent upon completion in order to ensure they have successfully completed this learning programme (SAPS, 2018:31). The next section below presents the Resolving of Crime learning programme competency rating and programme delivery.

5.7.4.1 Resolving of crime learning programme competency rating

The competency rating of learners is as follows: knowledge questionnaire 50%, observation checklist 70% in the assessment, and end-product 70% in the assessment. The final declaration of competence for completing the learning programme is based on the following summative assessment considerations or criteria: six written assessments, one integrated practical assessment crime scene, and two end-products namely, criminal case and inquest docket (SAPS, 2018:19).

On completion, learners should be able to utilise investigative principles and techniques, interview persons as part of gathering and collating information, understanding and applying evidence handling; as well as collection techniques, presenting evidence and demonstrating recovery techniques. Upon completion of resolving of crime learning programme, the learners should be able to apply legal prescripts to an investigation, interpret and present information in order to solve a crime or incident, applying investigative methods and techniques within a structured scenario; as well as applying administrative and communication processes in relation to the resolving and reduction of crime.

5.7.4.2 The SAPS resolving of crime learning programme delivery

The SAPS Resolving of Crime learning programme's theory and practicals is conducted over 24 months, 12 of which are field training (practical). Udrea (2014:598) intimates that the purpose of continuous training is to consolidate, improve and expand current, general, and specialised knowledge and skills. On the other hand, theory in the training programme provides police officials with a broad vision and new methods

of performing their job, whereas the practical part of the training assists the learners to handle day-to-day duties in an effective way (OSCE, 2009:2).

The current approach adopted in the training and development of police in the SAPS is problem-based learning (Schoeman, 2015:70). In consultation with experts in the field of education and training, the SAPS ETDP development centre recommended the adaptation of problem-based learning as the most appropriate approach to training and development due to poor service delivery in the SAPS (Schoeman, 2015:70). According to Schoeman (2015:70), problem-based learning is an exemplary practice. In the following section, the researcher presents the Military Police Training. An explanation of MP Division training is critical to understanding the MP Division's mandate and responsibilities as a provider of training for its MP officials.

5.8 THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION TRAINING

Many law enforcement agencies around the world, including in South Africa, are in the process of transition as they seek to improve the professionalism of their organisations (Paterson, 2011:1). In this regard, Kratcoski (2004:104) declares that continuous assessment is imperative in ensuring the effectiveness and relevance of police training as part of the transition. In the DOD, MPD training is crucial since MPO have to perform certain duties which can only be achieved through specialised and effective training. Dealing appropriately with policing high-risk situations requires extensive knowledge and skills, which MPO should acquire during training.

The MPS is responsible for equipping officers with the relevant skills to successfully address whatever demands are placed on them on duty (Chappell, 2008:1). Section 31(2)(a) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) advocates that an MPO has the same powers and duties as may be conferred on or are imposed by law upon a member of SAPS when performing any police function of the Department of Defence. It is for this reason that the researcher compared the strengths and weakness of both SAPS and MP, in order to reveal and compare their similarities and differences of MPD training and the SAPS training.

In the SANDF, reference to the MPD is in relation to policing of the entire Department of Defence in terms of the Defence Act, (No. 42 of 2002). However, in the SAPS, it refers to the police and policing the Republic of South Africa as commissioned in terms

of Section 205 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act No. 108 of 1996). The MPD's basic training programme is discussed below, which enables understanding of the training performance delivery rendered during the training of MPD officers.

5.8.1 The military police division basic training programme

Basic training is defined as an institutional training and field that prepares entry-level police officials for the execution of their duties (Schoeman, 2015:69). The MPD's basic training programme is conducted through twenty-five weeks of theoretical and practical training (MPD, 2014:ii). The MP Division's basic training has two (2) distinct training design and development components. The first part of training is classroom-based instruction, delivered solely in English as the language of instruction. This component requires recruits to understand the basic aspects of law, unarmed self-defence, case administrative system, client/community service centre, crime prevention, as well as basic computer skills (see Table 4.3 in Chapter 4). The recruits spend the majority of their learning hours studying content from the various learning areas. The second component of MP Division basic training is based on hands-on training, which includes practice and scenario-based training, the use of weapons and combat orientation, as well as simulated traffic control.

In terms of police training, the MPD training has adopted the SAPS police training and education solutions to equip the MPOs with the knowledge they deserve. The MPD basic training and development learning programme is similar to that of the SAPS basic training, except that the MPD military training is unique notwithstanding that training is managed differently as indicated in Tables 5.8, 5.9, and 5.10, and in relation to Table 5.12. The inference that is drawn from the above is that the training is similar in terms of modules, however the duration of course presentation is not the same.

Pinc (2010:1) avers that police training differs in terms of duration. The MPD's basic training does not have a field training phase. It only entails practice within certain modules, which means that there is no training quality control. Once the newly recruited MPOs complete their basic training and are confirmed to be qualified and become independent. They are responsible for their own actions, and should be unsupervised to ensure the application of knowledge management and skills transfer

was accurately applied. Follow-up training should be implemented after practice and feedback have been provided in order to promote skills transfer (South Africa, 1998:1).

However, in the context of MPD training, there is currently no post-training assessment conducted to evaluate the application of theoretical knowledge in real police work environments and provision of feedback to the MP School regarding the progress of newly recruited MPOs. According to Modise (2010:42), the purpose of field training is to acquire the competences necessary to meet current and future work requirements. (Dogutas, 2007:16) pointed out that the main philosophy guiding field training is premised on the transference of training to the workplace. The OSCE (2009:10) elucidates that field training is an integral part of basic police training, characterised by its allowance of learners' application of the knowledge and skills learnt in the classroom to the practical police work.

Field training is good practice if applied correctly, and its effectiveness relies on the effective involvement of diligent field training officers (Erasmus & Scheepers, 2008:30). Furthermore, the ratio of learners should be equal to the field training officers. Therefore, if there are more learners with few training field officers, those learners would still need to work hard and improve the quality of field work upon graduation. Field training is also viewed as a reciprocal reporting mechanism to the training institution on cases where the theory does not match practice.

Furthermore, field training also assists learners to gain practical experience as they perform various uniformed police-related duties under the observation and mentorship of the specially assigned station members. These members are trained on mentoring of learners under their command, as well as directing and evaluating learners' field action (OSCE, 2009:46). The inference drawn from Tables 5.8, 5.9 and Table 5.13 in relation to MPD training is that the basic training learning applications of the theory are considered to be the most important part of incorporating training in the classroom with theory and practice within the training.

Scenarios and exercises are not prominent, especially when the formative and summative assessment are not linked to scenarios. The MP Division training continuous education/training programmes after basic training is discussed in the ensuing section.

5.8.2 MPOS' continuing education/training

According to Kratcski (2004:103), it is imperative for every police official to receive continuous education, training and development after their initial training. Continuous training and development of police officials is essential for an effective and efficient organisation (Schoeman, 2015:92). Dekanoidze and Khalashvili-kyiv (2018:15) explain that the aim of continuing education/training is to enhance knowledge and skills to work in a specialised manner. Pertaining to policing, MPD post-basic training provides continuous training development crime prevention and investigation programmes.

The crime prevention course and the investigation programme training curriculum are similar to those presented by the SAPS, except that the duration of the courses differs. Currently, the number of weeks for the crime prevention learner programme is four (4) weeks. Hence, the duration of the MPD crime prevention learning areas relating to functional crime prevention training is a total of 133 hours. According to the MPD (2016:c-1), crime prevention is intended to equip MPOs with the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to perform prevention duties and responsibilities at MP region headquarters, the MP area office, and the Detachment.

Continuous training boosts workplace satisfaction, as well as self-esteem. Accordingly, a well-trained MP Official would be prepared for immediate reaction with correct solutions to any type of situation (Udrea, 2014:601). The number of weeks for the Investigation training programme is 12 weeks. According to the MPD (2011:c-1), investigative training aims to equip MPOs with the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to perform investigative skills professionally in all circumstances.

The needs and demands of modern police training have evolved. As such, it is very important that MPD training is abreast of the best police training practices of other police agencies' police training. A comparison with other police training is to be conducted in order to be at par with the changes that modern police training requires (Blumberg, Schlosser, Papazoglou, Creighton & Kaye, 2019:1).

5.9 COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION TRAINING

The MP Division of the Royal Military Police in the UK and the SAPS have similar characteristics whose ultimate goal is to protect and serve for a secure and peaceful community. In this section, the researcher presents a comparative analysis of the MPD training, the United Kingdom Royal Military Police, and the South African Police Service in relation to the strengths, weakness, similarities and differences of each organisational context.

There are different practices in police training in different parts of the world in terms of their content and duration (Dogutas, 2007:16). Training in this regard is construed as the leading factor in shaping how police maintain their functions. Previous research has shown that education and training have a positive impact on police effectiveness. However, the critical point is how police should be trained (Duoglas, 2007:16).

The training systems of both the SAPS and the MP Division of the Royal Military Police in the UK have similar characteristics. For example, both training systems begins with phase 1 which is infantry basic training then continuous to service training. The training of the MP Division of the Royal Military Police in the UK is more of a specialisation, with investigation programme presented on different levels. According to Adeyoyin, Florence, Oyewunmi, Isau and Ayodele (2015:2), there are four (4) benefits of specialisation, namely: workers become proficient at their task because they have become simpler; transfer time between tasks is reduced; and the narrower the task is defined, the easier it is to get specialised equipment to support the task and training costs is relatively low. Work specialisation influences employee development by shaping the level of training and mentorship, skill growth, career advancement, and efficiency (Gichuhi, Gesimba & Kimani, 2020:132).

Both the MPD and SAPS training offer a similar curriculum in their crime investigation programmes, as indicated in Table 5.11. However, there is a notable difference between the two systems in terms of their investigation offerings. For the SAPS, the investigation programme includes a specialisation course specifically designed for detectives. On the other hand, it is a standard requirement for all MPD officials to undergo a specialisation course, provided that they fulfil the course's eligibility criteria.

In contrast to the SAPS, this course has specific minimum requirements that must be fulfilled by SAPS members before they can be nominated for training. These requirements include a probation period with a minimum number of years of work experience, as well as the possession of relevant skills, knowledge, and field training (SAPS, 2013:9).

It is possible for SAPS members to be assigned to the detective service immediately after the probation period (SAPS, 2018:2). In certain cases, members may even be placed in the detective service at the start of their probation period. Once a member becomes part of the detective service and begins working as an investigating officer in a detective environment, they become eligible for nomination to participate in the resolving of crime learning programme. The probation stage is significant for a more experience-based induction to policing (Dogutas et al., 2007:13). As such, the member can only attend the detective learning programme if he or she has already completed the Introduction to Crime Investigation course for a duration of two (2) weeks (Erasmus & Scheepers, 2008:25).

In the MP Division training programme, there is no specific requirement for a member to be eligible for nomination for the investigation programme. However, any person who has completed the Basic MPD training programme can be nominated to attend the MPD investigation programme. However, the MPD (2011:C1) documented that an MPD member who wishes to attend this programme must be an MPO or Corporal/Leading Seaman to Major/Lieutenant Commander, and appointed or staffed in an investigation post, be computer literate, undergone CAS D and G profiles, and must be able to communicate in English. The question that arises is: "What is work experience, and how does it fit as the prerequisite for an entry programme?"

Work experience is defined as the knowledge gained during workplace involvement while carrying out a particular task or duty or range of tasks or duties (Barclays Life Skills, 2015:3). The UK Department for Work and Pensions (2012:2) is of the view that participating in the world of work provides the member with an opportunity to gain practical experience and confidence that they can be valuable and productive within the work force. Tuononen, Parpala, Mattson and Lindblom-Ylänne (2015:3) state that the learners working in their prospective fields of interest perceive the work as

complementing their future study, because working within one's own future study may assist the learner to clarify future goals.

All three (3) police training agencies discussed earlier in this chapter employ a combination of traditional classroom-based instruction and practical implementation of theoretical knowledge, with a focus on learner-centered and practice-oriented approaches. While the SAPS places particular emphasis on the application of theory, their training methodology is problem-based. This approach aligns with the overarching philosophy of the SAPS training system, which emphasises the transferability of lessons learnt during training to the real-world workplace environment. After completing the training, both the UK RMP and the SAPS follow a similar practice of assigning their officials to respective departments for practical experience. This approach is based on the belief that there is no better way to enhance training than by engaging in real-world, realistic environments (Vetschera, 2012:114).

Crime prevention training is not conducted by the UK RMP since it falls under RMP General Police Duties (GPD). The GPD primarily focuses on providing uniformed support to the Army and represents a significant portion of the MP capability. While the GPD does provide a basic investigative capability, its main emphasis is on addressing crime and ensuring overall policing within the force (Werth, 2009:25). Meanwhile, Paterson (2011:np) and Van der Weele, Flynn and Van der Wolk (2017:np) have noted that policing has been more intellectually demanding, requiring police officials to demonstrate their legitimacy, accountability and professionalism, as well as critical thinking when responding to a variety of situations.

One way to achieve the above aspects is to conduct a comparative training analysis (Deverge, 2016:11). As illustrated below in Table 5.12, there are similarities and differences within the training of the UK RMP, SAPS and MP Division training. Police training system agencies have similar characteristics globally, and the ultimate goal of the police is to protect and serve a safe and peaceful society. However, the nature of policing can vary for a number of reasons; most notably, the provision of training, and this is where similarities and differences emerge (Dogutas et al., 2007:15). The researcher has compiled Table 5.12 overleaf to highlight the similarities and differences of the above-mentioned three police agencies' training:

Table 5.12: UK RMP, SAPS and MPD training similarities and differences

UK ROYAL MILITARY POLICE	SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE	MPD TRAINING
First responder course. Specialisation.	Crime scene management module.	Crime scene management module.
Problem-based learning scenario-based training, puts recruits in real-life situations, providing them with the skills necessary to assess and adequately respond to a variety of situations.	Problem-based learning scenario-based training, puts recruits in real-life situations, providing them with the skills necessary to assess and adequately respond to a variety of situations.	Traditional training.
Learner centred approach.	Learner centred approach.	Learner centred approach.
Theory learning in the classroom.	Theory learning in the classroom.	Highly theory driven in the classroom.
Field practical training, recruits sent to practice what they have learnt in theory in the departments. Practical part of training, helps officials to handle day-today duties in an effective way.	Field practical training, recruits sent to practice what they have learnt in theory in various stations. Practical part of training, helps officials to handle day-today duties in an effective way.	No standardised field training programme, training integrates both theory and practice during training.
Training is based on specialisation investigation level 1, 2 and 3.	Specialisation. Detective qualification.	None specialisation, investigation learning programme.
General police duties.	Crime prevention.	Crime prevention.
Provide forensic training capability using world forensic technology.	Out-source.	Out-source.

(Source: Adapted by researcher from British Army Training 2018:16 and SAPS 2018:4)

Training programmes need to be evaluated in order to determine the efficacy of training and development opportunities on the required core skills. Effective training in the policing environment is vital for improving the success, increased motivation and morale, and confidence of trainees (Wayne & Hess, 2004:255). Figure 5.1 overleaf reflects the researcher's depiction of the best practices training model and its desired outcomes (Wayne & Hess, 2004:255).

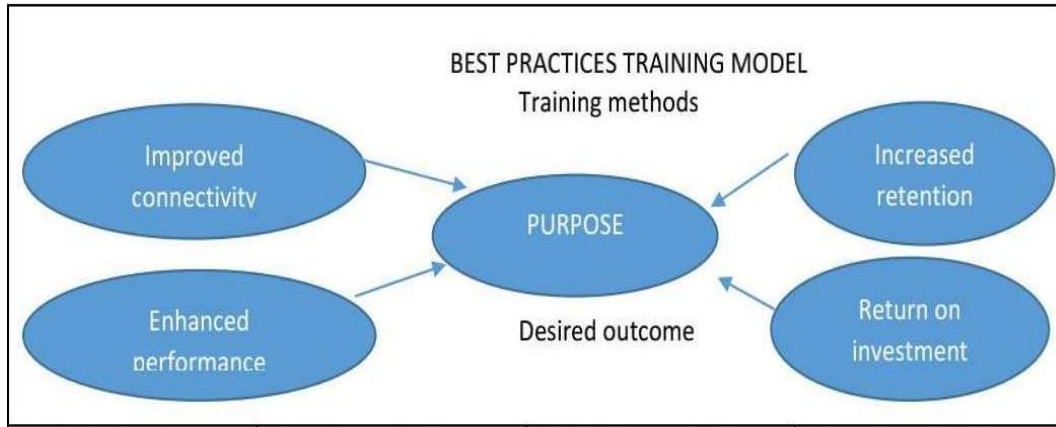


Figure 5.1: Best practices training model

(Source: Wayne & Hess, 2004:255)

The best practices training model’s methods and purposes are premised on improving connectivity, enhancing performance, as well as increasing retention and returns on investment (SAPS, 2018:4). Meanwhile, Table 5.13 below elaborates on the best practice training model.

Table 5.13: Detailed explanation of best practices training model

Training Resources	Training Methods	Training Receptivity	Desire Outcome
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Administrative support • Sufficient budget/ support trainers/ facilitators • Appropriate expertise • Trained role players • facilities and equipment • An environment conducive to learning • Safe and sufficient training activities • Full range of appropriate presentations tools • Breaks-out-areas total training package • Lessons plan, learning activities and visuals • Quality hand-outs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facility activities • Self-directed learning • Learner as teacher • Role play • Scenarios • Small group • Demonstrations & drills • Field training (FTO) • Train the trainer • games & gaming • Computer simulators • Interactive media • Simulators • Training laboratories • Case studies • Virtual realities • Flip chart techniques • Guest speakers • Lecture • Video/Audio 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student as stakeholder • Pre/Post assessment • Participate • Testing • Trying • Motivation • Performance evaluation • Practical application • Experiencing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skills • Knowledge • Tactics & safety • Attitudes • Ethics & values • Principles • Judgement • Competency • Techniques • Change through growth

(Source: Wayne & Hess, 2004:255)

The researcher summarised the components of the best police training practices as depicted in Table 5.13 above, and linked these components to the best practices training model illustrated in Figure 5.1. As individuals progress through the ranks, specialisation plays a crucial role in enabling subordinates to excel, fostering their personal growth and empowerment, and enhancing their independence, development, and confidence (Hess & Orthmann, 2012:261).

In the training environment of the UK's Royal Military Police, it is evident that individuals learn more effectively when they are comfortable and have a clear view of the unfolding events. The UK RMP provides ample space and creates an atmosphere that promotes the success of recruits, as detailed in Section 5.4.1.5 of their crime scene investigation syllabus.

This syllabus provides for training through a combination of classroom instruction and practical exercises conducted in a state-of-the-art mock crime scene facility equipped with advanced digital forensic equipment (British Army Training, 2019:22-3). The provision of a world-class learning environment for learners in the UK's Royal Military Police training programme is characterised by strong administrative support and resource allocation. The well-catered learning environment fosters a conducive atmosphere that motivates the trainees and ultimately facilitates effective and accurate learning outcomes (Henson, 2012:75). Field (practical) training is the critical factor that assists the UK's Royal Military Police to practice techniques correctly. The more tasks are assigned to the RMPs, the more proficient they become (Hess & Orthmann, 2012:218).

5.10 SUMMARY

It is crucial to explore the best training practices because the MP Division's specialised training methods are expected to render certain services and achieve certain objectives, protecting life and property, preventing and detecting of crime, apprehending and prosecuting of offenders, maintaining peace; as well as other law enforcement activities. Accordingly, this chapter provided an overview of the international and local best practices training in policing, as well as the inherent differences, similarities, and strengths to demonstrate the landscape in which law enforcement agencies organise and deliver their respective training approaches. The

need for international and local training best practice is premised on establishing the effective training practice in order to benefit all Military Police personnel and trainees. It is for this reason that the researcher explored the UK RMP for comparison with the local SAPS context.

Best training practices enable trainers to provide trainees with the necessary skills and abilities needed to be effective in the workplace organisational settings. The Royal UK MP receive basic training within a short period of time, and is complemented with department-based field training. Furthermore, the UK RMP training system has a solid theory and practical application. Meanwhile, the SAPS provides intensive basic training in order to enhance one of the best practice-oriented training for recruits.

Training programmes include a problem-based approach and field training, which enable learners to meet workplace demands without hesitation, unlike the MPD basic and investigation programme and its highly theoretical and practice-driven training in the classroom. However, MP Division training proves to be less practical-oriented as probation and field training are not in existence. The MP Division training does not provide a field phase for the newly graduated MPOs to practice, nor does it provide immediate guidance. After training, newly graduated MPOs are deployed to various MP stations to perform various police duties. The next chapter principally addresses the challenges associated with MPD training.

CHAPTER 6: MILITARY POLICE DIVISION TRAINING CHALLENGES, NEEDS AND THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the researcher explores the needs, challenges and the conceptual framework of the MPD training. Training effectiveness is the degree to which trainees could learn and apply the knowledge and skills acquired during training (Sasidhar, 2019:75). The accurate information gathered in this chapter about the needs, challenges and the conceptual framework for the MPD training is the most vital way to critically analyse the effectiveness of the MPD training.

The final/fourth objective of this study is: *“To explore, describe and analyse the current MPD training needs and challenges and also to develop a framework of practical guidelines, procedures and recommendations for the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training”*. In that regard, the chapter endeavours to respond to the research question: *“What are the current MPD training challenges and needs”* and *“What practical guidelines, procedures and recommendations can be offered to the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training?”* As such, challenges that hamper MPD training are presented, namely: MPD training policy and curriculum, training management, MPD training trainer and training environment.

The ineffectiveness of training and development of employees in the organisation reduce the organisation’s productivity. An organisation depends on the adequate skills, attitudes, and capabilities of its employees, in order to effectively reach its goals (Kum, Cowden & Karodia, 2014:1). Various aspects related to MPD training deficiencies would be explored in this chapter such as training needs, training need analysis, training cycle and training need identification which are all vital in reaching a meaningful understanding of the capacity building of training and whether there are shortfalls around the area of the MPD training.

The findings concerning the challenges of MPD training from this study would serve as a propellant to facilitate discussions based on the challenges faced by the MPD training, and the way forward for restoring the dignity and honour of being an MPO. The chapter concludes by providing a conceptual framework of practical guidelines,

procedures and recommendations for the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training. Mollahoseini and Farjad, (2012:1310) posit that well trained workforce is measured by the effectiveness of training observable in knowledge, skills and attitude after training has been conducted.

However, raising the efficiency of workers requires commitment and a reasonable approach in developing professional needs (Ludwikowska, 2008:1). In order for one to be an MPO, one needs to undergo specialised training in crime response. According to Mollahoseini and Farjad (2012:1310) a well-trained workforce is essential in maintaining an organisation's competitive advantage. Training effectiveness could be obstructed by numerous challenges, as affirmed by the Military Police School's (MP School) environmental analysis (2018) which conducted weak point's analysis. Furthermore, the revealed challenges should be used to substantiate certain factors in this chapter.

6.2 CHALLENGES THAT HAMPERED MILITARY POLICE DIVISION TRAINING

Cetron (2017:2) avers that inappropriate actions to poor performance service delivery by the police are linked to the quality of the training that is provided to police officials. Police training should prepare police officials for the future, equip trained officials with skills to act independently, and enable creative analysis. However, there are deficiencies that tend to hinder the success of the training given to police trainees, preventing the achievement of required results at an appreciable level (Mensah et al., 2020:69). The deficiencies that are likely to impede the success of the Military Police training given to police learners are: MPD training policy and curriculum, training management, MPD training trainer and training environment. The next section presents the MPD training policy and curriculum.

6.2.1 Military police division training policy and curriculum

Training policy as defined by Collins (2019:47) is a set of fixed and concise principles. Such principles provide a system on which training methodology is to be built, such as philosophy, establishment of standards, values, fundamental aims and processes through which various standards are developed and maintained. A training policy enables the coordination of dispersed training efforts and the better use of resources

and effective planning (Trutkowski, 2016:69). Collins (2019:47) mentions that training should be based on the training policy, manuals that contain operating procedures, and the instructions and supporting notes that are specific to the training concerned.

The MPD training is primarily concerned with the development of competencies and skills that transform and empower the MPO to meet the demands expectations of the SANDF profession. In addition, the MPD places a high value on MP training. However, there is only one unquestionable vision: *“to shape long-term training of MPOs”*. This unquestionable vision is unlikely to be realised under the current circumstances because the Military Police Agency Instruction (MPAI) 11/00, does not address the need to manage, implement, or shape education, training, and development within the MPD (See 3.3.6, para 3).

Sasidhar (2019:28), mentions that good training policy includes the following characteristics:

- (1) The policy should be realistic in identifying the needs of the organisation;
- (2) The policy should not only be for the sake of training, but an ongoing process;
- (3) Terms of the policy should be clear and easily interpreted for better understanding;
and
- (4) The policy should clearly mention responsibilities of individuals or departments.

Means (2007:10) believes that a training policy should provide clear and consistent guidance as to the expectations of the training and as such, empower training staff to work in ways that are organisationally acceptable to avoid disciplinary action.

The training of members within the MPD has been inconsistent, with notable disparities in different groups. For instance, from 1993 to 2007, two (2) groups were trained on crime prevention, with one group receiving both junior and senior crime prevention training. However, since 2007, training has been conducted on SAPS crime prevention learning area 5, resulting in the lack of uniformity in the training policy and inadequate knowledge of policy information. Additionally, without a mechanism in place to ensure the standardisation of knowledge between the MPS and the SAPS, the quality of training would remain unequal and inconsistent, leading the researcher to view the policy training as a deficiency within the organisation. Inconsistency in

policy development leads to an individual giving *ad hoc* modification to training. As such, a modification of in the policy training may result in a directionless lack of basic stability in training (Trutkowski, 2016:147).

The International Association of Chiefs of Police (2008:140) explained that the development of a training policy, should have several general principles, namely:

- It should be comprehensive, providing training staff with direction and guidance of all training aspects;
- It should be easy to use;
- It should be consistent with and align with the organisational philosophy on training, training requirements and applicable standards;
- Training staff should be involved in the development of the manual and kept informed of any changes;
- Staff should receive adequate training and participate in open, frank discussions about the policy and the reasons for its requirements;
- It should be considered a living document; and
- It should reflect and incorporate accepted government and national best practices.

Training policy promotes confidence and professional conduct among training staff when developed properly (The International Association of Chiefs of Police, 2008:140). During the process of “Training and education” the department of public service and administration in South Africa (1998:np) mentioned that ineffective or inconsistency policy dilemma often result into three things; namely:

- (1) Fragmented and uncoordinated approach to training;
- (2) Inadequate resources; and
- (3) No accountability to the lack of a strategic training approach as related by various training policy documents.

An enabling policy is one with a clearly defined action plan implementation that gives an understanding of how training came to fruition (Republic of Kenya, 2012:2). The reality is that training implementation strategy is an important facet of policy (Baharom, 2008:303). In some areas, policy certainty is critical to re-establishing trust and creating an enable environment for a general agreement to emerge among training

stakeholders (Economic Policy National Treasury, 2019:15). Lack of management commitment, training policy, proper implementation procedures, and motivation are all factors affecting the implementation of training programs in public institutions (Mohamed, 2013:66).

World Health Organization (WHO) (2012:5,9) mentions that implementation steps of training should be planned in advance and detailed in the instructions and material as follows: (1) the instructions are centred on trainers who manage learning contents and experiences, and (2) the material is centred on providing resources, providing adequate materials to implement a conducive learning environment. A good implementation strategy is required to effectively steer the implementation (Mandukwini, 2016:79).

Training implementation is one of the most difficult and critical activities in an organisational system due to increased susceptibility to implementation failure (Taha, 2016:1). Similarly, Kapur (2015:7) believes that the implementation of a training program plays a critical role in the achievement of organisational goals by incorporating the interests of both the organisation and its employees. The Health Policy Project (2014:1) states that there are implementation barriers in the implementation of a policy, such as a lack in training implementation strategy or policy. According to the White Paper on Public Service Training and Education, South Africa (1998:4), the purpose of the ETD policy is to provide specific guidelines regarding ETD practices and procedures.

There is an existing training policy/ instruction in the MPD (MPAI 11/00). Therefore, an articulated training policy should guide training activities in an effort to provide the best possible training to MPOs. In this study, articulation refers to articulation at the spirit level, focusing more on horizontal systematic coordination and the relation of content within training policies in order to facilitate a continuous and efficient education and training delivery system (Blom, 2016:5). It is imperative for the training policy to address the core principles of training, strategy planning, the quality and implementation of the need-based training programmes, and training relevance (Sasidhar, 2019:27). Furthermore, the training policy must portray the execution process of the policy (Sasidhar, 2019:27).

The writing style of the training policy should be concise and understandable by all personnel (Orrick, 2008:214). Therefore, it should be noted that the MPAI 11/00 does not have a source of reference. When developing the manual, each section is required to be reviewed for information from a variety of sources prior to being included into the policy (The International Association of Chiefs of Police, 2008:141). The researcher poses the question: To what extent is the MPAI 11/00 Instruction/policy is compliant with the Department of Defence Instruction No Trg/00004/2001, based on the Department of Defence's overarching ETD policy (See 3.3.5 para 1)? As a result, the two (2) policies are misaligned due to the overarching policy that is dated 2005 and the third edition MPAI 11/00, dated 2006.

The first and second editions were not archived in the MPD policy archive, making it difficult for the researcher to compare with the current MPAI 11/00. Policy documents and policy formulation without sound implementation are a waste of valuable resources such as time, personnel, and money (Baharom, 2008:303). Developing effective policies and procedures that contribute to efficient operations in the organisation are vital to the process of training members who might effectively and appropriately implement policies and procedures (Pacific Crest Group, 2012:1). MPD environmental analysis, identified that the "MP School does not receive any guidelines for development, renewal of ETD from staff functions of the MPD HQ" (MP School, 2018:54).

The Economic Policy National Treasury (2019:15) states that the purpose of policies and procedures is to create processes that are reputable and reliable, and do not require the oversight of senior management to maintain optimal operation. Using current information can enable training officers to assess the differences between the skills that are taught during training and the skills that are sought after in the same working environment. Furthermore, when information is at the disposal of those involved in the training, often better-informed decisions pertaining to training are made (International Labour Office, 2011:5). Punia and Kant (2013:155) believe that training might be affected negatively if there is less support or unfavourable conditions that are unaddressed from the higher headquarter.

Updating of the training policy should be regularly scheduled, at least annually, rather than as a reaction to an occurrence of a crisis (Hess & Orthmann, 2012:326). The

International Association of Chiefs of Police (2008:190) concurs that the entire training policy should be reviewed annually as a measure to ensure that the training policy remains relevant with evolving times. However, annual reviews are best suited to coordinate with key training personnel who know the problems of the organisation and often have the best ideas in addressing the issues.

According to Orrick (2008:215), training policy managers should ensure that the training policy is being adhered to by focusing on the following: inspecting the work that is done and that the work is done in accordance with the policy, otherwise suggesting that the policy is meaningless thus increasing the department's exposure to liability. A comprehensive police training policy would provide direction to the curriculum planners and developers to identify various issues and concerns. Additionally, the training policy provides a larger framework and space to design various activities for police training (Venukapalli, 2021:79). It is essential to update the curriculum continuously to address future challenges and requirements related to the law enforcement community (The International Association of Chiefs of Police, 2008:114).

The central idea of MP training is embedded in its philosophical assumptions of curriculum design, construction, organisation, transactional approaches and the extent of its relevance (Venukapalli, 2021:80). South Africa (2014:81) stated that all training ought to be reviewed periodically to make training more cost effective while maintaining or improving the training standard. The curriculum forms the foundation of training, alongside its administration, teaching, learning and the testing of the curriculum (Su, 2012:153). Furthermore, the curriculum of police training needs to be designed and instituted on the foundations of democratic principles, experiential learning, and education and development (Venukapalli, 2021:80).

In this context it is important to consider various guidelines when designing a curriculum. Extensive consultations with various stakeholders are necessary when designing a curriculum (Venukapalli, 2021:80). In the case of the MPD training, however, there is no sense of ownership in terms of curriculum development and updating by MPD HQ. The MPD training curriculum is not developed in consultation with relevant groups and organisations; rather, the curriculums are created by the developers who are the trainers at MP School, to which, the MPD HQ is simply

endorsed for implementation in MP schools; and the same developer also serves as quality assurance.

According to Venukapalli (2021:79) it is imperative to have very wide in-depth consultations with all the stakeholders to understand their issues, problems, and their lifestyles. As such, inclusive and continuous consultations enable the MPD to identify the areas of concern for MPD training. Mandukwini (2016:12), described the ideal curriculum process that within the framework of training and development as follows: the curriculum is determined and developed by policymakers at a higher level, to be handed to schools/training institutions by their superiors for further management before it is executed by the trainers/teachers.

Curriculum management, according to Mandukwini (2016:12), is the administrative processes and procedures involved in maintaining accurate, up-to-date curriculum information. In the study conducted by Mathebula (2018:127), one of the participants on the MPD training questionnaires, indicated that the MPD training curriculum is to provide MPOs adequate skills to enable them to function in the work environment and is thus out of date. By mentioning the irrelevance of the training, the participant implied that the curriculums are not regularly updated to align with current trends.

6.2.2 Training management

A conceptual framework to manage training as a cycle is training management (The Cambodian Gov, 2010:3). Training management is the application of the training approach system and the training principles (US Navy Marine Corps 3500.10C, 2013:1-3). Vetschera (2012:114-126) mentioned the twelve fundamental training principles that must be adhered to, for effective training management within the military are as follows:

- Training must be the responsibility of commanding officers;
- Training must be a progressive and continuous process;
- Training must have an aim and objectives, and must be measured by task-oriented conditions and standards to improve performance;
- Training must be challenging and interesting;
- Training must be focused on practice;
- Training must be realistic but affordable;

- Training and training methods must be continuously reviewed for their effectiveness;
- Training must reflect operational doctrine;
- Training must be permissive of trainer errors;
- The equivalence between military and civilian diplomas should be discussed after training;
- Education must install self-confidence; and
- Collective training should include other categories of training.

According to the Cambodia Gov (2010:3) training management is defined as the application of knowledge, skills, tools and techniques that realise an outcome to training activities. Asiah, Junianti, Lestari, Faris, Kurniawan and Juniansyah (2021:170) affirmed management to be the process of effectively and efficiently co-ordinating managerial activities. The United States Army (2017:6) states that planning, resource allocation, management, execution of training, training standards and evaluation are all comprised within the training management scope. Furthermore, training management is a function and process achieved by the utilisation of the training curriculum to achieve the prescribed goals within the organisation (Aisah, Junianti, Lestari, Faris, Kurniawan & Juniansyah, 2021:171).

Training management assists in building skills for identifying and resolving issues, determining priorities and making decisions in support of training initiatives (Army Regulation 350-1, 2017:6). The researcher observed that Wing Commanders and Branch Commanders within the MPD are placed in key training positions without having acquired training managerial skills. Line managers are responsible for the support and guidance in relation to training and development, particularly in relation to the identification of training and development needs (Wireless Group PLC, 2016:2).

The MP School revealed that the Branch Commanders and ETD control personnel fail to execute required day-to-day tasks in accordance to command and control structures, reverting to corrective measures of “*Disciplinary action must be taken against members that do not want to comply*” (MP School, 2018:40). The researcher believes that there is a deficiency in the training management of MP Schools, and that

the heads of MP School resolve to disciplinary actions to curb the deficiency, contrary to developing training management skills of managers.

According to the Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (2015:2) different stakeholders involved in the training process are required to bare sufficient knowledge related to the training cycle, to avoid yielding unsatisfactory results and failures as a result of misunderstandings between the various stages of the training cycle. Giran et al. (2014:70), pointed out factors that identify the outcome measurement of good training, namely, whether or not the learner meets the requirements of their duties, whether or not the learning event met its stipulated objective, whether the learning was implemented in the workplace, and whether or not the necessary support was given to the learner in the workplace to practice the newly acquired skills.

The MPD training must therefore prepare MPOs to enter the world of policing, of physical performance and mentally demanding military police duties at the highest possible level of proficiency (Fletcher & Chatelier, 2000:II)1). A brief discussion of the training concept should enable everyone involved in the training process to better understand their role within the training program. According to Paterson (2011:4), training involves acquisition of the skills needed to accomplish the immediate tasks and goals of police operation.

Basilio and Riccio (2017:573) further clarified that the function of police training is to empower police officials for daily execution. Training builds confidence and competence for the workplace, while providing essential skills and knowledge resulting in unit readiness (Army Regulation 350-1, 2017:2). Osse (2012:248) believed that training should receive full support from leadership and should be embedded in a broader policy and enforced in practice. Osse (2012:271) further added that a demonstrable commitment from the high headquarter management is a prerequisite to training.

Osse (2012:242) provides a guide for good practice in training as follows:

- Officials should commit themselves to implementing the training program as an essential part of their profession;

- Trainers should have some connection with the target group;
- Target groups for training and the goals of the course need to be carefully identified;
- The learning material should be practically oriented;
- Training and assessment should be a continuous process;
- Follow-up sessions must be integrated into the training program from the beginning; and
- There must be continuous evaluation of the impact of the program and revision considering identified shortcomings and new opportunities.

Poor training support could disturb the learners and hinder their learning, thus understanding the whole training support spectrum can prevent any negative results (UN-Habitat, 2013:32). Therefore, it is imperative that the intended training objectives emerge from the analysis of learning needs, current context, specific outcome, performance and process goals. The training objectives serve as reference points from which training management monitors and adjusts the planning, delivery and reflection of the training (Korner & Staller, 2019:2).

Till, Muir, Abraham, Piggott and Tee (2019:11) suggest that such planning provides a preliminary template for monitoring current developments, the adaptation of alternative training strategies and the response to training needs. In the South African Army (1994:3) it was mentioned that training must be thoroughly and logically planned and that all relevant training factors must be considered to present training in the best fashion to achieve the specific goal. Furthermore, the training preparation must be progressive, not only supporting the instructor in the presentation, but also contributing to the overall interest in learning. Military Police School (2021:08) revealed the following:

“Some of the facilitators had the knowledge but the deliverance method of the subject content was a challenge to the learners they only had to get the formative in order to understand”.

“On command and control 2 no one had demonstrated to the learners on how to present orders and create a send model and we were evaluated on things that were not demonstrated to us”.

“Facilitation was good however the other modules such as training facilitation was not presented into detail and also Command and Control 2

precis must be updated so that it corresponds with the question paper”, and the recommendation by the learners was precis must be reviewed every now and then and probably after five years for relevance of the contents of the subject”.

According to Nassazi (2013:31) well planned training consists of the following steps:

- Planned training programs that meet the needs and objectives by using the right combination of training techniques;
- Identified and defined training needs;
- Defined objectives of the training;
- Defined learning required in terms of the skills and knowledge to be learned and attitudes to be changed;
- Decision concerning provider of the training;
- Evaluated training; and
- Amended and extended training where applicable.

Ayandibu (2021:224) intimates that senior officials obtained managerial training, however, poor planning skills have resulted in their lack of vision, inexperience, and lack of specific objectives. Various attributes of poor planning are linked to poor development of objectives, knowledge inadequacy, and insufficient monitoring (Eja & Ramagouda, 2020:40). Prasad (2016:3) concurred by adding that failure in planning can also be linked to the lack experience or necessary skills required by trainers, as well as unclear and unrealistic expectations.

As quoted in the study conducted by Basilio and Riccio (2017:577) the interviewees pointed out deviation from police training as planning failure, for example, the utilisation of learners in activities as opposed to the training objectives. A conclusion made by Prasad (2016:3) was that poor planning resulted into inadequate training that may potentially harm the organisation's success. In police training, the on-going complex process of planning, is the heart of training best practice (Till et al., 2019:15). An effective quality training systems is necessary to ensure that prepared personnel have the skills needed to perform their responsibilities (Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), 2000:1).

It is also imperative that delivered formal training should be subject to formal training quality assurance procedures in the same manner as other formal training and education activities (JSP 822, 2022a:7). Even though providing training is an important activity, quality assurance activities also focus on the Defense system's attitude to the training process and the training system as a whole, including the administration of the training system (JSP, 2022b:84). Quality assurance is defined by the JSP 822 (2022c.22) as the maintenance of a desired level of quality in a service or product for the evaluation, audit, and inspection operations of the Training System.

Quality assurance (QA) is more concerned with problem definition, resolution and development of standards (Sasidhar, 2019:61). JSP 822 (2022c:22) enlightens that quality assurance reply to the questions:

- Is the training activity being delivered correctly and does it meet the requirement?
- Is the whole Training System fit for purpose? Is the requirement correct or needs review?

According to the DoD (2020b:16) quality assurance should be done in all the phases of training as follows:

- Prior to training assure education delivery;
- Ensure that there is assurance of design and development phases;
- Ensure the planning and scheduling of annual training and education;
- Quality assurance should be a continuous systematic observation of training and the quality of actual training;
- Assuring the assessment instruments; and
- The learning process and post training assurance of the product training namely: the individual, trained and educated to specification, in relation to actual expectations in the DoD workplace – thus the transfer of learning.

It is believed that QA identifies opportunities of improvement and provides mechanisms through which action is taken to make and maintain improvements (Sasidhar, 2019:61). Furthermore, Sasidhar (2019:61) indicated that quality assurance is a planned and systematic approach of monitoring and assessing the products and services being delivered.

Monitoring is the continuous systematic observation and gathering of evidence of all activities to observe the progress towards the attainment of objectives, outcomes and impacts (United Nation Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation, 2016:7). Monitoring is a vital tool that assists with the immediate identification of gaps and timely decision-making to come up with interventions to solve the problem before it escalates (Haddock, 2015:19). Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2012:152) illuminated that lack of monitoring in training impedes efforts to improve the effectiveness of the training that exists.

According to the United Nation Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (2016:10) the three (3) types of monitoring that should be used to ensure accountability of effective monitoring are as follows:

- Compliance monitoring which predetermines standards and norms and focuses on the quality of trainers, learning material and learning aids;
- Diagnostic monitoring which focuses on the quality provided by the learning in terms of knowledge, skills and attitude; and
- Performance monitoring which focuses on determining whether learning did occur.

Managerial support is significance in a training and development process (Torres & Alder, 2010:78). Watson (2010:756) reports that management that recognises training as a strategic benefit, emphasises greater commitment to the training effort, which leads to successful training.

6.2.3 Military police division training trainer

The researcher noted that the study conducted in police training indicated that trainers are more context-based. The police training includes background information about the history of the South African Police in general, its culture and structures, as well as physical capabilities. It also includes information about its roles and responsibilities, prior experience, prior knowledge, program design, curriculum, and learning activities. The intricate interplay of these factors affects the meaning that trainers convey, their ability to have an overt or covert influence on the learning environment, and their potential to have a significant impact on a framework of norms, expectations, values, and a training culture (Cushion, Stodter & Clarke, 2022:35).

According to Cushion et al. (2022:6) the above-mentioned factors may result in creating patterns of beliefs and practices in trainers developing a stronger usurping dominant police training culture. Lettic (2016:58) claims that police training is highly teacher-centred, relies on one-way information transfer, makes learners passive, and prevents the growth of problem-solving skills.

The following four approaches from the trainer's perspective that could contribute to unsuccessful training:

- (1) ineffective trainers deliver ineffective instruction;
- (2) skilled instructors deliver ineffective instruction because they lack the authority or influence to create an effective curriculum;
- (3) skilled instructors deliver ineffective instruction because learning does not apply to the workplace; and
- (4) skilled instructors deliver ineffective instruction because their effectiveness is not perceived (Bunch, 2001:145).

In essence, it is vital for the trainer to possess required training competencies. Competency is the generic essential knowledge and skills needed to be competent in the functions required for the position (Tshwane Mayoral Committee, 2011:13). On that note, Sasidhar (2019:30) explained that competencies encompass knowledge, skill and behaviour which are required in an individual for effectively performing the functions of a post. According to Sasidhar (2019:31). training is based on the duties that are to be performed and the fundamental principle of the competency framework is that "Job should be performed by a person who has the required competencies for that job".

Marowa (2014:15) identified four (4) factors that hinder the trainer's effectiveness in guiding a training program, namely:

- (1) lack of communication skills which affect the way in which trainers perform their tasks;
- (2) inadequate experience and knowledge of the content which should enable the trainer to effectively guide the learner in the training program;
- (3) imbalance between the learner's objectives and the training objectives; and

(4) the lack of professionalism by the trainer.

Various sources such as International Atomic Energy (2020:np) and Sambasivan and Wong (2013:475) define competency as a combination of skills such as knowledge and attitudes that enable an individual to perform activities of given occupation or function to the standard expected in the organisation effectively and efficiently (Gulbahar & Kalelioglu, 2015:141). The SAPS (2007:4) avers that the trainer's competence and performance critically depend on the climate of the training establishment of the ETD policy. The most significant aspect about training is that great results might be produced by those trainers who have experience, are knowledgeable, have confidence and ability to motivate the trainees and assist in the development of the individual as well as the organisation (Punia & Kant, 2013:59).

During the presentation of the MP School environmental analysis on ETD, it was mentioned that trainers who are inexperienced as ETD Practitioners are being used to present various subjects at the MP School, and that was a negative reflection on training (MP School, 2018:23). Evidence from police trainers around the world suggests that trainers' previous experiences serve as a screen through which new knowledge should pass (Korner & Staller, 2019:25). Therefore, new ideas, techniques and practices are not accepted whole-scale and changes to training come through unexpected methods or from 'irresistible forces' (Varpio et al., 2020:25).

The MP School (2018:23) further lamented that some Education, Training and Development Practitioners (ETDPs) placed at the MP School do not conform to the requirements of those posts' profiles. When trainers lack competencies, this may lead to incorrect, faulty or effective delivery of training (Trutkowski, 2016:51). Marowa (2014:14) believed that trainers who lack effectiveness are likely to fail in acquiring the necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes. Modise (2010:60) highlighted the qualities of an effective trainers as favourable attitudes, providing exciting lectures, knowledge of the subject communication skills, flexibility, enthusiasm, fairness and encouraging trainees.

The competencies that are taken as the norm within the MPD for the trainers to be in front of the class or to present is the fact that, in order for one to be accepted as a trainer, one should have the same qualifications as the facilitator, assessor and

moderator. The overall competencies do not include any qualification of the policing programme, in most cases the trainers who facilitated previous courses end up using their operational experience of being at school for 10 years, the danger of using operational experience is that in some classes the trainer might have intelligent and knowledgeable learners who are better than he/she.

According to Department of Defence Internal Draft, (2020:21) qualified and experienced instructors and facilitators shall be utilised at training providers for the various programmes/courses should be qualified at least one level higher than the programme/course that they present. Furthermore, competencies of assessors and moderators should be enforced to ensure credible judgement of competence. According to Marowa (2014:15) trainers should continuously advance their levels of knowledge to be able to adequately meet the demands of adult learners.

Meaningful learning occurs when the learner can connect to, and make sense of, what is to be learned, identify relevant knowledge and information, organise it into a coherent structure, and integrate it with another knowledge (Collins, 2019:47). Therefore, some form of guidance from the trainer is required as learning requires 'participation as well as skilful and progressive practice and instruction that shifts the focus of training from performance and assessment to skill development and learning' (Collins, 2019:47).

In essence, guidance is crucial because after training, the MP trainee is required to conduct policing duties independently under the prescripts of the South African laws. Considering training, the trainee is a major stakeholder in training programmes (Collins, 2019:42). According to the College of Intensive Care Medicine of Australia and New Zealand (2011:2), during training; the role of the trainee is to accumulate knowledge; learn to apply learned knowledge; and demonstrate to perform an action in light of the applied knowledge. Govaerts (2017:4) intimated that in order for training to be considered effective, the learner should be able to apply what they have learned during training in their job. It remains a challenge within the MPD that there is no clear career pathway for trainers.

For better understanding of lack of career pathway for the MPD trainers and to connect the reader to MPD training, the researcher first presents a definition of a trainer in

military and career pathway. A trainer, military instructor or educator in military is defined as the person who directly trains, instructs and facilitates training to equip learners with specific skills and knowledge (DoD HR Division, 2018:2). Numerous factors are unsettling the career pathway of the trainers of the MPD training, for an example promotion and cycle trainers' rotation. For some individuals, work is purely a source of income while for others their work gives them a great sense of purpose, personal satisfaction, and fulfilment (Commonwealth Department of Education and Training, 2017:1).

The Military Police School (2021:59) revealed that there is no career planning in the MPD. Career pathway is defined as the support by the employer to assist the employee to successfully achieve training to meet the needs in a manner that the employee accelerates career advancement within a specific occupation to an ultimate career goal. It could be a smaller group of jobs within a career cluster that use similar skills to climb the ladder to the next level. Career pathway allows an individual to start at a lower level, depending on one's education and experience then move higher within the department or institution (United States of America, 2013:1).

According to the United States of America (2013:1) there are, at the heart of an effective career pathway program, career ladders that describe the passageways by which an individual could ascend from entry-level to high-level jobs within an occupational area. Based on the researcher's first-hand experience as a member of MPD from 2008 to 2018, serving in various training roles such as MPOs basic branch Commander, investigation programme branch commander, facilitator of crime prevention and investigation, and accreditation officer, it was observed that there is a lack of career progression opportunities for trainers within the MPD training system.

This has become a common practice within the MPD and has a direct impact not only on the quality of training but also on the overall effectiveness of the MPD. This lack of career progression opportunities led to frustration among trainers and undermined the morale of the training department, thereby hindering the delivery of effective training. The issue of succession planning for trainers at the MP School should be addressed, as some trainers are approaching retirement age (MP School, 2018:60). Trainers are aging, about to retire and others have been at the MP School for the past 10 years and are not certain about their future career.

Career planning is done on a yearly basis with individuals at the MP School to provide roadmaps for career pathway for individuals, but this is not done holistically as it does not serve the purpose of supporting the individuals journey to an ultimately career goal. According to the DoD (HR) Division (2018:7) military instructors are to be rotated after a period of three years, and in exceptional cases of longer periods the post should be precisely defined as the requirement for a longer period. This may be attributed to lack of trainee needs analysis. The key question should be: “What is trainee needs analysis”? In the training context a need is defined as a gap between a current situation and a future situation where discrepancy exists between what is and what should be, that is, the desired state (Fraser, 2013:70).

In other words, it refers to what is indispensable or at least valuable, to the organisation or to individuals for the purpose of achieving an evaluated, appropriate objective (Tripathi, 2017:50). On the other hand, the underlying purpose of the trainee needs analysis is to understand the individual learner’s current abilities in depth, thus enabling the trainer to devise practical steps to get the trainee from their current state to the desired post-training state (UN-Habitat, 2012:14). The analysis of trainees is the important part in training as it assists the trainer to be aware of differences among trainees in order for the trainer to early diagnose individual learners as per their specific needs (National TVET Trainer Academy, 2012:37).

Trainers should address the needs of the trainees before the commencement of any training. The emphasis should not only be to establish what trainees are supposed to do but what they can actually do (Isabirye & Moloji, 2019:10). Standardised trainee needs analysis is useful in providing initial clues about the areas that need attention to develop appropriate instructional intervention (OECD, 2012:159). For example, the MP School received 23 learners resuming the program without doing the trainee needs analysis. The assumption was that all learners were able to read and write (current situation), but when the learners wrote their summative assessment one learner’s marks were below average of the expected marks.

This implies that the gap in the learner could be to read but not write. The desired state is that the MP school should provide verbal assessments for such learners. UN-Habitata (2014:14) mentioned that by understanding and doing assessments on the learners’ abilities in advance, could enhance limitation of potential barriers to the

transferring of learning from the beginning, ensure training delivery methods that can maximise development of effective training. This also helps to identify the correct and relevant learning styles for the trainees.

Learners are an important factor that play a fundamental role in the learning process, the selection of learning styles is a critical decision to avoid the effect and low rate of improvement process since the momentum reached during the training sessions would affect the entire performance (Shirazi & Heidari, 2019:1). Learning Styles have been regarded as the most important factors that control how pupils learn, classify different methods of learning and the manner of approaching the information; like acting and reflecting; vision and audition; memorising and visualising; reasoning logically and intuitively (Jaleel & Thomas, 2019:3). According to Hess and Orthmann (2012:215) the three (3) general categories of learners' preferred learning styles; are visual, auditory and kinesthetic:

- **Visual learners:** they prefer to learn by reading books, seeing words, or looking at some teaching tools (handouts). They prefer to look at the written words on the blackboard than to only listen to the teacher. In essence they like the teacher to write more than to talk more in classroom (Xu, 2011:414). Xu (2011:414) further state that visual learners might feel comfortable when a teacher uses the translation-grammar teaching approach, the power-point presentation is suitable to these learners because it presents words, and pictures or charts;
- **Auditory learners:** learn best through lectures, feel the need to speak and welcome classroom discussion; and
- **Kinesthetic learners:** want to apply what they have learnt, are hands-on, appreciate role-plays, scenarios and simulations.

One of the few things that practically everyone agrees on in both education and training is that learners have different learning styles. They learn at different speeds and have different learning needs (Reigeluth, 2012:17). The lack of such insight results in a tremendous loss to identifying and aligning the learner's potential to meet future human capital needs. As such, it is imperative for the trainer to know and understand the learning style of the learner. In that manner, training would be more productive for the trainer. Similarly, the learner is equally responsible in knowing his/ her learning

style as well, in order for the learning process to be clearer and more conscious (Xu, 2011:415).

Furthermore, by identifying the learning style used by learners in processing information, training becomes easy because learners might understand the reason why they feel comfortable in one aspect while on the other, they become uncomfortable. They should also know what they are good at and why they lag behind others in learning and allows trainers to assist them to advance toward the higher goals of training and achieve broader critical thinking and problem-solving skills (Shirazi & Heidari, 2019:2).

In this context, it is more important for trainers to understand the theories of learning style and to get to know the learners' learning style, trainers should remember that their learners' learning style cannot be the same. On that note, trainers should adapt different learning methods and they should find a balanced learning approach according to the range of learners learning style (Xu, 2011:415). According to Bhattacharyya (2013:487), if there is balance in the learning styles of the learners, all learners should be taught partly in a manner they prefer, which leads to an increased comfort level and willingness to learn.

Therefore, it is imperative that the training provided must address the real and current situation that the learners may encounter once they have completed their training. Training serves three broad purposes, namely:

- (1) well-trained police officials who are generally better prepared to act decisively and correctly in a broad spectrum of situations;
- (2) training results in greater productivity and effectiveness; and
- (3) training fosters cooperation and unity of purpose, moreover, as police agencies are now being held legally accountable for the actions of their personnel and for failing to initial or remedial training (Kleygrewe et al., 2022:33).

No new skills could be adequately learnt without extensive practice, since many of the learners currently return to the workplace with only partially learnt skills-and skills are not yet being transformed by knowledge about the effectiveness of those practices (OECD, 2012:3). Most training is primarily information-centred, background

knowledge and theory is important. Organisations and institutions look at a bigger picture when training learners. It has been proven that theory alone does not assist a learner to grow and progress to the next level, but it should be incorporated with practice. It is important for the learner to have knowledge of how to apply that understanding of the theoretical frameworks to work in practice context.

For example, knowledge without skills is tantamount to an expensive car without an engine (Wrenn & Wrenn, 2009:258). It might be pretty to look at, but it would not go anywhere, and increased knowledge alone should rarely contribute to improved performance and greater organisational results. No matter how good the training might be, if people do not see it as personally relevant, there is a low likelihood that it would substantially improve the performance. Training should be based on an analysis of performance requirements, particularly of those who should be participating in the training. Practice and feedback are the mechanisms that would ensure both competence and confidence and without them, training cannot succeed.

Training is pointless unless learners can clearly grasp how to apply the material to their own employment. In the policing context, there is what is called evidence based-policing. Although evidence-based policing (EBP) was first advocated by criminologist Lawrence Sherman in (1998), it is only recently being discussed and written about. To that effect, Rodriguez (2008:1) stated: “evidence-based policing is about training, so that services are administered effectively and consistently, innovation, efficiency, fiscal responsibility and is about what works and what does not, and it is about continuing to push for better results”.

In essence, the training of the Military Police should be evidence-based, there are many reasons why the training of the Military police must be evidence-based, and far more Military Police need to learn critical thinking skills as thinking is the key component in problem solving. MPOs without these proficiencies become part of the problem (Shirazi & Heidari, 2019:1).

6.2.4 Training environment

A comfortable, well ventilated, noise free environment with less distraction is conducive for a productive learning. MPOs would learn better in a comfortable setting where they could be able to listen and grasp without any distractions (Hess &

Orthmann, 2012:218). According to Hess and Orthmann (2012:218), learning environment refer to the context whereby learners are trained in a comfortable environment with good light to avoid depression caused by dark area; afford comfort and safety should be prioritised; the area should also be distraction free; and present an atmosphere where learners can succeed.

Involving learners in training is more difficult and time consuming and requires more teaching skill, creativity and greater depth of instructor knowledge. However, it is widely accepted that application is an integral part of the training process. The more they practice, the more they remember through trial and error. Case studies and scenarios with role playing should be included, small-group activities, field trips and individual learner performance. In other words, provision of adequate resources in order to make learning conducive to learners.

Resources refer to a stock or supply of materials or assets denoting or consisting of physical objects rather than the mind or spirit (Manqele, 2017:20). Mandukwini (2016:8), intimates that resources refer to materials that can be drawn on by a person or organisation in order to function effectively. Whereas learning resources refer to material that is needed to support and facilitate learning of the learners/trainees (National TVET Trainer Academy, 2012:108). In this study, the researcher alludes to resources such as educational logistics, including learning aids or physical training tools essential for supporting learning. According to Su (2012:156), educational logistics refer to equipment learning material, facilities and administrative tools for the delivery of training.

The environmental analysis conducted by MP School indicated that there is insufficient specialised equipment, as well as a shortage of reference learning material which is also out-dated; together with the in-service ability of lecture room equipment (MP School, 2018:31). Lack of resources namely inadequacy of financial resources, understaffed personnel, and unconducive physical facilities where learning must occur can negatively affect the achievement of the objective of learning. Kunene (2017:66), added that to conduct effective training the following must be properly drawn: human and physical resources, and conducive training venues well equipped with the required training material.

The study conducted by Hungi, Makuwa, Ross, Saito, Dolata, van Capelle Paviot and Vellein (2011:7) posited that physical resources such as a classroom and equipment enhance the quality condition of the training, hence human resource; trainers are expected to improve the quality of learning. According to Sign (2012:578) higher level should provide essential materials in order that trainers have ample time to prepare for learners and not having a divided focus to look for material which is unavailable and might not be motivated for availability. Research and development play a major role in understanding and acquiring what is required to ensure quality and conducive learning.

Quality training and education is not possible without research as quality research forms the bedrock of good quality training and education (Esterhuysen, 2007:37). The purpose of Research and Development (R&D) is to acquire new findings based on the original concepts and their interpretation (OECD, 2012:45). The R&D explores, investigates, and informs on the best options to existing problems, it enhances policy interpretation, implementation, and alignment to emerging issues and it also fosters creativity and innovativeness in the public service (Kenya ETD Policy, 2021:15). Chigozie and Chijioke (2015:31) explained that research involves the use of formal and informal processes to gather known and new information, to assist people acquire the skills important for them to perform their jobs satisfactorily, while development is about preparing employees for a change in the form of new jobs, new responsibilities, or new requirements.

According to OECD (2012:45), R&D covers three (3) areas of activities namely:

- Basic research which is theoretical work directed toward acquiring new knowledge;
- Applied research which is investigation undertaken to acquire new knowledge; and
- Experimental development which is systematic use of the knowledge acquired from research results in improving processes/products or in the development of the new processes/products.

The R&D is a necessary effort of an organisation to improve quality (Chigozie & Chijioke, 2015:31). As the importance of R&D is to acquire or improve existing knowledge the researcher believes that the non-existence of R&D in training might obstruct the flow of new knowledge. From the perspective of the researcher's personal

experience MPD R&D focuses on equipment rather than training. The MP School (2018:28) confirmed that there is no R&D in ETD organisational structure.

According to Mensah et al., (2020:53), these above attributes can be referred to as challenges that hinder police training. Since the MPD training challenges have been discussed in the preceding paragraph of this chapter, it must be emphasised that successful training interventions are most probably initiated by conducting training needs identification. Analysing what the training needs are, is a vital prerequisite for any effective training (Tripathi, 2017:50). The following section presents the concept of training needs identification.

6.3 TRAINING NEEDS IDENTIFICATION

Training needs is the tool to examine appropriate development strategies that should be used in training, and it should be linked to the organisation's strategies, goals and operational strategies, organisation vision and mission. Ludwikowska (2018:181) recommends an initiative-oriented approach to training needs where “training should be considered as a proactive process that anticipates future needs and change, and which prepares people to meet them”. Ludwikowska (2018:181) explains that the aim of the proactive approach is to assist training practitioners to learn things they do not know, build on what is already known and to contribute better-quality work and life at work.

According to Pradhan and Pradhan (2011:4) there are different types of training needs, and this need must be spelled out in clear, behaviourally oriented terms. According to Mazhisham, Khalid, Nazli, Manap and Hussain (2019:1) a training need is defined as an individual, team or organisational level requirement for skills or abilities which can be fulfilled through training, learning or development interventions. It comes from underdeveloped skills, insufficient knowledge or inappropriate employees' attitudes in their job (Mazhisham et al., 2019:1).

Furthermore, Chahal (2013:42) explains that training needs help to identify an existing training gap and the type of training that can be undertaken. Training needs is one of the main processes to develop human resource to attend an appropriate training that is suitable with their training needs thus enhance the performance in organisations (Puspita & Nurhalim, 2021:1). Human development training programmes have been

an integral part of encouraging MP Official to be a competent and skilled force that is knowledgeable and able to perform assigned tasks according to their training needs.

According to Chartered Management Institute (2015:2), there are three broad types of training needs: those which can be anticipated, those that arise from monitoring and performance appraisals and those that result from unexpected problems. It is essential to understand that over time, there might be some changes of training needs based on their career position. Therefore, different employees should have different training needs for career development (Mazhisham et al., 2019:24). South African Management Development Institution (2007:21) states that priorities of training needs vary at different levels, they can range from the following:

- Macro-level identifies knowledge, skills and professional competence shortages, skills shortages can seriously jeopardise the success of the organisation's operations and are then regarded as priorities for the training needs of that particular organisation;
- At the meso-level, organisation-wide goals and resource availability issues are examined, and determine what training is needs to increase job satisfaction and the achievement of organisational goals; and
- At the micro level, the tasks performed, knowledge and skills are examined, and decisions are made to determine what training to be conducted to enable employees to work successfully.

The diagnosis of training needs assists in identifying the discrepancies between the knowledge held by potential training/education participants and the knowledge which is deemed to be desirable for (Trutkowski, 2016:182). According to Trutkowski (2016:182) training needs may come to the fore which identify desirable issues such as planning of training activities and training-related expectation. In principle, such a diagnosis of training needs should always then be accompanied by an insightful assessment known as training needs analysis/assessment (Trutkowski, 2016:3).

6.4 TRAINING NEED ANALYSIS

A training needs analysis (TNA) is a fundamental component of all training initiatives as it enables the delivery of relevant and efficient training required for catering to the requirements of both individuals and the organization, while also being cost-effective

(Ludwikowska, 2018:181). Iqbal and Khan (2011:439) believe that the use of the training needs analysis can make a significant contribution to attain comprehensive solution varied organisational training challenges. According to Biech (2014:101) “There is nothing so useless as doing efficiently that which should not be done at all”.

In the light of the above, statement, this means that investing the resources of time, money, and people into designing and delivering a learning solution that is either unnecessary or inaccurate in its focus is wasteful and leads to disappointment and frustration. These activities should be preceded by a comprehensive training analysis also referred to as training and learning needs analysis (Erasmus et al., 2021:125). Training Needs Analysis (TNA) is a crucial factor in delivering effective training (Rezza, 2018:13). A training need analysis is a structured analysis emanating as a result of new equipment acquisition, doctrinal change, organisational change, or changes to policy/legislation.

It is a highly flexible procedure with the choice of supporting tools and techniques to suit different training systems. Furthermore, it includes an analysis of different training methods and technologies, with a view to recommending the optimum training solution to meet Defence needs and which balances cost and quality (JSP 822, 2022d:11). The Department of Trade and Industry (2002:1) describes training needs analysis as the process through which the organisation monitor its training capabilities and the main objectives of this analysis are:

- Determine current abilities;
- Determine required abilities;
- Identify any gaps between the two; and
- Identify factors about how best the training needs might be met.

Based on this definition, a TNA is done in such a way that ultimately the organisation can find out whether the problem really needs to be solved through a training program or not (Irianto, 2017:np). A training needs analysis (TNA) is an iterative process that focuses on output and serves as an audit trail for decision-making. It is closely aligned with the requirements of the quality management system, as outlined in JSP 822 (2022d:11). This process could assist organisations in efficiently allocating resources

and preventing unnecessary training activities, ultimately leading to effective resource utilisation (Puspita & Nurhalim, 2021:151).

Training needs analysis is a diagnosis to determine the current and future challenges that should be addressed with immediate effect and future challenges should be dealt with through implementation of training and development programs (Rivai dan Sagala, 2013). That is the reason, Puspita and Nurhalim (2021:151) view training needs analysis is an activity that needs to be carried out systematically to find any gaps between the knowledge, skills and attitudes of a person needed by the organisation that can be improved through training. While Mangkunegara (2015:15) mentions that training needs analysis is a systematic study of an educational problem by collecting data and information from various sources, to obtain problem solving or suggestions for further action. In training needs analysis, the emphasis is given to failure or non-performance of workforce and to ascertain whether training is one of the reasons (Pradhan & Pradhan, 2011:4).

Furthermore, Pradhan and Pradhan (2011:5) believe that TNA is very important because sometimes the failure is not because of incompetent work force but because of other issues like negative organisational climate. Arshad, Mahmood, Ahmed and Akhtar (2015:672) introduced the tripartite level of the TNA model are organisational analysis, task analysis, individual analysis and the tripartite level is the most classical works to influence TNA and the field of training and development. Shibani (2016:49) suggests that the main role of a TNA is to detect performance requirements/needs accurately in an organisation with an aim to invest resources in specific areas that need to be improved; often the ones that are functioning in parallel with the organisational mission directed towards an increase in productivity while simultaneously offering good service delivery at a high standard.

Tripathi (2017:52) provided a three-tiered approach describing three types of training needs analysis; beginning with the broadest level organisational analysis, task analysis, individual analysis as illustrated in Figure 6.1 below. According to Ludwikowska (2018:182) the results of the three levels needs analysis should be considered as systemic frame of the whole process and apply to the organisational strategy and solve its real problems. Figure 6.1 (below) depicts a three-tiered approach in need analysis.

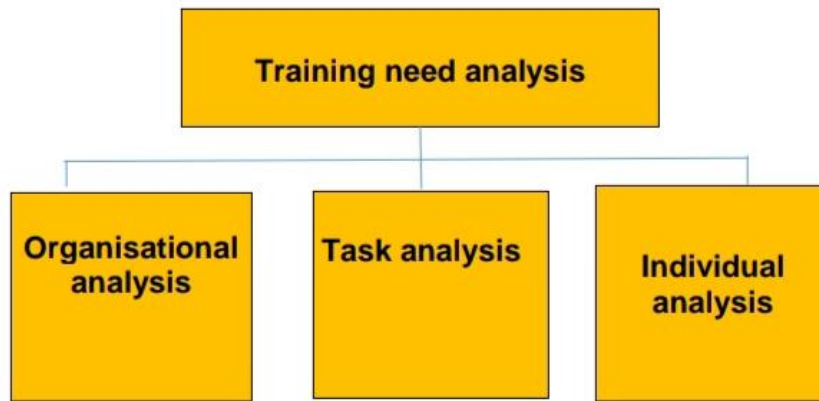


Figure 6.1: Training Need Analysis Process

(Source: Tripathi, 2017:52)

6.4.1 Organisational analysis

In terms of Figure 6.1 above, the aim of organisational analysis is to identify where training should be included within the organisation's administrative units, and also accounts for training objectives, which should be consistent with the organisation's strategic plan and goals (Shibani, 2016:235). In addition, Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, and Wright (2008:190) explained that organisational analysis pertains to the consideration of the organisation's strategic direction, such as analysing the organisation mission, vision and values and then determining relevant training needs to support those statements.

According to Kumar and Kapoor (2016:4) the important questions that need to be responded to by the organisational analysis are:

- Whose decision is it, to authorise that training should be conducted?
- Why is the training program perceived as the recommended solution to an organisational problem? and
- What is the organisation's history, with regards to employee training?

MPOs are the most valuable assets in the MPD. Similarly, MPD is only as good as its MPOs. As such, only through MPOs could the MPD achieve their objectives.

It is important for employees to possess the necessary skills, knowledge and abilities (SKAs) in order for organisations to achieve their goals, and remain both competitive

and successful (Som & Nam, 2011:1). In this regard, Tung-Chun (2001:np) also agreed that educated and well-trained employees are a prerequisite for an organisation's competitive advantage. Arshad et al. (2015:670), indicated that training should be approached systematically in order to enjoy the benefits on training investment. On the other hand, Som and Nam (2011:1) explain that systematic means that there are certain aspects of training in an organisation that need to be developed for the employees.

According to Arshad et al. (2015:671), these steps commence with an identification of training needs, designing and developing an appropriate training to serve the needs, implementing the training according to plan, and evaluating the training program to determine whether the original needs have been achieved. According to Noe et al. (2008:151) these steps are popularly known as the training cycle and are necessary to ensure training effectiveness.

6.4.1.1 Training cycle

Irrespective of the origins of a training program, it is likely that it was developed using a specific process known as the training cycle, whether it could have been created as a new project which did not exist within the organisation or might have been formed as a project delivered internally or a traditional classroom setting (Biech, 2015:42). The training cycle is a concept that assists training managers design, deliver and evaluate training activities (United Nations, 2022:13). The training cycle commences prior to the conducting of training and proceeds during training and post completion of training (Biech, 2015:42).

Training cycle is a widely used model which involves a series of stages which are necessary to ensure that the training is effective (Idris, Putra, Djalil, & Chandra, 2017:7). Ramiah (2014:36) outline the sequential view of the training cycle stages are as follows:

- **Analyse:** This is the initial phase where training needs are being analysed. The trainer analyses the knowledge, skills and attitudes/behaviours that each job requires; and assess the degree of competence of jobholders to meet those requirements;

- **Develop:** In this phase, training objectives are developed. Specifying what trainees should be able to do as a result of training;
- **Design:** -Training material or experience are designed. Deciding on a strategy to meet training needs, for an example by designing a training plan that is devised to achieve the objectives through the training intervention, suggesting using appropriate learning techniques, deciding key learning points to address the gaps in competencies that trainees must grasp (World Intellectual Property Organization, 2022:13);
- **Implement or deliver:** -Training is implemented by putting it into practice; and
- **Evaluate:** Training is evaluated through the establishment and assessment of its quality and effectiveness. Information collected through evaluations should be used to correct, modify, or change parts of the training plan found to be deficient or problematic (Interpol, 2016:12).

According to Beevers and Rea (2010:235), there are more than four (4) stages in the training cycle, with each stage contributing to creation of learning value. In that regard, Figure 6.2 below is an illustration of the five (5) stages of the training cycle.

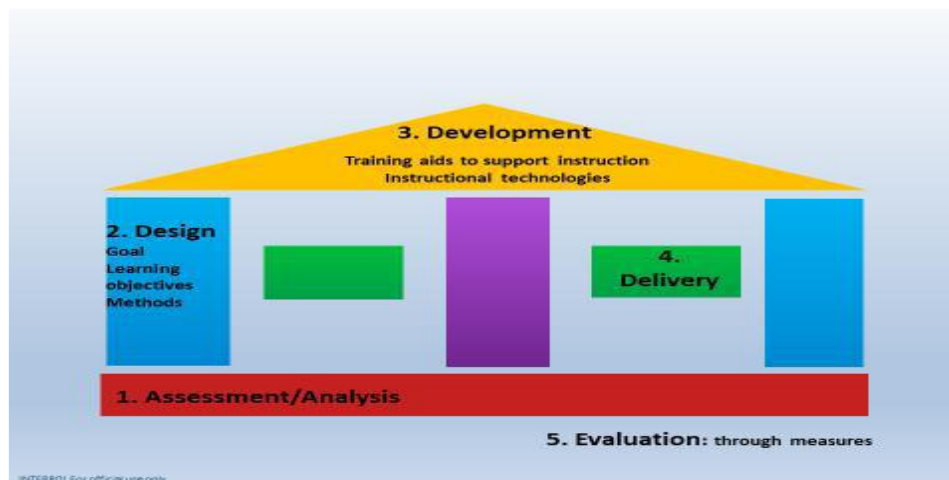


Figure 6.2: The recursive or iterative stages of the Addie training cycle

(Source: INTERPOL, 2016:11)

Figure 6.2 above depicts the recursive or iterative stages of the Addie training cycle, in terms of which the training process is a continuous cycle of improvement, both in terms of learners training processes and in terms of the professional development (World Meteorological Organization (WMO), 2019:1). The Resources for Trainers, WMO (2019:1) further added that training cycle is composed of interconnected

components that are the steps of a systematic process, usually starting with analysing training needs and ending with training evaluation. A.D.D.I.E. is easily understood using the metaphor of building a house as illustrated in Figure 6.2 above (Interpol, 2016:10).

Houses are built on a solid foundation, in stages. The foundational structure should be completed before moving to the next level. If there is no stability on the foundation the house collapses. Therefore, there should be an instructor to supervise and amend where curriculum stability and reliability are deficient (Interpol, 2016:10). The training cycle clarifies the training process, and it is critical for all trainers to understand the training process from the beginning to the end (Biech, 2015:42).

6.4.2 Task analysis for training and development

Task analysis is a methodical approach used to identify the training requirements by considering the work's context, main tasks or activities involved in the work, and the necessary knowledge, skills, and abilities required by employees to perform the job effectively (Biech, 2015:71). According to Strauser (2014:267) task analysis is considered by many to be the fundamental work analytic system; task analysis focuses on the accomplishment of a single piece of work and the relationships among task activities. Coresafety (2013:1) explains that task is a segment of an occupation or work process which is made up of a sequence of steps that, together accomplishing a specific goal.

Rezza (2018:13) point out that task analysis outcomes are not only detailed job description but also the picture of conditions required in which specific jobs can be executed. However, Biech (2015:72) clarifies that task analysis steps are completed to determine which aspects of the job to be included in a training program, as learning objects may be written derived from the task analysis. Therefore, the goal of the task analysis is to describe how training is currently being conducted in order to improve and understand the type of design needed to improve functionality of the system more easily for learners to accomplished tasks/duties given with better quality (Kieras & Butler, 2014:33-2).

The duties, tasks, sub-tasks, and task-elements performed by an individual constitute of the role and role analysis which are described as the process of examining a specific

role in detail. Similarly, it is to identify all the component duties and tasks, the conditions under which the role is performed, and the standards to be achieved when performing the role (JSP 822, 2022d:21). Furthermore, JSP 822 (2022d:21) indicated that it is more appropriate to separately analyse each role that an individual might fulfil and the individual in the role should also be considered, in this way, it is possible to identify the knowledge, skills and attitudes/behaviours necessary for effective performance.

It should be noted that while analysing a particular role, it is important to determine an appropriate training in order to provide to individuals who are, therefore, capable of doing the role (JSP 822, 2022d:21). In recent decades, due to rapid technological change, the contents of the training should always accommodate task analysis in order to keep it abreast of the most recent developments (Rezza, 2018:13). According to Kumar and Kapoor (2016:4), task analysis seeks to specify the main duties and skill level required for the learner and this is vital in ensuring that the training which is developed might include relevant links to the content of the job. South African Management Development Institute (2007:22) enlightened that the outcomes of a job analysis are very helpful in determining training needs. In the following section, the researcher presents individual analysis.

6.4.3 Individual analysis

Individual analysis aims at identifying the characteristics of the employees whose skills and abilities are lacking in the workforce in order for them to be able to complete their duties (Puspita & Nurhalim, 2021:156). According to Kumar and Kapoor (2016:4) the important questions being answered by this analysis are who need the training and who should be trained, their level of existing knowledge on the subject, what is their learning style, are there any changes to policies, procedures, software, or equipment that require or necessitate training, do the employees have required skills, what training is needed by individual and for what purpose should the training be conducted.

Hence, its purpose is to recognise individuals' strengths and weaknesses and therefore generate a proposition for targeting which kind of improvement or what kind of training is needed by a person (Salas et al., 2012:477). Rezza (2018:13) cautions that incomprehensive and insufficient individual analysis could lead to a training

program being followed by the wrong people or individuals who do not really need it. Royster (2018:10) avers that conducting a comprehensive individual analysis assist with the selection of potential trainees based on their existing competencies, and training become more focus targeted, and subsequently, the members would have no difficulties in implementing their knowledge.

Royster (2018:10) further added, that the organisation benefits from individuals' desirable work traits and where job-person fit is optimal as training can be considered more effective. Whereas Rezza (2018:49) further mentioned that the importance of individual analysis is to make desirably impacting training effectiveness by not allowing workforces to attend unnecessary training, which ultimately leads them to have difficulties in using their knowledge and skills in the post-training environment. In addition, Kumar and Kapoor (2016:17) believe that the systemic changes and organisational development of training could not take place without a focused approach on the individual development in terms of competency development of trainers and training managers.

In essence, this means that individual analysis should focus the initiative in strengthening the skills, instincts, abilities, of the individuals involved in training management and delivery (Kumar & Kapoor, 2016:7). To date, the MPD training has not conducted a training needs analysis which investigates aspects of training needs and capacity building needs which intend to revamp the professional MP Division training. Military Police School (2021:2) indicated that the MPD doctrine is outdated, and proposals are pending due to the updating of the doctrine. The next section presents the value of training need analysis.

6.4.4 The value of training need analysis

Police organisations should continuously address their needs in order to adequately train new and existing police officers and to meet emerging training challenges (Gyeltshen, Kamnuansilpa & Crumpton, 2020:2). Training needs analysis is an integral part of building a basis for value-added training. Furthermore, Gyeltshen et al. (2020:7), posit that training needs analysis could further assist in strengthening the individual and organisational level competencies required to respond to the modern training challenges that police agencies face globally. The role of TNA is significant to

ensure the right money investment in the training program. It ensures synergy among individual learning needs and the quest for effectiveness, job performance, and strategic organizational development (Stickle, 2015:16:14; Tripathi, 2017:50).

By conducting a thorough TNA, an organisation can derive specific learning objectives to develop the training design and delivery, including its development criteria (Salas et al., 2012:475). Training Needs Analysis (TNA) is used to develop training curricula designed to facilitate employee learning process (Ludwikowska, 2018:184; Van Heerden, 2006:11). According to Tripathi (2017:50) TNA enables organisations to channel resources into the areas where they contribute the most. According to JSP 822 (2022d:43) TNA outcomes are significant in assisting to generate a training needs report that specifies the training requirement, recommends a training solution through the evaluation of options, resources required to design and support the training, collate all the information from the scoping exercise and analyses stages, and the implementation plan.

6.5 INTEGRATED CONCEPTUAL TRAINING FRAMEWORK FOR MPD TRAINING

The multifarious responsibilities entrusted to military police officers span a broad spectrum, encompassing a plethora of duties, including addressing criminal activities, assuaging fear of crime, conducting patrols, providing escorts, and managing traffic. The absence of appropriate and adequate educational and training opportunities may hinder the transferability of acquired knowledge and skills into the practical exigencies of the operational milieu, thus rendering the effective performance of these duties a challenging proposition. This underscores the criticality of ensuring the provision of requisite educational and training resources to equip military police officers with the necessary competencies to discharge their duties with efficacy and efficiency.

In providing the contextual underpinning for this study, the researcher employed the theoretical framework of constructivism, as stated in Section 4.3.5, Paragraph 1. The central precepts of constructivism contend that knowledge is not a static, passive construct, but rather an active and dynamic process that is shaped by learners based on their experiential encounters (Narayan, Rodriguez, Araujo, Shaqlaih & Moss, 2013:196). Constructivist philosophy can be adapted to design training in the proposed

training framework for the MPD training. Houlahan (2018:9) outlines the concept of constructive alignment, which he defines as the combination of constructivism with instructional design practices whereby the foundational beliefs of constructivism are incorporated into all aspects of the designed training; from objectives to learning activities to assessment.

Furthermore, Houlahan (2018:9) asserts that attempts to enhance training needs in order to address the system as a whole, not simply add good components, such as new curriculum or methods. The proposed conceptual framework for the MPD training entailing three different building blocks within one process of learning. In essence, this means integrated learning. According to Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2014:37) a conceptual framework forces the researcher to be selective; to decide which variables are most important, which relationships are likely to be most meaningful, and, as a consequence, what information should be collected and analysed—at least at the outset. This proposed integrated learning can be supported by an approach known as a competency-based training, whereby learning would assure that learners can learn from the real-life, complex learning activities.

One major advantage of competency-based training is the ability of the learning to be responsive to societal expectations and needs (Hodge & Harris, 2012:155), as competencies are statements about what is valued by society, the profession, and the institution (Albanese, Mejicano, Mullan, Kokotailo & Gruppen, 2008:353) (see Section 4.5, paragraph 1).

In the concept of competency-based training, described by the Bangladesh Technical Education Board (2012:3), the term "competency" refers to an individual's ability to perform a task effectively, which is reflected in the training content. The term "based" signifies that the training is constructed around the observation of observable skills, and the term "training" refers to the process of enabling individuals to perform tasks that they were previously unable to do (Bangladesh Technical Education Board, 2012:3).

According to the Bangladesh Technical Education Board (2012:3), the minimum criteria for a competency-based training is articulated thus:

- Content directly related to work;
- Focus on doing; and
- Assessment based on industry work standards.

A conceptual framework is developed to describe the key compounds of customised training. The conceptual framework provides a schema for categorising sets of variables and elements that can be used to conduct systematic training evaluation of modified training for the purpose of improving it. It shows the series of action the researcher intends conducting in a research study (Mensah et al., 2020:55). In practice, the conceptual framework comprises your thoughts on identification of the research topic, the problem to be investigated, the questions to be asked, the literature to be reviewed that is, the concepts to be applied, the methodology you should use, the methods, procedures and instruments, the analysis and interpretation of findings, recommendations and conclusions the researcher makes (Mensah et al., 2020:55).

In essence, the conceptual framework presents an integrated way of looking at a problem under study (Liehr & Smith, 2009:45). Miles et al. (2014:37), explains that conceptual frameworks could be presented in either a graphical or narrative form, showing the key variables or constructs to be studied and the presumed relationships between them. The researcher developed a proposed conceptual framework for the MPD training which is supported by the competency-based training comprising of the three interaction variables: knowledge, practical skills, and work experience. Competency-based training concept places more emphasis on hands on training and it aims at training learners to develop the skills needed to perform effectively and efficiently in the organisation (Mensah et al., 2020:174).

The rationale for developing the proposed framework is based on two issues: first, learners of MPO(s) complete their training at the Military Police School without gaining real-world experience. Furthermore, there is no assurance that learners might be able to apply what they have learned in the workplace by demonstrating practical aspects of the subject matter. According to the MP Division (2023:2) the investigation training symposium report held at the MP Division, revealed the following:

“The current SAPS investigation programme does not serve the purpose, learners after completion of a course cannot transfer learnt skills to the working environment”.

“Investigators coming from the training from Military Police School hardly cannot identify different types of crime with its elements”.

“Duration of the course is too short, there is not enough time for practical”.

“Practical should be compulsory together with portfolio of evidence in a form of case docket thoroughly done by the learners”.

Based on the above, it can be mentioned that the conceptual framework could be the product of the researcher’s own thinking about the research study (Mensah et al., 2020:59).

In this regard, the researcher developed an integrated conceptual training framework, the reviewed literature and interviews conducted to enhance MPD training analysis. The proposed framework aims at integrating all learning components into a single curriculum. Figure 6.3 overleaf illustrates a high-level diagram to illustrate how the integrated framework could function in MP training.

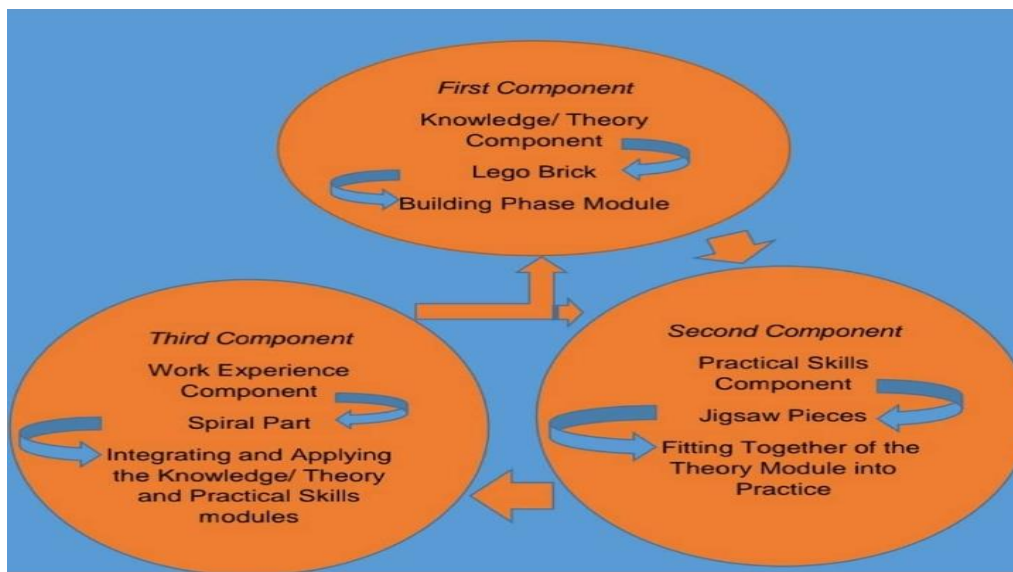


Figure 6.3: Proposed integrated conceptual training framework

(Source: Developed by the researcher)

As indicated in Figure 6.3 above, the framework comprises of (3) three modules such as knowledge/theory component, practical skills component, and work experience component. The knowledge component primarily focuses on theoretical aspects, while the practical skills component is premised on simulated environments. The last component, the work experience, deals with the application of both the knowledge and

practical skills components in a real-world setting. The composition of each module is presented as follows: the knowledge component encompasses theory, the practical skills component involves simulated environments, and the work experience component entails the application of both the knowledge and practical skills components.

The proposed Integrated conceptual training framework as depicted in Figure 6.3 above, representing the contribution of the researcher would make links explicit to the learners and suggests that the whole curriculum needs not to be based on one learning design. The whole curriculum proposed conceptual training framework for the MP Division training should be an integrated curriculum designed as follows: the first component, knowledge component which might be a *Lego brick* providing theory as the building phase module which is essential to alert learners of their progressive nature (Butcher, Davies & Highton, 2006:37).

Following would be the second component, practical skills component which should resemble a jigsaw piece fitting together of the theory component in practice in order to be embedded in learner's mind (Butcher et al., 2006:37). The last component, which is work experience component would be a spiral part, which would occur when the learner returns to the knowledge component and the practical skills component at a later stage periodically in ever more detailed and complex ways integrating and applying the theory and practical skills modules in a real-world environment (Butcher et al., 2006:37). The aim of the proposed integrated conceptual training framework is to ensure that learners are acquiring the necessary knowledge and skills that are deemed to be essential for them to achieve mastery learning of real-world by including work-experience.

The strength of the make-up of the proposed integrated conceptual training framework as depicted in Figure 6.3 above, is that the proposed integrated conceptual training framework components sustain one another. As such the latter is vital in supporting learners with diverse knowledge backgrounds, mastery levels, and other related aptitudes within a single comprehensive curriculum. Following section is the discussion based on the three components provided in the proposed conceptual training framework for the MP Division training, which is depicted in Figure 6.3 above.

6.5.1 Knowledge/theory component

The instructors in general and the trainers in particular are needed to assist learners to learn. In that regard, they assist learners to develop, acquire, construct, and create knowledge (Rwanamiza, 2009:1). According to Vali (2012:389) knowledge is senseful and permanently active information. Knowledge is considered to be any subject matter that may be acquired through the processes of training in general, and teaching-and-learning in particular (Vali, 2012:389). Therefore, in this context, knowledge encompasses cognitive, affective, and psycho-motor components (Anderson University, 2023:7). Cognitive domain is the core of the learning domain as it deals with how a learner acquires processes and utilises the knowledge, the other two domains affective and psychomotor require at least some of the cognitive components (Kasilingam, Ramalingam & Chinnavan, 2014:28).

Similarly, learning is often delineated as the acquisition of new knowledge (Nagel & Scholes, 2016:16). The knowledge that one gains by training and learning, it brings valuable knowledge (Koudelkova, 2015:325). The unique knowledge acquired by the employees through training is viewed as an investment in human capital that enable the organisation to achieve positive outcomes (Jodlbauer, Selenko, Batinic & Stiglbauer, 2011:39). Knowledge acquired from training is the organisation's knowledge asset that could be stored and shared for future reference (Sambasivan & Wong, 2013:475). An organisation benefits the most only when the knowledge is transferred (Ranft & Lord, 2002:458).

The ability of acquiring training is not sufficient to compete effectively unless the knowledge acquired through training is converted and applied (Sambasivan & Wong, 2013:475). The forms of knowledge that the researcher refers to in this study, is the knowledge that is related to theoretical knowledge, which is often equated with factual knowledge (Stanley 2011:7). In ancient thought, knowledge could be classified as episteme or techné (Klausen & Petersen, 2021:4). Episteme is commonly understood as theoretical knowledge, or knowing that something is the case, while techné is seen as more akin to knowledge-how, such as craftsmanship or skill (Stanley & Williamson, 2001:411).

While some might argue that theoretical knowledge cannot be knowledge-how, this view is incorrect as theoretical knowledge can include knowledge-how, as demonstrated by knowing how to build an airplane and outlining a step-by-step construction process. Thus, theoretical knowledge may also encompass knowledge-how (Stanley, 2001:7). The theoretical knowledge component is specialised in writing and is important for learners to analyse and absorb thoughts (Syaiful Saehu, Sari, Hafidah, Mahbub & Yuliastuti, 2020:535). As such, the question arises as to why there should be integration of theoretical knowledge into practical knowledge and work experience knowledge (Syaiful Saehu et al., 2020:536).

6.5.2 Practical skills component

Placing theory to application is the great way to learn and it is a lively learning method that permits learners to test what they want to learn in books (Syaiful et al., 2020:539). Practical knowledge is used more on skill education of “how to do” in order to have an ability (Yong, 2012:56). According to Millar (2004:4) practical knowledge encouraging learners to pursue their own enquiries taps into their natural curiosity and to find things out for themselves, through their own efforts, which seems natural and developmental, rather than coercive, and also assist learners to remember learning better. It should be considered practical applications, as are generally based on prior theoretical knowledge (Fisher & Gonzalez, 2020:2).

Furthermore, according to Millar (2004:3) practical knowledge appears to offer the learners with the method of holding up evidence, rather than authority, as the grounds for accepting knowledge, therefore it could be mentioned that practical knowledge is enabling, rather than dismissive of the learners’ ability, and right, to pursue knowledge and understanding for themselves. According to Leask, Cronje, Holm and Ryneveld (2020:2) it is vital for allowing learners to do the practical work involved in workplace-integrated learning with as little interference by the trainer as possible to gain the maximum benefit of practical training.

In their study, Katajavouri, Lindblom-Ylänne and Hirvonen (2006:442) aver that practical knowledge is contextual, and it is vital for learners to understand the link between theory and practice to apply theoretical knowledge in the workplace. However, theoretical knowledge might help learners in their performance, but it cannot

help them in single cases and events and in guiding their responses (Katajavouri et al., 2006:442).

6.5.3 Work experience component

Work experience is the exposure and interactions gained by the learner through being in the workplace (Quality Council for Trades and Occupations, 2020:7). In applying this to the study, Quality Council for Trades and Occupations (2020:21) define clearly that work experience, simulated work experience is learning that occurs in a (1) work environment, (2) a place replicating a work environment (3) any place determined/ deemed to be a work environment. It takes various forms, including simulated learning, work-directed theoretical learning, problem-based learning, scenario learning, project-based learning and work experience (Quality Council for Trades and Occupations, 2020:16).

The terminology used to describe all the above various forms is based on a common understanding of the importance of enabling learners to integrate theoretical knowledge gained with the practice-based knowledge gained through involvement in a work (Council on Higher Education, 2011:4). Following is the benefit of work experience for learners as outlined by the State of Victoria Department of Education and Training (2016:7):

- Better understanding of the work environment and provides learners with the valuable opportunity to understand employer expectations;
- An opportunity to explore career options;
- Increased self-understanding, maturity, independence and self-confidence;
- Increased motivation to continue undertake further training;
- Better understanding of how the curriculum can assist prepare learners for work;
- An introduction to workplace recruitment practices;
- Enhanced opportunities employment; and
- Opportunity to be bitterly prepared for evaluation.

Furthermore, the State of Victoria Department of Education and Training (2016:7) explains that while undertaking work experience, learners might observe different aspects of work within the organisation and assist with tasks allocated. Fisher and Gonzalez (2020:5) suggest that possible aims of work experience can be grouped

together under 10 categories. The 10 categories are displayed in Table 6.1 below, as adapted from (Fisher & Gonzalez, 2020:5).

Table 6.1: Possible aims of work experience

Anticipatory – Manage transition from training to work better
Custodial – Temporary transfer of responsibilities to learners
Enhancing – Apply learnt skills in work environment
Expansive – Widest range of occupations
Investigative – Bring knowledge and understanding of work closer together
Maturational – Improve social and personal development
Motivational – Align institution curriculum levels of academic achievements
Placing – Strengthen relationship with employers
Preparatory – Matching skills and knowledge with considered work areas
Sampling – try and test career preferences

(Source: Fisher & Gonzalez, 2020:5)

These 10 categories of the possible aims of work experience assist learners to learn and apply learning skills and be better prepared for the transition from training to work environment (Fisher & Gonzalez, 2020:5). Work experience learning should be integrated with theory/ knowledge and practical learning (Quality Council for Trades and Occupations, 2020:21). Integration refers to the coordination of a system's parts, since all parts are differentiated and segmented into relatively independent components. Whereby all are adapted to be integrated into a cohesive system (Garriga & Melé, 2004:57).

Such integration would assist learners to more closely associate the practical value of learning theoretical concepts as it is imperative that learners in training be able to put into practice what they have learnt in the classroom (Wrenn & Wrenn, 2009:258). Integrated learning provides learners with the opportunity to develop specific skills and knowledge in the workplace, the underlying assumption being that not all skills can be learned in the classroom or workplaces, but through a combination of all (Atkinson, 2016:8). This combination is illustrated in Figure 6.4 below as adopted from Fisher and Gonzalez (2020:18).

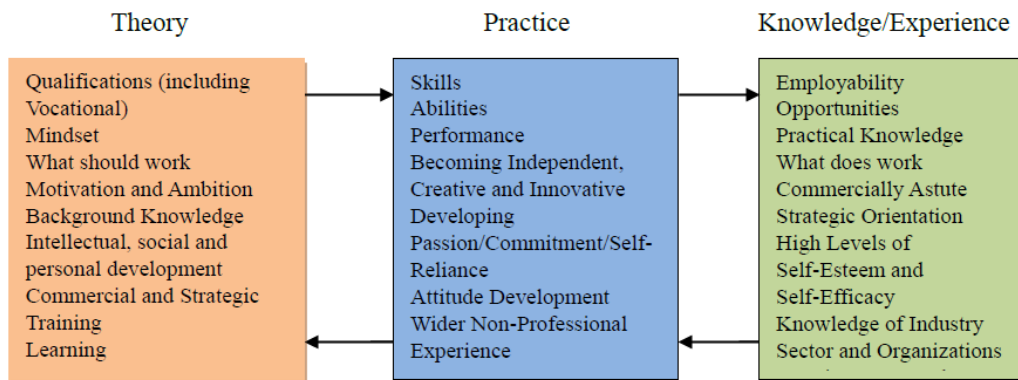


Figure 6.4: The integrated knowledge components

(Source: Fisher & Gonzalez, 2020:18)

Figure 6.4 above depicts the integrated components of knowledge. According to Fisher and Gonzalez (2020:18) integration of the components in Figure 6.4 above is a good combination, and has the potential to reduce inconsistency in the areas of training and education. Furthermore, according to Wrenn and Wrenn (2009:259) the components depicted in Figure 6.4 above, involve activities that allow trainees to clarify, question, consolidate, and appropriate new knowledge. This form of learning ensures that multifaceted layers of knowledge are integrated and can assist learners to understand how to apply the knowledge in practice (Yong, 2012:59).

According to Wrenn and Wrenn (2009:259) integrated form of learning bring some characteristics of active learning namely:

- Learners engage in higher order thinking (analysis, synthesis, and evaluation);
- Learners participate in more than listening;
- Greater emphasis is placed on learners' exploration of their attitudes and values;
- Learners are engaged in activities (such as writing, reading, discussing, and observing); and
- Less emphasis is placed on transmitting information and more on development of learners' skills.

One vital component of the active learning model that is known of, from other learning models, is an emphasis on experience, learners learn more by doing something active than merely listening as a means of acquiring knowledge (Felder & Brent, 2003:1). In their study Wrenn and Wrenn (2009:263) concluded that theory, experience and

practice maximise learning and it ensures a desire to balance theory, experience and practice.

A proposed conceptual framework for the training of the MP Division, which integrates all components of training, including the knowledge/theory component, practical skills component, and work experience component, provides comprehensive guidance and direction for planning effective integrated learning. Such a framework is essential for designing training that incorporates modern policing tools with a curriculum that emphasises both practical and work experience components. This might better prepare MPOs for the complexities of the real world.

6.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher highlighted some of the challenges of the MPD training that contribute to MPD training deficiencies. Despite these challenges, MPD training is still successful in integrating newly appointed MPO graduates to the system. The MPD training challenges were categorised into two domains. The first category relates to challenges that are beyond the MP School's control. As such, the MP School can only be reactive. For example: lack of training policy statement, and consistency updating the curriculums. The second category is based on the challenges over which the MP School has control, such as training management.

The purpose of exploring the challenges of the MPD training was to identify key challenges that play a role in the ineffectiveness of the MPD training. An important factor for consideration is that good training should be practiced in order to improve the skills, knowledge and attitude of the trainee. Training needs identification and analysis was presented and discussed as it constitutes a critical factor for organising effective training. Furthermore, Rezza (2018:14) intimates that both training needs identification and analysis sets up fundamental guidance to align training delivery with organisational goals.

Training could become a fruitless effort for an organisation's in improving their human resources' competency improvement efforts without an effective training needs identification and analysis mechanism. It is in this regard that the researcher proposed an integrative conceptual framework for the MP Division training for all training components, namely: the knowledge/theory component, the practical skills

component, and the work experience component. The next chapter presents the interpretation of the findings in respect of the effectiveness of MPD training.

CHAPTER 7: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This study basically explored, described and analysed the effectiveness (or lack thereof) of the current MPD training initiatives/curricula in relation to the practical skills and experiences of MP officers in the workplace. Consequently, the study provided a comprehensive conceptual framework of training-related strategies to improve the performance of MPOs in their work schedules and routines (see Section 1.5). The proposed conceptual framework aims to strengthen the training of MPD officials, enabling them to effectively fulfill their core responsibilities. Chapter 3, 4, 5 and 6 of the study focused on the available literature to the effectiveness of the MPD training.

This chapter entails the discussion and analysis of the results obtained from the empirical research, involving 103 questionnaires and 20 interview schedules. Beyond the respondents' input, the researcher intended to find the answer to the following research questions:

- What is the mandate of the Military Police?
- To what extent do the current MPD training initiatives/curricula provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills?
- What are the international and local best police training practices?
- What are the current MPD training challenges and needs? and
- What practical guidelines, procedures and recommendations can be offered to the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training?

The researcher distributed 155 questionnaires as per sample of each region. The Southern Military Police Region (28 out of 155 = 18%), the Central Military Police Region (37 out of 155 = 24%), Western Military Police Region (22 out of 155 = 14%), the Northern Military Police Region (44 out of 155 = 28%), and the MPD HQ (24 out of 155 = 15%) and 103 questionnaires were returned (cf 2.5), the quantitative approach in the questionnaires were designed in such a way that to accommodate both closed-ended and open-ended questions. 20 Qualitative semi-structured individual interviews

were conducted telephonically using open-ended questions, the researcher transcribed the answers of each participant into the interview schedule.

Figure 7.1 illustrates the target population for the quantitative approach and provides an interpretation and description of the significance of the findings (see Sections 2.5 and 2.5.1). The latter is necessary to refute or confirm the findings of the literature presented in chapters 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, as well as to offer new perspective on the explored study research problem considering the primary aim, objectives and main research questions of this study into consideration. The researcher adhered to the principle of triangulation, in terms of which more than one data collection technique was used.

Phase one was entirely quantitative, with the research instrumentation (questionnaire surveys) designed to measure the effectiveness of the MPD training provided to MPOs within the SANDF. On the other hand, Phase two is premised on the qualitative semi-structured individual interviews used to verify the findings of the questionnaire to probe further into the MPD training. The totality of the target population for the quantitative approach is shown in Figure 7.1 below.

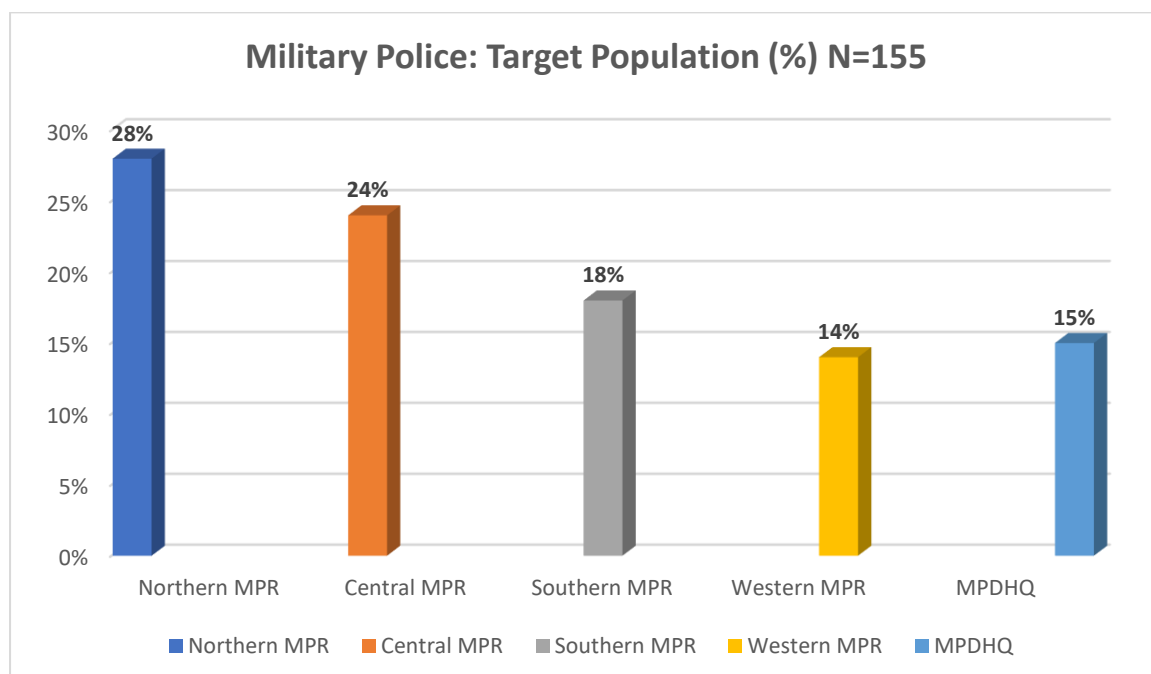


Figure 7.1: Target population by regions for the quantitative approach

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

This study was conducted in two phases, namely a quantitative phase (Phase 1) and a qualitative phase (Phase 2). In Phase 1, data from 103 structured questionnaires were analysed in the sequential order as presented in the questionnaire. In Phase 2, analysis was performed on 20 semi-structured individual interviews conducted (n=20, 100%). The findings of this study are presented using tables, descriptive quotes, and narratives directly sourced from the completed questionnaires (Phase 1) and interviews (Phase 2). The responses collected in Phase 1 are quantitatively interpreted, while the results from Phase 2 are qualitatively interpreted as presented hereafter.

7.2 PHASE ONE: QUANTITATIVE INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Of the total of 155 questionnaires distributed, only 103 completed questionnaires were returned and used to interpret the results (see Section 7.1, Paragraph 3). The data acquired by means of the questionnaire have been subjected to a frequency count. In other words, the subjects' responses to every question had been brought together to determine the highest frequency of occurrence meaning a number of times a particular response occurs. These quantified responses to the questions should be presented in percentage form in this study. The research questionnaire is delineated into three sections according to the type of information needed.

- **Background and demographic questions** – In this first section the researcher asked attributes of the respondent to ensure representation with the use of a close-ended question;
- **Factual questions** - Ask factual knowledge to find out what the respondent knows about MPD training. These questions are statement whereby the respondent(s) indicated their level of disagreement or agreement, and
- **Opinion questions** - As the respondent(s) are the only person who knows the truth, in this section the researcher asked opinion questions to establish how the respondent(s) feels about MPD training and using open-ended questions enabled the researcher to probe more information from respondents.

7.2.1 Analysis of the respondents' demographic characteristics

This section explores the information regarding gender, age, race, geographical area station, number of years in the service, highest qualification, and rank. The result of

the biographical information is represented graphically in Figure 7.2 to Figure 7.8 respectively. The gender of respondents is presented below.

7.2.1.1 Respondents' gender

The population of respondents in terms of gender who participated in the quantitative questionnaire study is shown in Figure 7.2 below.

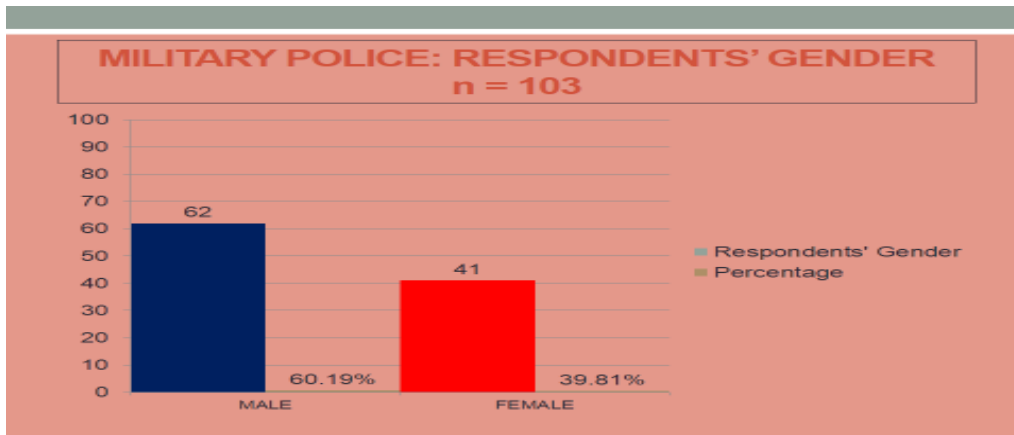


Figure 7.2: Gender of respondents

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

As depicted in Figure 7.2 above, the total number of participants was (n=103, 100%). The majority of participants (n=62, 60.19%) were males, and the minority (n=41, 39.81%) were 41 females. In this regard, the MPD has a larger proportion of males than females. Following is the discussion on the respondents' age group.

7.2.1.2 Age of respondents

The researcher divided the different age groups of respondents into five (5) categories. Figure 7.3 below reflects the age group of the respondents.

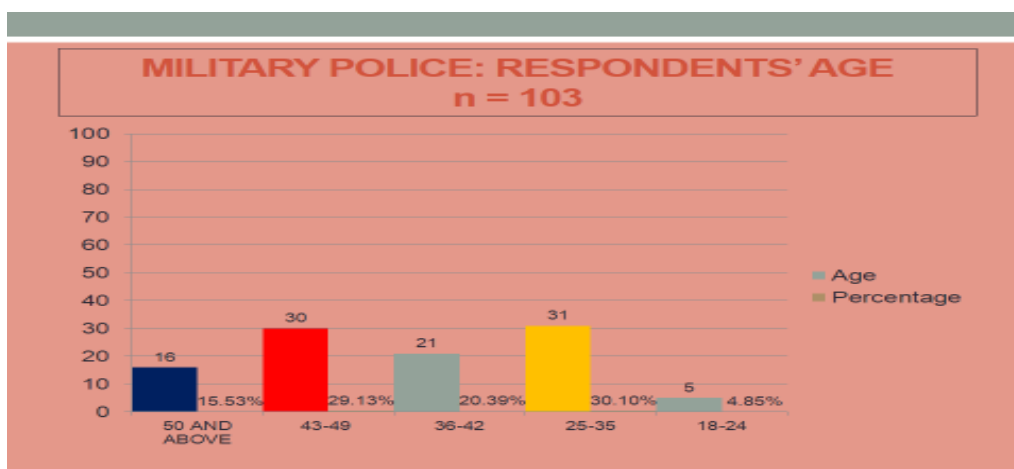


Figure 7.3: Respondents' age group

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Figure 7.3 above summarises the respondents' respective age groups. The majority of respondents, (n=31, 30.1%) were aged between 25-35 years. This was followed by 30 respondents aged between 43-49 years of age (n=30, 29.13%). Twenty-one (21) respondents aged between 36-42 years of age (n=21, 20.39%). This was followed by 16 respondents who were between the ages 50 years and more (n=16, 15.53%). Five (5) respondents were the least number of participants aged between the ages of 18-24 years (n=5, 4.85%). The diverse age groups indicate that there are different age groups in MP Division, with the majority of youth, aged between 25 and 35 years of age. Following is the discussion on the race of respondents.

7.2.1.3 Race of respondents

The ethnicity of the respondents involved in the quantitative questionnaire research is indicated Figure 7.4 below.

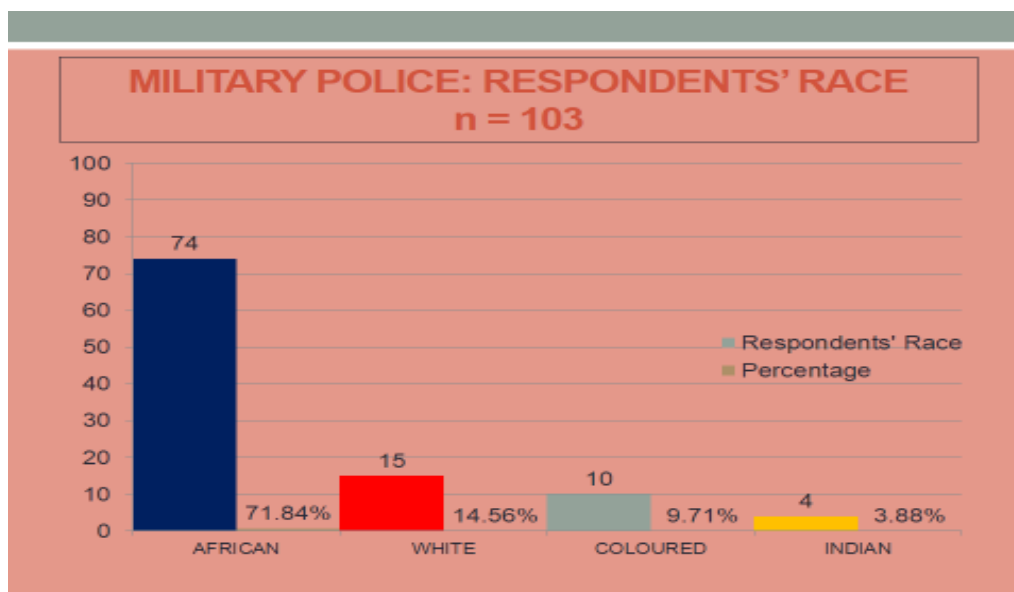


Figure 7.4: Race of respondents

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Figure 7.4 above indicates the respondents' demographic regarding their race. The majority of participants were Africans (n=74, 71.84%), followed by 15 White participants (n=15, 14.56%), ten (10) participants were Coloured (n=10, 9.71%) and the minority were four (4) Indian participants (n=4, 3.88%). As indicated in Figure 7.4 above, there is diversity in this study, meaning the responses were generated from all the ethnicities. The geographical area region of the respondents is presented below.

7.2.1.4 Geographical area/ regions response of the respondents

The respondents' responses to geographic areas included the following regions; Central Military Police Region (MPR), MPD Headquarters, North MPR, South MPR and West MPR as depicted in Figure 7.5 below. The interest of the researcher in this context was to determine whether the geographic location of the respondents had any effect on the training, which is the same for all trainees.

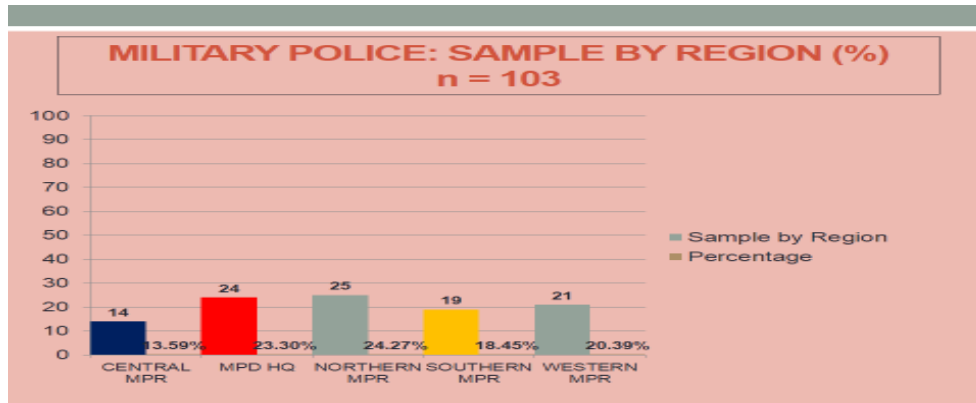


Figure 7.5: The geographical area regions responses of the respondents sampling (Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Figure 7.5 above illustrates the geographical area regions responses of the respondents' who participated in research. The majority of were from Northern MPR (n=25, 24.27%), followed by 24 participants from MPD Headquarters (n=24, 23.30%), Western region had 21 participants (21, 20.39%) On the other hand, Southern MPR constituted of 19 respondents (19, 18.45%). Minority of 14 respondents were from Central MPR (n=14, 13.59%).

7.2.1.5 Respondents' working experience

Figure 7.6 below depicts the participants' working experience. Respondents were requested to indicate the length of their service as MPOs.

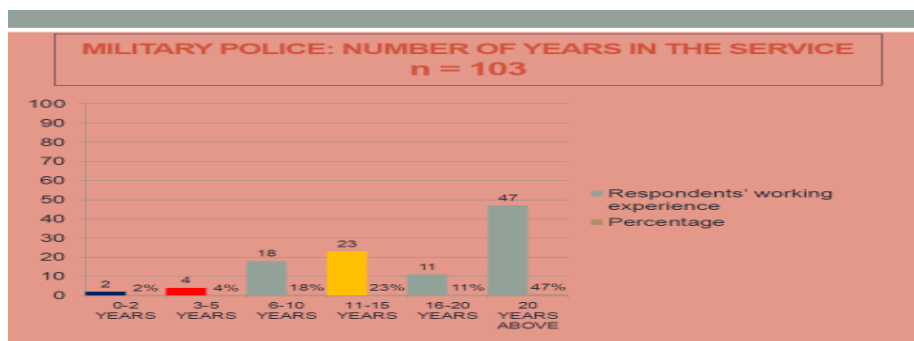


Figure 7.6: Working Experience or duration (Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The majority of the participants mentioned they have been working for 20 years and above (n=47, 46%), followed by 23 respondents who worked between the years 11 to 15 years (n=23, 22%). Eighteen (18) respondents have been working for about 6 to 10 years (n=18, 17%). Furthermore, 11 respondents have been working for about 16 to 20 years (n=11, 11%). Four (4) participants indicated that they worked for 3 to 5 years (n=4, 4%). Two (2) participants have been working for 0 to 2 years (n=2, 2%). In this regard, the MPD has the majority of employee who serviced the Military for 20 years and above.

7.2.1.6 The respondents' educational level

The research responses related to the educational level of the respondents involved in this quantitative questionnaire study are indicated in Figure 7.7 below.

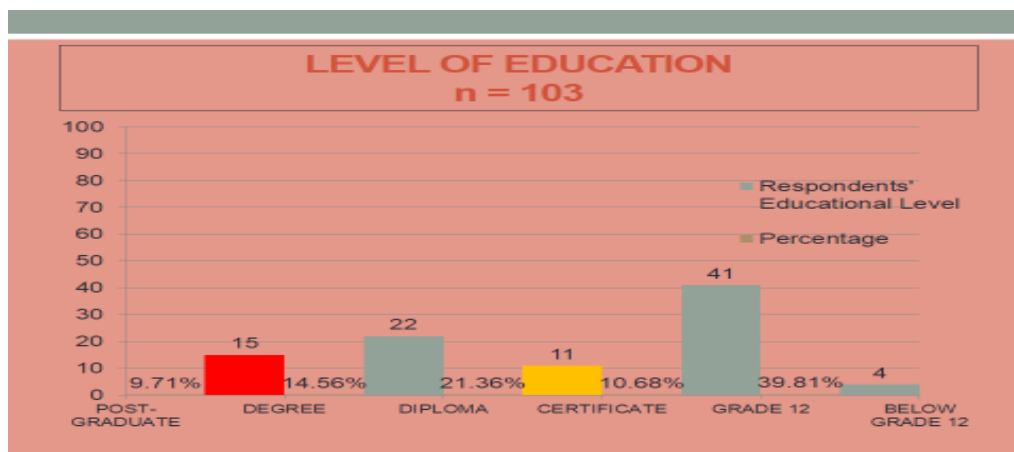


Figure 7.7: Education level

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Figure 7.7 above demonstrates the educational attainment of respondents who participated in the study. The majority of respondents (41) (n=41, 39.81%) have completed Grade 12 education, followed by 22 participants who have a diploma degree (22, 21%). Eleven (11) participants have certificates (n=11, 10.68%). About 15 respondents have a tertiary degree as their highest level of education (n=15, 14.5%). Only 11 respondents have a postgraduate degree as their educational qualification (n=11, 9.71%). The minority of four (4) respondents' have not completed primary school (n=4, 4%).

7.2.1.7 The respondents' rank

The response information of the respondents who participated in the quantitative questionnaire study regarding the ranking is described in Figure 7.8 below.

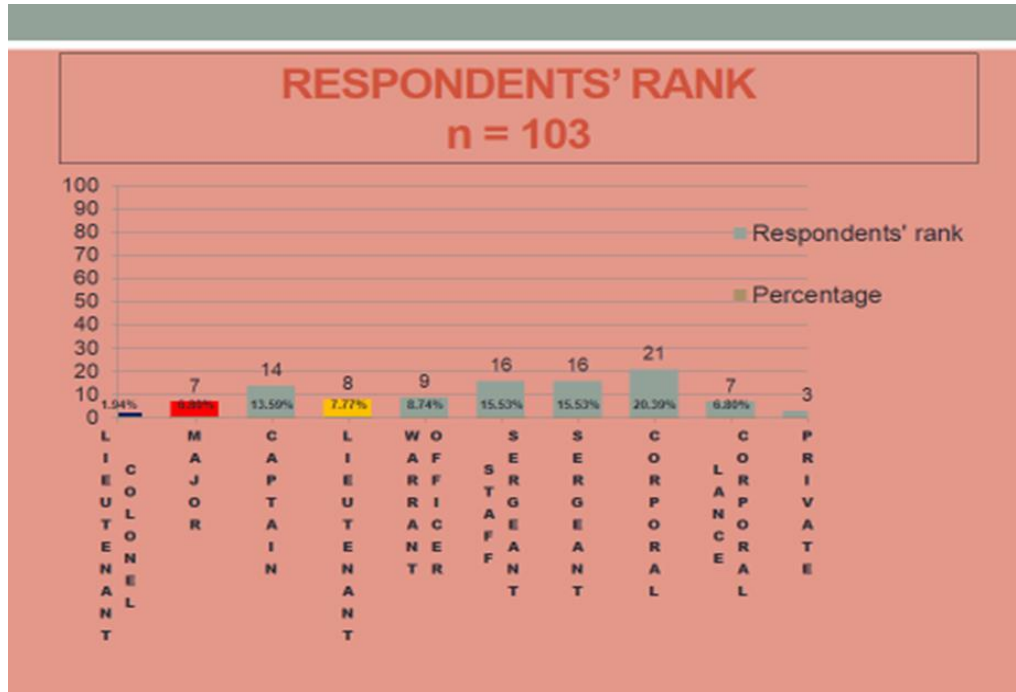


Figure 7.8: Respondents' rank

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The question was asked to the respondents to describe their rank as MPOs. The majority of the participants indicated that were ranked as “Corporal” (n=21, 20.39%); sixteen (16) respondents were “Sergeants” (n=16,15.53%). Another 16 participants were ranked as “Staff Sergeant” (n=16, 15.53%). On that note, 14 participants were “Captains” (n=14, 13.59%). Nine (9) other participants were “Warrant Officers” (n=9, 8.74%). The respondents' responses also revealed that eight (8) participants were “Lieutenant” (n=8, 7.77%). Furthermore, seven participants (n=7, 6.80%) showed respondents as “Major”, and the other seven participants were ranked the Lance Corporal ranked (n=7, 6.80%). While only three (3) participants (n=3, 2.91%) were ranked as Private. The minority of two (2) participants were classified as Lieutenant Colonel (n=2, 1.94%). The next section presents and analyses data collected from Section B of the questionnaire.

7.2.2 Presentation and analysis of Section B of the survey questionnaire

The respondent's feedback on the variables in Section B of the questionnaire were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=neutral, 4=disagree, and 5=strongly disagree. This section presents descriptive and inferential statistics in the form of frequency tables and percentages to demonstrate respondent's feedback. For the purpose of the analysed feedback provided, the "Strongly Agree" and "Agree" percentages are combined, and the "Disagree" and "Strongly Disagree" percentages are combined by the researcher. The aim of this study is to explore, describe and analyse the effectiveness and lack of current MPD training initiatives/ curricula in relation to the practical skills and experiences of MP officials in the workplace. In this section the researcher presents the insights from respondent's feedback related to this variable based on the aim. The analysis presents the responses of the respondents as follows:

7.2.2.1 Statement B1: "I am satisfied with the quality of training offered by the MPD"

Respondents were asked to express their agreements or disagreements based on their satisfaction with the quality of training offered by the MPD. The feedback from these respondents is presented in Table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1: Quality of training rendered by the MP Division

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	9	8.7	9.0	9.0
	Disagree	21	20.4	21.0	30.0
	Neither agree nor disagree	18	17.5	18.0	48.0
	Agree	39	37.9	39.0	87.0
	Strongly agree	13	12.6	13.0	100.0
	Total	100	97.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Table 7.1 above depicts feedback from the respondents. The researcher noted that 39 individuals (n=39, 37.9%) agreed that they are satisfied with the quality of training provided by the MPD. Additionally, 18 respondents (n=18, 17.5%) neither agreed nor disagreed, while 21 respondents (n=21, 20.4%) expressed dissatisfaction with the

quality of training (as indicated by their reaction to Statement B1). Moreover, three (3) respondents (n=3, 2.9%) did not respond to the question. Thus, these findings clearly demonstrate that the majority of the respondents, (n=37.9%), expressed satisfaction with the quality of training offered by the MPD.

7.2.2.2 Statement B2: “The military police division training motivates and sharpens the military police officers thinking ability to take better decisions in time”

Respondents were further requested to express their agreement or disagreement about the training programs within the MPD aimed at motivating and sharpening MPOs’ thinking ability to take better decisions in time. Table 7.2 below, depicts the feedback from participants.

Table 7.2: Motivation and sharpness of MPD training

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	2.9	3.0	3.0
	Disagree	14	13.6	13.9	16.8
	Neither agree nor disagree	27	26.2	26.7	43.6
	Agree	49	47.6	48.5	92.1
	Strongly agree	8	7.8	7.9	100.0
	Total	101	98.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Based on the participants’ responses in Table 7.2 above, 49 respondents (n=49, 47.6%) agreed that the training provided by the MP Division enhances the thinking skills of MP officials, enabling them to make better and timely decisions. On the other hand, 14 respondents (n=14, 13.6%) disagreed with this statement, while 27 respondents (n=27, 26.2%) neither agreed nor disagreed, and 2 respondents (n=2, 1.9%) did not provide a response. In this regard, based on the data presented in Table 7.2 above, the majority of the respondents (n=49, 47.6%), perceived that the MP Division training effectively motivates and enhances their thinking abilities, leading to improved decision-making in a timely manner.

7.2.2.3 Statement B3: “The training received so far in military police division is enough to enable you to perform your tasks effectively”

In this study, the researcher requested the participants to express their agreement or disagreement based on the training they had undergone within the MPD whether it was sufficient to equip them with the capabilities needed to carry out their tasks effectively. Figure 7.3 below depicts the responses in this regard.

Table 7.3: Adequateness of the MPD training

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	3.9	4.0	4.0
	Disagree	22	21.4	22.0	26.0
	Neither agree nor disagree	30	29.1	30.0	56.0
	Agree	36	35.0	36.0	92.0
	Strongly agree	8	7.8	8.0	100.0
	Total	100	97.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Based on the feedback provided by respondents in Table 7.3 above, the majority of the respondents (n=36, 35.0%) expressed their agreement that the training they received from the MP Division, equips them adequately to carry out their duties effectively. In contrast 22 participants disagreed with the assertion that the training imparted by the MP Division is sufficient to enable them to perform their tasks effectively (n=22, 21,4%). Meanwhile, a notable portion of 30 participants (n=30, 29.1%) opted for a neutral position, refraining from either endorsing or contesting the adequacy of the training provided. Furthermore, three (3) respondents (n=3, 2.9%) did not provide a specific response. Upon careful examination of the data from Table 7.3, it becomes evident that 35% of respondents believe that the training afforded to MPOs is sufficient for them to competently fulfill their duties. Conversely, 21% of respondents expressed reservations about the adequacy of the training provided by the MP Division for enabling them to perform their duties effectively.

7.2.2.4 Statement B4: “There is a gap in the current training of the military police division”

In this study respondents were asked to express their agreement or disagreement about the existence of gaps in the current training provided by the MPD. Table 7.4 below depicts the feedback from these respondents.

Table 7.4: Training discontinuity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Disagree	11	10.7	11.0	12.0
	Neither agree nor disagree	15	14.6	15.0	27.0
	Agree	56	54.4	56.0	83.0
	Strongly agree	17	16.5	17.0	100.0
	Total	100	97.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Data from Table 7.4 above, depicts the feedback obtained from respondents in relation to Statement B4, which aimed at evaluating the presence of deficiencies in the existing training of the MPD. The majority of the respondents (n=56, 54.4%), expressed agreement with Statement B4, signifying their belief in the existence of gaps within the current training framework of the MPD. In contrast 15 respondents (n=15, 14.6%) assumed a neutral standpoint, neither affirming nor refuting the statement. On the other hand, 11 respondents (n=11, 10.7%) dissented from Statement B4, contending that there are no observable gaps in the MPD's ongoing training initiatives. The feedback also illustrated that only three (3) respondents (n=3, 2.9%) refrained from providing a response.

7.2.2.5 Statement B5: “Military Police training received should be enhanced in order for it to be relevant as to enable you to be more effective in the field of work”

In this study respondents were asked to express their agreement or disagreement about whether MPD training received should be enhanced in order for it to be relevant

as to enable them to be more effective in the field of work. Table 7.5 overleaf depicts the participants' responses.

Table 7.5: MPD training enhancement

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Disagree	9	8.7	9.1	10.1
	Neither agree nor disagree	5	4.9	5.1	15.2
	Agree	49	47.6	49.5	64.6
	Strongly agree	35	34.0	35.4	100.0
	Total	99	96.1	100.0	
Missing	System	4	3.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Based on the feedback provided by respondents in Table 7.5 above, a clear consensus emerges regarding Statement B5. The majority of the respondents (n=49, 47.6%) expressed their agreement with Statement B5, advocating for the enhancement of MPD training to enhance its effectiveness. In contrast five (5) respondents (n=5, 4.9%) adopted a neutral stance, neither endorsing nor opposing the idea of strengthening the training. Conversely, nine (9) respondents (n=9, 8.7%) expressed a dissenting viewpoint, asserting that the existing Military Police training should not undergo enhancement in order to remain relevant and effective in their field of work. On the other hand, four (4) participants (n=4, 3.9%) refrained from providing a response. As such, the feedback from the majority of the participants (n=49, 47.6%) signifies a belief in the necessity of improving the training offered by the MPD.

7.2.2.6 Statement B6: “MP training provides you with confidence and prestige of good service delivery”

The respondents were asked to express their agreement or disagreement about whether MPD training received provides them with confidence and prestige of good service delivery. The responses provided by these respondents are displayed in Table 7.6 overleaf.

Table 7.6: Training inspiration

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	4.9	5.0	5.0
	Disagree	23	22.3	22.8	27.7
	Neither agree nor disagree	17	16.5	16.8	44.6
	Agree	39	37.9	38.6	83.2
	Strongly agree	17	16.5	16.8	100.0
	Total	101	98.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Based on the data presented in Table 7.6 above, it is evident that the majority of the respondents (n=39, 37.9%) expressed their agreement with the idea that their role as MPOs is positively influenced and inspired by the training received from the MPD. This training serves as a catalyst for delivering top-quality service. Conversely, 23 respondents (n=23, 22.3%) held a differing perspective, disagreeing with the notion that Military Police training instills in them the confidence and prestige associated with good service delivery. A segment consisting of 17 respondents (n=17, 16.5%) adopted a neutral stance, neither explicitly agreeing nor disagreeing with Statement B6 refraining from taking a definitive position in favour of or against it. However, two (2) respondents (n=2, 1.9%) did not provide specific responses to the question. In summary, the feedback from the respondents' underscores that a majority of the individuals (37.9%) believe that the training imparted by the MP Division plays a pivotal role in boosting their confidence to deliver exceptional service and upholding a sense of prestige in their roles as Military Police Officers.

7.2.2.7 Statement B7: “After training, the curriculum provides you an edge against your competitors (SAPS, Traffic Cops) when working shoulder to shoulder”

In this study respondents were asked to express their agreement or disagreement about whether the curriculum provides them with a competitive advantage over their peers, including SAPS and Traffic Cops, upon completing their training. The results of their responses are elaborated in the subsequent Table 7.7 overleaf.

Table 7.7: Curriculum rendering expectations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	8	7.8	8.0	8.0
	Disagree	22	21.4	22.0	30.0
	Neither agree nor disagree	29	28.2	29.0	59.0
	Agree	30	29.1	30.0	89.0
	Strongly agree	11	10.7	11.0	100.0
	Total	100	97.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The feedback from respondents in response to Statement B7 indicates that the majority of the respondents (n=30, 29.1%) acknowledged that the curriculum offers them a competitive advantage over their peers (SAPS, traffic cops) when collaborating closely after their training. In contrast, 29 respondents (n=29, 28.2%) expressed neutrality on the matter. Conversely, 22 respondents (21.4%) indicated that, in their view, the curriculum does not confer any advantage over their competitors (SAPS, traffic cops) when working in tandem after training. Notably, three (3) respondents (n=3, 2.9%) provided no response to Statement B7. Examining the data presented in Table 7.7 above, it is evident that a significant proportion of the respondents believe that the curriculum, post-training, equips them with superior knowledge compared to their competitors when working together.

7.2.2.8 Statement B8: “The training that is offered by MPD provides you with the modern policing needs to meet the current crime situation”

In this study respondents were asked to express their agreement or disagreement about whether the training provided by the MPD equips them with the modern policing skills necessary to address the current crime situation. The detailed outcomes of their responses is depicted in Table 7.8 overleaf.

Table 7.8: MPD training rendering modern policing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	7	6.8	6.9	6.9
	Disagree	28	27.2	27.7	34.7
	Neither agree nor disagree	26	25.2	25.7	60.4
	Agree	26	25.2	25.7	86.1
	Strongly agree	14	13.6	13.9	100.0
	Total	101	98.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The responses to Statement B8 from the respondents reveal that 26 respondents (n=25.2%) agreed, while the majority of the respondents (n=28, 27.2%) disagreed with the idea that the training provided by the MPD aligns with modern policing requirements for addressing the current state of crime. Furthermore, 26 respondents (n=26, 25.2%) neither agreed nor disagreed, and only two (2) respondents (n=2, 1.9%) provided no response to Statement B8. In that regard, it is noteworthy that a majority of the respondents expressed a positive stance toward Statement B8.

7.2.2.9 Statement B9: “Military Police training provides you with the ability to make quick decisions, act effectively without hesitation to any crime situation”

In this research, respondents were requested to indicate their agreement or disagreement regarding whether the Military Police training enables them to make swift decisions and respond effectively without hesitation in various crime situations. Statement B9 was formulated to assess the consistency of respondents' opinions about the military police training when compared to Statement B2. Based on the empirical data from respondents' feedback, which is presented in both Table 7.2 above and Table 7.9 below, it is evident that respondents consistently rate the impact of Military Police training on their ability to think effectively. The detailed results of their responses on Statement B9 are provided in Table 7.9 overleaf.

Table 7.9: Training offered by the MPD

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Disagree	27	26.2	26.7	27.7
	Neither agree nor disagree	29	28.2	28.7	56.4
	Agree	31	30.1	30.7	87.1
	Strongly agree	13	12.6	12.9	100.0
	Total	101	98.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The feedback received from respondents in Table 7.9 indicates that a total of 31 respondents (n=31, 30.1%) expressed agreement with Statement B9. In contrast, 29 respondents (n=29, 28.2%) neither agreed nor disagreed, while 27 respondents (n=27, 26.2%) disagreed and conveyed that the training from the MP Division does not enable them to make swift decisions and act effectively in various crime situations without hesitation. Additionally, two (2) respondents (n=2, 1.9%) did not provide a response. This feedback underscores that the majority of respondents believe that MP Division training equips them with the capacity to make quick decisions and respond effectively in crime situations without hesitation.

7.2.2.10 Statement B10: “Military Police training is well planned and tends towards improvement of your policing practices”

In this study respondents were asked to express their agreement or disagreement about whether MPD training is well planned and tends towards improvement of their policing practices. The results of their responses are elaborated in the subsequent Table 7.10 below

Table 7.10 MPD training design

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	8	7.8	8.0	8.0
	Disagree	29	28.2	29.0	37.0
	Neither agree nor disagree	18	17.5	18.0	55.0
	Agree	34	33.0	34.0	89.0
	Strongly agree	11	10.7	11.0	100.0
	Total	100	97.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The findings presented in Table 7.10 above indicates a divergence of opinions among respondents regarding their perceptions of Statement B10. In summary, 34 respondents (n=34, 33.0%) agree with the assertion that Military Police training is thoughtfully structured and geared towards enhancing their policing capabilities. Conversely, 29 respondents (n=28.2%) disagree with Statement B10, indicating that they believe the MPD training is not well organised and does not contribute to the improvement of their policing practices. Additionally, 18 respondents (n=18, 17.5%) neither agree nor disagree, while three (3) respondents (n=3, 2.9%) did not provide any response to the question. Consequently, based on the responses of the 34 individuals (n=34, 33.0%), it can be inferred that MPD training is perceived as well-planned and aimed at enhancing policing practices.

7.2.2.11 Statement B11: “After training you have supporting structure that keeps you up to date with constantly rapid changes as training evolves with time”

In this study respondents were asked to express their agreement or disagreement about whether they have access to a support system that helps them stay current with the continually rapid changes in training as it evolves over time. The responses provided by these respondents are displayed in Table 7.11 below.

Table 7.11: Supporting structure to render constant training regarding rapid changes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	13	12.6	12.9	12.9
	Disagree	39	37.9	38.6	51.5
	Neither agree nor disagree	25	24.3	24.8	76.2
	Agree	16	15.5	15.8	92.1
	Strongly agree	8	7.8	7.9	100.0
	Total	101	98.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Based on the data presented in Table 7.11 above, it is evident that 39 respondents (n=39, 37.9%) expressed disagreement with Statement B11, which posits that they have access to a supporting structure after training to keep them updated on the constant and rapid changes in evolving training. In contrast, 16 respondents (n=16, 15.5%) agreed with the statement, indicating that they do have such post-training

support structures in place. Furthermore, 25 respondents (n=25, 24.3%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement, and 2 respondents (n=2, 1.9%) did not provide any response. The data highlights that the majority of the respondents disagreed with Statement B11.

7.2.2.12 Statement B12: “After training, Military Police training gives you immediate improvement in knowledge and skills to carry out your job”

In this study respondents were asked to express their agreement or disagreement about whether Military Police training immediately enhances their knowledge and skills to perform their job effectively after completing their training. Statement B12 was specifically designed to assess the consistency of responses concerning the effectiveness of MPD training when compared to Statement B9. This consistency check aimed at validating the responses provided by the respondents. Statement B12 sought to collect feedback regarding the impact of MPD training after completion, asking respondents to evaluate the effectiveness of MPD training. The results of their responses are depicted in the subsequent Table 7.12 below.

Table 7.12: Immediate improvement in knowledge and skills

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	5.8	6.1	6.1
	Disagree	15	14.6	15.2	21.2
	Neither agree nor disagree	24	23.3	24.2	45.5
	Agree	41	39.8	41.4	86.9
	Strongly agree	13	12.6	13.1	100.0
	Total	99	96.1	100.0	
Missing	System	4	3.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The data displayed in Table 7.12 above, indicates that 41 respondents (n=41,39.8%) agreed with Statement B12, indicating that the MP Division training they underwent immediately enhanced their knowledge and skills for job performance "after training." In contrast, 15 respondents (n=15, 14.6%) held a differing viewpoint and disagreed with Statement B12. Additionally, 24 respondents (n=24, 23.3%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. Furthermore, four (4) respondents (n=4, 3.9%) refrained from providing a response regarding whether the MP Division training, after completion, led to an immediate improvement in their knowledge and skills for job

execution. Based on the findings presented in Table 7.12 above, it is evident that there is consistency in the responses given by the respondents, with most respondents expressing agreement with both Statement B9 and Statement B12.

7.2.2.13 Statement B13: “Military Police training attended enhances the culture of learning, to empower you to ultimately give higher returns in your job”

In this study respondents were asked to express their agreement or disagreement about whether Military Police training contributes to fostering a culture of learning, empowering them to deliver greater results in their job roles. The responses provided by these respondents are displayed in Table 7.13 below.

Table 7.13: Enhancing the culture of learning to empower MPOs to ultimately give higher returns in their job

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	2	1.9	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	12	11.7	12.1	14.1
	Neither agree nor disagree	27	26.2	27.3	41.4
	Agree	44	42.7	44.4	85.9
	Strongly agree	14	13.6	14.1	100.0
	Total	99	96.1	100.0	
Missing	System	4	3.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Based on the data presented in Table 7.13 above, respondents provided the following feedback: 44 respondents (n=44, 42.7%) expressed agreement with the notion that the MPD training they attended enhances a culture of learning and ultimately leads to improved job performance. Conversely, 14 respondents (n=14, 13.6%) did not share this viewpoint. Additionally, 27 respondents (n=27, 26.2%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement, and four (4) respondents (n=4, 3.9%) did not provide a specific response. These findings clearly illustrate that the majority, specifically 44 respondents (n=44, 42.7%), agreed that MPD training has positively influenced their job performance.

7.2.2.14 Statement B14: “Military Police training techniques raise the bar of your performance to attain firm target organisational objectives”

In this study respondents were requested to indicate their agreement or disagreement regarding whether the training techniques employed in Military Police training elevate their performance to achieve the organisation's set objectives. The results of their responses are depicted in the subsequent Table 7.14 below.

Table 7.14: Military Police training techniques for attaining targeted organisational objectives

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	2.9	3.0	3.0
	Disagree	18	17.5	18.2	21.2
	Neither agree nor disagree	28	27.2	28.3	49.5
	Agree	38	36.9	38.4	87.9
	Strongly agree	12	11.7	12.1	100.0
	Total	99	96.1	100.0	
Missing	System	4	3.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Based on the data presented in Table 7.14 above, the responses indicate that 38 respondents (n=38,36.9%) agreed that the training techniques employed in Military Police training enable them to achieve the organisation's set objectives. In contrast, 18 respondents (n=18, 17.5%) held the belief that MP Division training techniques contribute to reaching these firm organizational objectives. Additionally, 28 respondents (n=28, 27.2%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement, and four (4) respondents (n=4, 3.9%) did not provide a response. These responses collectively indicate that the majority of the respondents affirmed that Military Police training techniques establish higher standards that support their ongoing development in attaining firm organisational objectives.

7.2.2.15 Statement B15: “Military Police training is seen as a tool to increase productivity”

In this study, respondents were asked to express their agreement or disagreement about whether Military Police training is seen as a tool to increase productivity. The responses provided by these respondents are displayed in Table 7.15 overleaf.

Table 7.15: Military Police training as the tool to increase productivity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	2	1.9	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	16	15.5	16.2	18.2
	Neither agree nor disagree	17	16.5	17.2	35.4
	Agree	47	45.6	47.5	82.8
	Strongly agree	17	16.5	17.2	100.0
	Total	99	96.1	100.0	
Missing	System	4	3.9		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Based on the feedback collected from respondents in Table 7.15 above, it is apparent that 47 respondents (45.6%) expressed their agreement with the idea that MPD training is perceived as a means to enhance productivity. In contrast, 16 respondents (n=16, 15.5%) disagreed with this assertion. Meanwhile, 17 respondents (n=17, 16.5%) chose a neutral stance, refraining from taking a position either in favour of or against the notion that MPD training contributes to increased productivity.

Additionally, four (4) respondents (n=4, 3.9%) did not provide a specific response. A careful examination of the data from Table 7.15 above highlights that a significant majority, specifically, the majority of the respondents (n=47, 45.6%), believe that MPD training serves as a tool to boost productivity.

7.2.2.16 Statement B16: “military police training met your expectation”

In this study respondents were invited to convey their agreement or disagreement regarding whether MP training met their expectations. The responses are presented Table 7.16 below.

Table 7.16: Military police training in respect of MPOs expectation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	4.9	5.2	5.2
	Disagree	23	22.3	24.0	29.2
	Neither agree nor disagree	28	27.2	29.2	58.3
	Agree	29	28.2	30.2	88.5
	Strongly agree	11	10.7	11.5	100.0
	Total	96	93.2	100.0	
Missing	System	7	6.8		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Regarding Statement B16, which inquires whether MPD training met the expectations of MPOs, the feedback from respondents indicates that the majority of the respondents (n=29, 28.2%) agreed with the statement, followed by 28 respondents (n=28, 27.2%) who held a differing perspective and disagreed with Statement B16, on the other hand, 28 respondents (n=28, 27.2%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. Furthermore, only seven (7) respondents (n=7, 6.8%) did not provide a response. The data presented in Table 7.16 above, suggests that the majority (29) the respondents had their expectations met by MPD training. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that a considerable number of (28) respondents expressed dissatisfaction, indicating that some MPOs' expectations were not fulfilled by the MPD training.

7.2.2.17 Statement B17: “You always motivated to attend training that is provided by MPD”

In this study respondents were encouraged to express their agreement or disagreement regarding whether they consistently feel motivated to attend the training provided by the MPD. The responses from these respondents are depicted in the Table 7.17 below.

Table 7.17: Members motivated by training

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	2	1.9	2.1	2.1
	Disagree	25	24.3	25.8	27.8
	Neither agree nor disagree	25	24.3	25.8	53.6
	Agree	28	27.2	28.9	82.5
	Strongly agree	17	16.5	17.5	100.0
	Total	97	94.2	100.0	
Missing	System	6	5.8		
Total		103	100.0		

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

As illustrated in Table 7.17 above, the majority of the respondents (n=28, 27.2%) indicated their agreement with Statement B17, expressing that they are consistently motivated to attend training provided by the MPD. Meanwhile 25 respondents (n=25, 24.3%) mentioned that they are not always motivated to attend MPD training. Similarly, 25 respondents (n=25, 24.3%) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement and only six (6) respondents (n=6, 5.8%) did not provide a response. These findings from Table 7.17 above, suggest that not all MPOs are consistently motivated to attend MPD

training, despite the agreement of 28 respondents with the statement. The subsequent section presents and analyses data collected from the opinion Section C of the questionnaire, which includes open-ended questions.

7.2.3 Presentation and analysis of data emanating from Section C of the questionnaire

In Section C of the questionnaire featured open-ended questions. Respondents were mandated to share their own responses to the questions. Additionally, participants were invited to provide recommendations as part of the study. A collection of responses from the open-ended questionnaire questions in Section C is presented, which reflect some of the experiences and insights of the respondents regarding the MPD training. Following analysis includes the respondents' responses:

7.2.3.1 Opinion question C1: “What is training?”

In this study the respondents were asked about their understanding of the term, “training”, and the responses are presented in Table 7.18 below.

Table 7.18: Definition of training

	What is training?	Frequency	Percentage
Valid	Gaining of new knowledge	40	38.8
	Transferring of knowledge	19	18.4
	Transferring of skills	10	9.7
	Upgrade existing knowledge	7	6.8
	Process of teaching	6	5.8
	Makes me do my job better	4	3.9
	Training on a specific topic	3	2.9
	Don't know	1	1.0
	Total	90	87.4
Missing	System	13	12.6
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The definition of training was defined as follows by the respondents: the majority of the participants (n=40, 38.8%) stated that it is the gaining of new knowledge; 19 respondents (n=19, 18.4%) stated that it is the transferring of knowledge; 10 respondents (n=10, 9.7%) mentioned that it is the transferring of skills; seven (7) respondents (n=7, 6.8%) mentioned that it is the upgrading of existing knowledge; six (6) respondents (n=6, 5.8%) mentioned that it is a process of teaching; four (4)

respondents (n=4, 3.9%) stated that it makes them do their job better; (3) respondents (n=3, 2.9%) stated that it relates to training on a specific topic; and one (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) participant did not know.

The majority of the respondents (n=40, 38.8%) are in agreement that training is about gaining new knowledge, followed by 19 respondents (n=19, 18.4%) who mentioned that training is about the transferring of knowledge to others. Their responses are in line with the definition of training by Uddin (2012:5). The latter author averred that training is a planned and systematic effort to develop knowledge, skills and attitudes required by employees through learning experiences, to adequately achieve performance in a range of task job activities. Moreover, below are direct responses from some of the respondents that align with the previously provided explanation of the definition of training, further elucidating this concept:

R30: It is the action of teaching a person a particular skill or type of behaviour such as exercises or any other skills to empower employees with the necessary knowledge.

R96: Training refer to teaching and learning activities carried on for the purpose of helping members an organization to acquire skills and knowledge.

R101: Training is the process of imparting knowledge and skills to learners either formally or informally, in the context of a school or a training, this process takes place formally.

The respondents fully understood the question C1 “*What training is*”, although they provided various responses, their responses are consistent with the literature. For instance, Uddin (2012:5) defined training as a planned and systematic effort to develop knowledge, skills and attitudes required by employees through learning experiences, to adequately achieve performance in a range of task job activities.

7.2.3.2 Opinion question C2: “What is the primary purpose of Military Police training?”

In this study the respondents were asked for their opinion concerning the primary purpose of Military Police training. Their responses are presented in Table 7.19 overleaf.

Table 7.19: The primary purpose of Military Police training

What is the primary purpose of Military Police training?		Frequency	Percentage
Valid	Gaining new knowledge	14	13.6
	Transferring of skills	11	10.7
	Transferring of knowledge	8	7.8
	Makes me do my job better	8	7.8
	To combat crime/prevent crime	6	5.8
	Must reinforce the law and policies	5	4.9
	Applying the skills/knowledge learned	3	2.9
	Process of teaching	2	1.9
	To be proud of being a MP officer	2	1.9
	Don't know	2	1.9
	Training on a specific topic	1	1.0
	Training must be improved	1	1.0
	More Research & Development in training	1	1.0
	Material is outdated/poor quality	1	1.0
	To know the military laws	1	1.0
Total	66	64.1	
Missing	System	37	35.9
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Table 7.19 above depicts the respondents' responses to the question "*What is the primary purpose of Military Police Training?*" The total number of 103 respondents (n=103,100%) provided responses according to their understanding. The responses are as follows: the majority of the respondents (n=14, 13.6%) mentioned that it is gaining new knowledge; 11 respondents (n=11, 10.7%) mentioned that it the transferring of skills; eight (8) respondents (n=8,7.8%) mentioned that it is the transferring of knowledge; another eight (8) respondents (n=8, 7.8%) mentioned that it makes them do their job better; six (6)respondents (n=6, 5.8%) stated that it helps them to combat crime and prevent crime; five (5) respondents (n=5, 4.9%) stated that it helps to reinforce the law and policies; three (3) respondents (n=3, 2.9%) mentioned that it is the applying of the skills and knowledge learned.

Furthermore, two (2) respondents (n=2, 1.9%) stated that it is a process of teaching; another two (2) respondents (n=2, 1.9%) alluded that it is to be proud of being a Military Police Officer, only two (2) respondents (n=2, 1.9%) who did not respond; one (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that alluded that it is training on a specific topic; followed by another one (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) reported that it is to improve

training; one (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) reported that it helps with more research and development in training; one (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) reported that the material is outdated and of poor quality; and the other one (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) reported that it is about knowing the military law.

The table further illustrates that the majority of the respondents understood the primary purpose of training. On that note, fourteen (14) respondents (n=14, 13.6%) responded by illuminating that the purpose of training is to gain new knowledge. As such, eleven (11) respondents (n=11, 10.7%) alluded that the purpose of training is to transfer skills. The respondents provided a variety of response on what the primary purpose of Military Police training is. Furthermore, below are direct excerpts of some of the respondents' responses that were in accordance with the explanation provided to explain the primary purpose of Military Police training and elaborate further that:

R19: Primary purpose for Military Police training is to better equip MPOs to effectively perform their different tasks at their optimum abilities.

R30: I think the purpose of Military Police training is to provide MP officials with training skills and knowledge that is necessary to perform their duties.

Nassazi (2013:21) posits that the main purpose of training is the elimination of risks, as trained personnel can utilise materials and equipment better and more economically, reducing and avoiding waste by increasing MPOs' awareness. Furthermore, the improvement of one or more areas of expertise of MPO's skills to become more efficient, productive and happier and it is an important tool for increasing MPOs motivation by improving knowledge, skills, attitudes, abilities and competences needed to work effectively. Therefore, the responses from the respondents are in support of the explanation provided by Nassazi (2013:21) on the primary purpose of training.

7.2.3.3 Opinion question C3: "In your opinion, what do you think of the current MPD training?"

In this study the respondents were asked for their opinions concerning the current MP training. Their responses in this regard are presented in Table 7.20 overleaf.

Table 7.20: Perceptions of the current MPD training

In your opinion, what do you think of the current MPD training?		Frequency	Percentage
Valid	Training must be improved	45	43.7
	Yes, met my expectations	18	17.5
	More Research & Development in training	7	6.8
	No, the training is not sufficient or enough	5	4.9
	Material is outdated/poor quality	3	2.9
	Better trainers needed	3	2.9
	Don't know	3	2.9
	Yes, sufficient and enough	2	1.9
	Gaining new knowledge	1	1.0
	Makes me do my job better	1	1.0
	Training must be credited	1	1.0
	Improve the curriculum	1	1.0
	To know the military laws	1	1.0
	Knowing all aspects of Military Police	1	1.0
Total	92	89.3	
Missing	System	11	10.7
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Table 7.20 above depicts responses from the respondents. The majority of the respondents (n=45, 43.7%) were of the view that the MPD training must be improved; eighteen (18) respondents (n=18, 17.5%) mentioned that the MPD training meet their expectations; seven (7) respondents (n=7, 6.8%) mentioned that more research and development is needed; five (5) respondents (n=5, 4.9%) were of the view that the training is not sufficient or enough; three (3) respondents (n=3, 2.9%) illuminated that the training material is outdated and is off poor quality whilst three (3) respondents (n=3, 2.9%) mentioned that there is a need for better trainers; the other (3) respondents (n=3, 2.9%) responded by stating that they do not know; two (2) respondents (n=2, 1.9%) believed that the current training is sufficient and enough.

One (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that the MPD training is about gaining new knowledge; another one (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) responded by stating that the training makes them to do their job easier; furthermore, one (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) stated that training must be credited; one (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) believed that the curriculum must be improved; one (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) stated that they want to know the military laws; one (1) respondent (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that it is about knowing all the aspects of the military police.

The majority of the respondents (n=45, 43.7%) suggest that there is a need for the MPD to improve the current training provided to members. However, 18 (n=18, 17.5%) respondents were of the view that the current training provided by the MPD met their training expectations. Following are the respondents' responses about the current MPD training:

R13: Training is up to standard however the school lack instructions or facilitators who are competent (R13).
The current training system is not up to date and requires improvement (R18).

R43: In the Mil Pol a lot of improvement is required, this includes revising the curriculum.

R59: There are some gaps in the MPD training such as out-dated knowledge therefore research need to be done as well as updating resources.

Evidence from the above responses indicates that the respondents are not entirely satisfied with the current MP Division training. Their rationale is based on but not limited to the lack of competent facilitators and the outdated training system provided at the MP School.

7.2.3.4 Opinion question C4: “In your opinion do you think Military Police training you attended met your expectation?”

The respondents were asked for their opinions whether the Military Police training they attended met their expectation. Table 7.21 overleaf depicts their responses in this regard.

Table 7.21: Military Police training and MPOs' expectations

In your opinion do you think Military Police training you attended met your expectation?		Frequency	Percentage
Valid	No, the training is not sufficient or enough	47	45.6
	Yes, sufficient and enough	42	40.8
	Don't know	2	1.9
	Total	91	88.3
Missing	System	12	11.7
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The purpose of this question was to determine whether the MP Division training output met respondents' expectations, and the extent to which it was met. The majority of the respondents (n=45.6%) were of the view that the training is not sufficient or enough,

implying that the current training provided to members of the MPD does not meet their expectations. Forty-two (42) respondents (n=42, 40.8%) had no issues with the training, they confirmed that it was sufficient and enough and it meets their expectations. Two (2) respondents (n=2, 1.9%) did not respond citing the fact that they do not know. The majority of the participants were not satisfied with the training they received; they complained that the Military Police training does not meet their expectations. Following are the direct responses from some of the respondents giving an extent to which their expectations were not met by the MP Division training:

R25: It did to an extent, more can be done.

R37: Not at all, is very much behind.

R54: I have benefited from the training I attended, however more can be done in these training courses.

R58: Yes, my expectation was met, the military police training was adequate and very effective, and thus some of the materials outdated and does not meet modern requirement.

R60: No, the facilitators need to have extensive insight on the subject matter and that unfortunately was not the case, the course material need to be updated.

R88: No, facilitator have grade 12 like I do thus I feel that what they know I already know, and what they teach I can teach.

R102: No, because what I experience in my day to day work, investigations it different.

The above-mentioned responses from the responders confirm the fact that their expectations were not met when they attended the MPD training. In this regard, it is imperative that the delivery of the training takes into account the learners' expectations. On the other hand, respondent R58 appeared to be satisfied with the training that is provided by the MPD, but cited some challenges with outdated learning material which does not cater for modern requirements, such as technology.

7.2.3.5 Opinion question C5: “What was your expectation?”

The respondents were asked about their expectations when they attended the Military Police training. Table 7.22 overleaf reflects their responses in this regard.

Table 7.22: MPOs' expectations

What was your expectation?		Frequency	Percentage
Valid	Applying the skills/knowledge learned	26	25.2
	No, the training is not sufficient or enough	11	10.7
	Knowing all aspects of Military Police	9	8.7
	Yes, sufficient and enough	8	7.8
	To be confident to execute my training	6	5.8
	Improve the curriculum	4	3.9
	Don't know	4	3.9
	To be proud of being a MP officer	2	1.9
	Don't know if the training is sufficient or enough	2	1.9
	Training must be credited	2	1.9
	More attention to practical aspects of learning	2	1.9
	Better trainers needed	2	1.9
	Need modern facility	1	1.0
	More Research & Development in training	1	1.0
	To know the military laws	1	1.0
	Only partly efficient	1	1.0
	More practical, physical training needed	1	1.0
	Material needs to be revised	1	1.0
	Quality/standard not good	1	1.0
Total	85	82.5	
Missing	System	18	17.5
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Table 7.22 above depicts the responses of the participants on the question about their expectations to the MPD training. The majority of the respondents (n=26, 25.6%) mentioned that they expect to apply the skills and knowledge learned; eleven (11) respondents (n=11, 10.7%) are of the view that the training is not sufficient or enough; nine (9) respondents (n=9, 8.7%) expected to know all the aspects of the military police; eight (8) respondents (n=8, 7.8%) mentioned that training is sufficient and enough; six (6) respondents (n=6, 5.8%) averred that they expected to be confident in order to execute their training.

Four (4) respondents (n=4, 3.9%) expected improvement in the curriculum; another four (4) respondents (n=4, 3.9%) did not respond; two (2) respondents (n=2, 1.9%) expected to be proud of being military police officers; two respondents (n=1.9%) were not sure whether the training is sufficient or enough; two respondents (1.9%) were of the view that training should be credited as a form of motivation to further their studies, two (2) respondents (n=2, 1.9%) mentioned that more attention must be given to the

practical aspects of learning; two (2) (n=2, 1.9%) are of the view that better trainers are needed; one (1) (n=1, 1.0%) stated that modern facility is needed; one (1) (n=1, 1.0%) stated that more research and development is needed; one responded (n=1, 1.0%) expected to know the military laws; one responded (n=1, 1.0%) responded that only partly efficient; one responded (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that more practical, physical training is needed; one responded (n=1, 1.0%) stated that materials need to be revised; and one responded (n=1, 1.0%) was of the understanding that the quality and standards are not good.

The reason for the researcher to pose this question was to find out whether the respondents had any expectations with regards to the training provided by the MPD, and to further ascertain whether those expectations are met the current training. In addition, the researcher asked this question after question C4 to get a glimpse of the respondents' perceptions of MPD training. Following below are the direct responses from some of the respondents responding to the above-mentioned question:

R15: To be fully equipped with knowledge and skills in line with international standards (R15).

R37: I want to be a good police [officer], but this training does not give me confidence (R37).

R52: To be able to acquire more skills and information.

R60: I expected that upon the end of the training I would have, at least the basic skills set needed for me to fully execute police duties.

R88: More knowledge and skills.

R102: To give me knowledge and to equip me with right info to do my work good and professional.

The above responses illustrate that the majority of the respondents (n=26, 25.2%) have a clear expectation that the training provided by the military police should enable them to apply their skills and knowledge. They further mentioned that the MPD training should provide for enhanced learning practices that would prepare them as potential MPOs to deal with real-world crime situations. Calculating outputs and outcomes in determining whether training programs met learners' expectations is very important and should be a factor of concern in the MPD. These responses illustrate that the respondents are interested in gaining more knowledge.

7.2.3.6 Opinion question C6: “According to you, is the training of the MPD sufficient to enable you to perform your tasks effectively?”

The respondents were asked whether the Military Police training is sufficient to enable them to perform their tasks effectively. They responded as indicated in Table 7.23 below.

Table 7.23: Adequacy of the MPD training

According to you, is the training of the MPD sufficient to enable you to perform your tasks effectively?		Frequency	Percentage
Valid	No, the training is not sufficient or enough	46	44.7
	Yes, sufficient and enough	41	39.8
	Don't know	4	3.9
	Only partly efficient	2	1.9
	Total	93	90.3
Missing	System	10	9.7
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Based on Table 7.23 above, respondents’ responses are as follows: the majority of the respondents (n=47, 44.7%) mentioned that training provided by the MPD is not enough or adequate. In contrast, 41 respondents (n=41, 39.8%) are of the view that the training is sufficient and enough; four respondents (n=4, 3.9%) stated that they did not know; and two respondents (n=2, 1.9%) mentioned that the training is partly efficient.

In this regard, the majority of the respondents believed that the MP Division training provided is not enough to enable them to perform their tasks effectively. Following below are the direct responses from some of the respondents regarding the MP Division training that is provided:

R30: It is not sufficient however it does provide average knowledge and idea on how to perform our duties effectively.

R63: The Military Police Div training still need to be aligned, it should be sufficient once there are enough resources, and people who comprehend training.

R78: No, member coming back MP School to be APMS of a MP station are not equipped with the necessary knowledge of do their task properly and region must empower APMS by means to mentors.

R80: How do you expect the MPD training to transfer enough skills and information when the facilitator are not qualified and struggle with understanding their curriculum.

From the above responses from respondents, it is clear that the MP Division training was unable to meet their objectives. As such, the respondents were concerned about the effectiveness of such training in the MP Division and the dangers posed by the inadequate training towards MPOs.

7.2.3.7 Opinion question C7: “In your opinion, is the current MPD training enough to transfer all information and necessary skills required by MPOs under training?”

The respondents were asked for their opinions regarding the adequacy of the MPD’s current training insofar as providing all the information and required skills for military police officer training. Table 7.24 below illustrates their responses in this regard.

Table 7.24: MPD training enough to transfer all information and necessary skills required by MPOs

In your opinion, is the current MPD training enough to transfer all information and necessary skills required by MPOs under training?		Frequency	Percentage
	Not enough to transfer information	44	42.7
	Enough to transfer all information	29	28.2
	Don't know if the training is sufficient or enough	5	4.9
	Yes, sufficient and enough	2	1.9
	No, the training is not sufficient or enough	2	1.9
	Not sure it is enough to transfer information	2	1.9
	Only partly efficient	1	1.0
	Total	85	82.5
Missing	System	18	17.5
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The responses of the respondents indicated that the majority of the respondents (n=42.7%) mentioned that the MP Division training is not enough to enable them to transfer information; on the other hand, 29 respondents (n=29, 28.2%) were in agreement that the training is enough to enable them to transfer all information; five respondents (n=5, 4.9%) mentioned that they do not know if the training is sufficient or enough; two respondents (n=2, 1.9%) mentioned that the training is sufficient and enough; the other two respondents (n=2, 1.9%) indicated that training is not sufficient or enough; two more respondents (n=2, 1.9%) responded by mentioning that they are not sure if the training is enough to enable them to transfer information and only one responded (n=1, 1.0%) who indicated that training is only partly efficient.

Following are direct responses from some of the respondents to substantiate that the training is not enough and does not allow the transfer of knowledge and required skills.

These respondents stated the following:

R28: Time allocation needs to be extended for training so that there is enough time to transfer skills and knowledge, training should be practical and stimulating for the trainee.

R74: Things are done difference at the station than what we have being training.

R86: No, it is not enough more skills and training should be developed or out sources.

R92: I am not sure, because spending such years without attending courses.

R101: Not at all, this is because the instructors or facilitators themselves knows nothing, about policing hence they are expected to impart knowledge and skills to learners.

Based on the majority of the respondents (n=44, 42.7%), it is clear that current MP Division training is not sufficient to enable MPOs to be at liberty to transfer information and skilled acquired during training. This implies that there are some improvements that should be implemented within the MPD based on the current training provided. Question C7 was the follow-up of question C6, furthermore, the researcher noted that there might not be immediate skills transfer for MPOs based on inadequate training due to lack of resources within the MPD Officials under training.

7.2.3.8 Opinion question C8: “How well does the MPD training capacitate the MPOs with necessary policing knowledge, abilities and skills to perform their tasks independently?”

The respondents were asked for their opinions regarding the extent to which military police training provides military police officers with the necessary police knowledge, skills and abilities to carry out their duties independently. Table 7.25 depicts their responses in this regard.

Table 7.25: Enhancement of the MPOs by the MP Division training

How well does the MPD training enhance the MPOs with necessary policing knowledge, abilities and skills to perform their tasks independently?		Frequency	Percentage
	Yes, it enhances officials with necessary knowledge, abilities and skills	37	35.9
	No, it does not enhance officials with necessary skills, knowledge and abilities	36	35.0
	Don't know if it enhances skills, knowledge and abilities	4	3.8
	Yes, there are challenges	2	1.9
	Material needs to be revised	1	1.0
	It depends on the passion of the individual	1	1.0
	No comment, don't know	1	1.0
	Better development of facilitators	1	1.0
	Total	85	82.5
Missing	System	18	17.5
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

Based on the information provided by the respondents, the majority of the participants (n=37, 35.9%) responded that training does enhance officials with the necessary knowledge, abilities and skills; on the other hand, 36 respondents (n=36, 35.0%) mentioned that training does not enhance officials with the necessary knowledge, abilities and skills; four respondents (n=4, 3.8%) stated that they do not know; two respondents (n=2, 1.9%) acknowledged that there are challenges, one respondent (n=1, 1.0%) stated that the material needs to be revised; the other respondent (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that it depends on the passion of an individual; furthermore, one responded (n=1, 1.0%) did not have any comments since they did not respond; and the last responded (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that there is a need for the development of facilitators.

The majority of the respondents (n=37, 35.9%) were of the view that the current training provides and enhances the MPO with the required policing knowledge, abilities and skills to perform their tasks independently. Moreover, below are direct responses from some of the respondents explaining the extent to which military police training provides MPOs with the necessary police knowledge, skills and abilities to carry out their duties independently. The respondents mentioned the following:

R28: Honestly not that well, MPOs still need to enhance their knowledge.

R35: Training is like they teach us for the assessment.

R50: We are trained for promotional not for knowledge.

R53: Not that good as we find people came back from course without any change.

R101: If I have to give it a rating out of 10, I would give it two, members are trained to pass the course but not to gain knowledge that they can apply to their daily duties independently.

The above narratives from the respondents' responses clearly suggests that the MPD training is not well structured to give the MPOs necessary policing knowledge, abilities and skills to perform their tasks independently. As such, it implies that most MPOs cannot perform their tasks independently due to lack of training.

7.2.3.9 Opinion question C9: "In your opinion, do you think there are challenges in the MPD training?"

The respondents were asked for their opinions concerning the challenges within the MPD training. Their responses in this regard are presented in Table 7.26 below.

Table 7.26: Challenges in the MPD training

In your opinion, do you think there are challenges in the MPD training		Frequency	Percentage
Valid	Yes, there are challenges	64	62.1
	No, there are no challenges	18	17.5
	No comment, don't know	2	1.9
	Total	84	81.6
Missing	System	19	18.4
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The majority of the respondents (n=64, 62.1%) mentioned that there are challenges within the MPD training; on the other hand, 18 respondents (n=18, 17.5%) are of the view that there are no challenges; and only two respondents (n=2, 1.9%) who had no comments, did not respond. Following are direct excerpts of some of the respondents' responses which were chosen randomly and in no particular order by the researcher further explaining the challenges engulfing the MPD training:

R21: Yes, there is, most trainers are not experts and are not confident about what they train so they need to be rotated to see what the practical on the ground is.

R60: The challenges are disappointingly endless, from the old environment and outdated curriculum to the facilitator that know nothing on the subject matter and shortage of resources too.

R99: Yes, I feel that people who are at Military Police School are not fit to be instructor because they struggle to relay the knowledge to the learners.

It is also worth mentioning that some of the challenges raised range from lack of resources, no subject matter experts, outdated curriculum and instructors struggle to transfer knowledge to learners. Based on the responses from the majority of the participants, the researcher noted that there are challenges that require urgent attention in the current training provided by the MPD.

7.2.3.10 Opinion question C10: “What can be factors that hinder MPD training?”

The respondents were asked for their opinions regarding the factors that hinder MPD training. Table 7.27 below is a depiction of their responses in this regard.

Table 7.27: Factors that hinder MPD training

What can be factors that hinder MPD training		Frequency	Percentage
Valid	Lack of resources (i.e course materials)	22	21.4
	Negativity of instructors	13	12.6
	Misuse/misallocation of training funds	7	6.8
	Lack of training methods	7	6.8
	Lack of commitment by officials	5	4.9
	Nothing hindering the training	5	4.9
	No comment, don't know	3	2.9
	Training must be credited	2	1.9
	Need to develop facilitators more	2	1.9
	Better development of facilitators	2	1.9
	Barely the minimum, basics only	2	1.9
	Language barriers	2	1.9
	Timing of the courses	2	1.9
	Not enough funding/resources	1	1.0
	Material is outdated/poor quality	1	1.0
	More attention to practical aspects of learning	1	1.0
	Improve the curriculum	1	1.0
	Only partly efficient	1	1.0
	More practical, physical training needed	1	1.0
	Yes, there are challenges	1	1.0
	No, there are no challenges	1	1.0
	Training is promotion not knowledge	1	1.0
	Outdated/old curriculum	1	1.0
Nepotism/Favouritism	1	1.0	
Total	85	82.5	
Missing	System	18	17.5
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The majority of the respondents (n=22, 21.4%) mentioned lack of resources such as course materials; on that note, 13 respondents (n=13, 12.6%) reported negativity of instructors; seven respondents (n=7, 6.8%) mentioned that there is a misuse and misallocation of training funds; another seven respondents (n=7, 6.8%) stated that there is lack of training methods; other five respondents (n=5, 4.9%) mentioned lack of commitment by officials; another five respondents (n=5, 4.9%) mentioned that there is nothing that is hindering training; about three respondents (n=3, 2.9%) had no comment, do not know; about two respondents (n=2, 1.9%) mentioned that training should be credited; other two respondents (n=2, 1.9%) mentioned that there should be better development of facilitators; the response of the other two responders (n=2, 1.9%) suggested that there are barely the minimum, only basics; two other respondents (n=2, 1.9%) mentioned language as a barrier; and the other two respondents (n=2, 1.9%) suggested that there should be timing of courses; two participants (n=2, 1.9%) stated that there is a need for more development of facilitators; one participant (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned lack of funds/resources.

One participant (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that the material is outdated/of poor quality; one participant (n=1, 1.0%) is of the view that more attention should be directed to the practical aspects of training; one other participant (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that the curriculum should be improved; the other participant (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that it is only partly efficient; one respondent (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that there is a need for more practical, physical training; the other participant (n=1, 1.0%) agreed that there are challenges. On the other hand, one other participant (n=1, 1.0%) differed with the latter and mentioned that there are no challenges; one participant (n=1, 1.0%) stated that training is promotion, not knowledge; one participant (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that the curriculum is outdated; and the other participant (n=1, 1.0%) complained about nepotism/ favouritism.

Based on the responses of the respondents, it was evident that there are factors that hinder MPD training. Although five respondents (n=5, 4.9%) felt that nothing is hindering training. Following below are the verbatim responses concerning some of the factors that hinder MPD training:

R4: Lack of confidence as a result of low level of facilitators competency and skills to add value in the training.

R34: Outdated curriculum and training aids, more trainers needed, most personnel staffed in training do not have passion and skills to offer training.

R50: Facilitators used in training they don't go an extra mile to give us something new to research before coming to the class.

R64: Skills and knowledge passed are not use in practical's situation, plus the time allocated for the course is not enough.

The majority of the respondents (n=22, 21.4%) agree that there are factors hindering training provided to MPOs, as indicated by Cetron (2017:2) in Section 6.2 of Chapter 6 in this study, such as inappropriate measures and even poor service delivery by the police are linked to the quality of the training of police officers.

7.2.3.11 Opinion question C11: “If there are challenges in the MPD training, in your opinion, what should be done to improve MPD Training?”

The respondents were asked for their suggestions for improving the training of the MPD in the future. Their responses are shown in Table 7.28 below.

Table 7.28: Suggestions to improve the current MPD training

If there are challenges in the MPD training, in your opinion, what should be done to improve MPD Training?		Frequency	Percentage
Valid	Lack of resources (i.e course materials)	12	11.7
	Improve the curriculum	8	7.8
	Recruitment drive towards youngsters	7	6.8
	Change management	7	6.8
	Appoint original leaders that are invested	7	6.8
	Bring in specialists from outside to assist with training	7	6.8
	None/No comment	5	4.9
	Benchmarking is essential	4	3.9
	All members must be placed at investigation section	3	2.9
	The budget is not enough	3	2.9
	Transformation on the training	3	2.9
	More attention to practical aspects of learning	2	1.9
	Outdated/old curriculum	2	1.9
	Nepotism/Favouritism	2	1.9
	Mandatory Accreditation of facilitators	2	1.9
	Review of any suggestions from people on the ground	2	1.9
	Better trainers needed	1	1.0
	Need modern facility	1	1.0
	No comment, don't know	1	1.0
	Better development of facilitators	1	1.0
	Misuse/misallocation of training funds	1	1.0
	Lack of training methods	1	1.0
	Timing of the courses	1	1.0
Seminars to be held as challenges are too big for the school	1	1.0	
Total	84	81.6	

If there are challenges in the MPD training, in your opinion, what should be done to improve MPD Training?		Frequency	Percentage
Missing	System	19	18.4
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The majority of the respondents (n=11.7%) mentioned lack of resources such as course materials; eight participants (n=8, 7.8%) mentioned that the curriculum should be improved; seven participants (n=7, 6.8%) mentioned recruitment of youngsters as trainers, they might bring innovation and better ideas; other seven participants (n=7, 6.8%) mentioned change management; seven participants (n=7, 6.8%) stated a need to appoint original leaders who might bring changes and are invested; seven participants (n=7, 6.8%) are of the view that specialists from outside should be brought in to assist with training; five respondents (n=5, 4.9%) reserved their comments.

Four respondents (n=4, 3.9%) mentioned that benchmarking is essential; three participants (n=3, 2.9%) felt that all members should be placed at investigation section; another three respondents (n=3, 2.9%) mentioned that the budget is not enough; other three participants (n=3, 2.9%) suggested transformation on the training; two participants (n=2, 1.9%) mentioned that more attention should be focused on the practical aspects of training; other two participants (n=2, 1.9%) mentioned that the curriculum is outdated; two participants (n=2, 1.9%) indicated nepotism/favouritism; two participants (n=2, 1.9%) mentioned that there should be mandatory accreditation of facilitators.

Two participants (n=2, 1.9%) suggested that training review from people on the ground; one respondent (n=1, 1.0%) stated that there is a need for better trainers; one respondent (n=1, 1.0%) suggested a need for modern facility; only one respondent (n=1, 1.0%) who didn't want to comment/do not know; one respondent (n=1, 1.0%) suggested better development of facilitators; one respondent (n=1, 1.0%) stated the misuse/misallocation of training funds; one respondent (n=1, 1.0%) is of the view that there is lack of training methods; one respondent (n=1, 1.0%) commented on the timing of courses and one respondent (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned a need for seminars to be held as challenges are too big for the school.

The respondents raised numerous challenges. The direct responses by some of the respondents' suggestions for future improvements in the MPD training are shown below:

R2: Allocate enough budget to improve training facilities and training aids. Ensure that the instructors or trainers are empowered with necessary skills to impart knowledge.

R17: They need to concentrate more in practical aspect than theoretical.

R68: Every organisational challenge can be fixed by simply appointing organisational leaders that are actually invested in ensuring that the ship they are steering is in sound.

R101: Facilitators must have at least a national diploma in policing or degree in policing, the officer commanding must have at least a master degree in policing so that he/she can be in a better position to provide proper guidance in terms of police training.

The respondents acknowledged that there are challenges facing the MPD training and suggested on methods that could improve the situation. Some of the suggestions are that the training should concentrate more on providing practical rather than theory. Another suggestion is that the instructors should have formal qualifications, at least a National Diploma in Policing. There was also a suggestion that the Officer Commanding of the School must at least have a Master's Degree in Policing so that they could be in a better position to advice on policing matters.

7.2.3.12 Opinion question C12: “Do you think MPD training provides you with multiple policing skills that enable you to advice colleagues in terms of policing aspects?”

The respondents were asked whether the MPD training provides them with multiple policing skills that enable them to advice colleagues in terms of policing aspects. Their responses in this regard are presented in Table 7.29 overleaf.

Table 7.29: MPD training of multiple skills

Do you think MPD training provides you with multitude policing skills that enable you to advice colleagues in terms of policing aspects?		Frequency	Percentage
Valid	Yes, training provides you with skills to advice colleagues in terms of policing aspects	41	39.8
	No, training does not provide you with skills to advice colleagues in terms of policing aspects	40	38.8
	Don't know	1	1.0
	Theory only - experience is the best teacher	1	1.0
	Refinement needed	1	1.0
	Total	84	81.6
Missing	System	19	18.4
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The majority of the respondents (n=41, 39.8%) agreed that the training provided by the MPD equips them with knowledge and skills; on the other hand, 40 respondents (n=40, 38.8%) mentioned that training does not provide them with skills to enable them to advice their colleagues in terms of aspects of policing; one participant (n=1, 1.0%) did not comment; one other respondent (n=1, 1.0%) mentioned that training contains theory only; and the other one participant (1.0%) mentioned the need for refinement.

In this regard, the majority of the respondents (n=41, 39.8%) agree that the training does provide them with the necessary skills and knowledge in order for them to be able to advice their colleagues on policing aspects. There is a thin line between those who agree with those who disagrees. However, 40 respondents (n=40, 38.8%) disagree with their colleagues and further elaborated that training provided by the MPD does not provide them with the necessary skills. Moreover, below are direct responses to some of the respondents' further explaining whether the MPD training provides them with multitude policing skills that enable them to advice colleagues in terms of policing aspects:

R2: No, it doesn't, because the instructors are not well trained and mostly do not have skills to ensure whatever they are presenting or teaching is clearly understood.

R30: Yes, it does provide a multitude policing skills however, not enough to match the standard of SAPS.

R54: Mil Pol Div trainers do provide us with multitude policing skills, however they could introduce us new knowledge and skills.

R56: I personally cannot answer as I only received basic training, the knowledge I have I acquired it at unit level.

R68: I would not use the word multitude the training honestly just gives the bare minimum most information is either missing or it would not be usefully in this century.

R101: It doesn't at all, members are trained within a very short space of time as compared to our counterparts being the South African Police Service members who are trained for a year and thereafter put a mentorship programme.

The respondents complained about instructors who are not well trained and have no skills to transfer clear knowledge to the understanding of learners. Some mentioned that the allocated time for training of MPOs is inadequate as compared to their counterpart being the SAPS.

7.2.3.13 Opinion question C13: “Do you think Military Police training is seen as an essential aspect in terms of modifying knowledge and skills?”

The respondents were asked whether the Military Police training is seen as an essential aspect in terms of modifying knowledge and skills. Their responses are presented in Table 7.30 below.

Table 7.30: MPD training seen as an important tool

Do you think Military Police training is seen as an essential aspect in terms of modifying knowledge and skills?		Frequency	Percentage
Valid	No, not currently	50	48.5
	Yes, ability to plan, schedule and prioritise	26	25.2
	Don't know/not sure	4	3.8
	Definitely, without training they can learn the wrong things from peers	1	1.0
	Aging police force and still a long way to go	1	1.0
	Total	82	79.6
Missing	System	21	20.4
Total		103	100.0

(Source: Feedback from the respondents)

The majority of the respondents (n=50, 48.5%) implied that the current Military Police Training is not seen as an essential aspect in terms of modifying knowledge and skills, hence they responded with a 'No'. On the other hand, 26 respondents (n=26, .25.2%) agree that the Military Police training is seen as an essential aspect in terms of modifying knowledge and skills. Four respondents (n=4,3.88%) were not sure whether MP training is essential or not. One responded (n=1, 1.0%) cited that without training they might not be able to gain skills and they might be ill informed by learning from their peers; and the other one participant (n=1, 1.0%) stated that police force is aging

there should be new, young, innovative trainers. Moreover, below are direct responses of some of the respondents that further elucidating that the current Military Police Training is not seen as an essential aspect in terms of modifying knowledge and skills.

R1: Not really, because the instructors/presenters do not possess the required skills and knowledge.

R7: Currently no, training is no more active at MPD training, there is no more training support.

R18: No because it requires more transformation in the future.

R19: I do not think so and I hope this this might be well seen problem in this Division.

R39: In my opinion training in the MPD is not being taken seriously.

An overwhelming majority of the respondents are of the view that the kind of training provided by the MPD is not adequate and this could be attributed to the fact that instructors or presenters do not possess the necessary skills and knowledge. Furthermore, respondents mentioned that training is not taken seriously. In the following section the researcher presents phase two of qualitative interpretation of results.

7.3 PHASE TWO: QUALITATIVE INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

To augment the findings and address any potential limitations of the questionnaire, a qualitative approach was employed in the form of interviews. These interviews served to further explore the research questions and provide additional insights from the participants. An overview of the participants' biographical information precedes the presentation of these analysed themes and responses from the participants. The following section presents the demographics of the participants who participated in the second phase, qualitative semi-structured interviews study.

7.3.1 Presentation and analysis of phase two qualitative research biographical data of participants

The researcher included the participants' Information excluding their identification. The variables were the participants' gender, stationed, field of specialisation, number of years of service, ranking, whether participants had received, formal or informal training and their educational level. Semi -structured interviews were utilised in order to be able to interpret the data and the resulting themes which would facilitate understanding of the problem in a more complex manner (Sargeant, 2012:1). Total number of the

researcher's minimum sample was 20 participants. Each participant participating in the semi-structured interviews was allocated a number from P1 to P20.

7.3.1.1 Participants' gender

Figure 7.9 below indicates the 20 participants' gender.

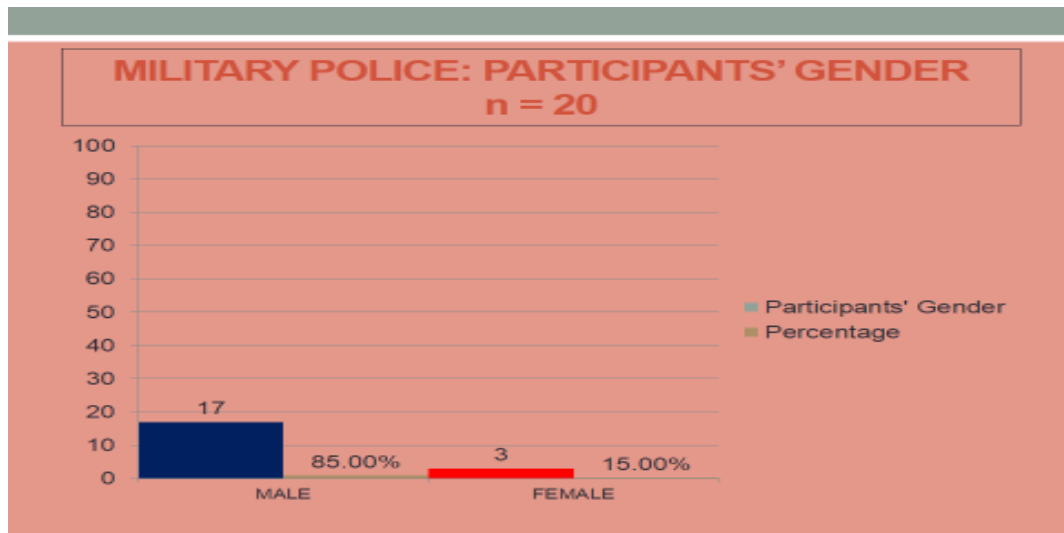


Figure 7.9: Participants' gender

(Source: Feedback from the participants)

Figure 7.9 above depicts participants' gender. The majority of 17 participants (n=17, 85%) are male MPOs and the minority of three (3) participants (n=3, 15%) are female MPOs.

7.3.1.2 Participants' working environment

Geographic areas of the 20 participants, include the MPD Headquarters, Northern Military Police Region, Military Police School, and 1 PRO Regiment as depicted in Figure 7.10 overleaf.

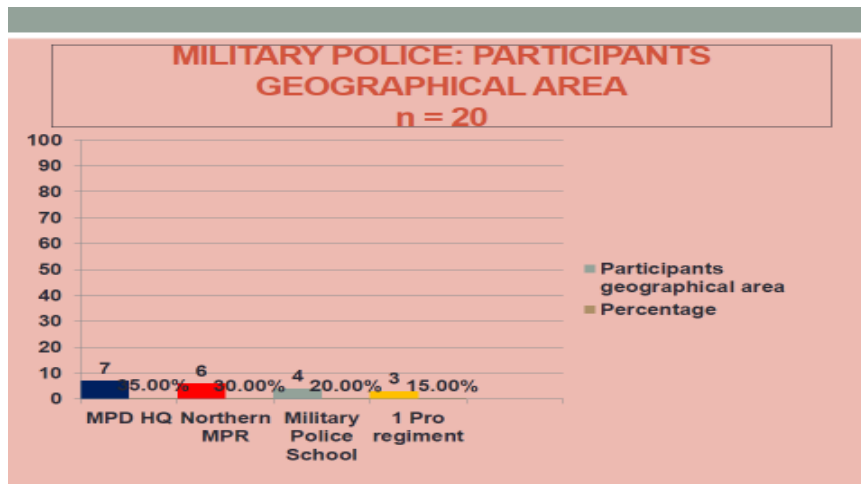


Figure 7.10: Participants' geographical area

(Source: Feedback from the participants)

The qualitative interviews were conducted in Gauteng area, Pretoria, as illustrated in Figure 7.10 above. The majority of the participants (n=7, 35%) were stationed at MPD Headquarters; followed by six (6) participants (n=6, 30%) from Northern Military Police Region. Four (4) participants (n=4, 20%) were located at Military Police School and the minority of three (3) participants (n=3, 15%) were located at 1 PRO Regiment.

7.3.1.3 Field of specialisation

The participants were asked to indicate their field of specialisation. Figure 7.11 below depicts the participants' field of specialisation.

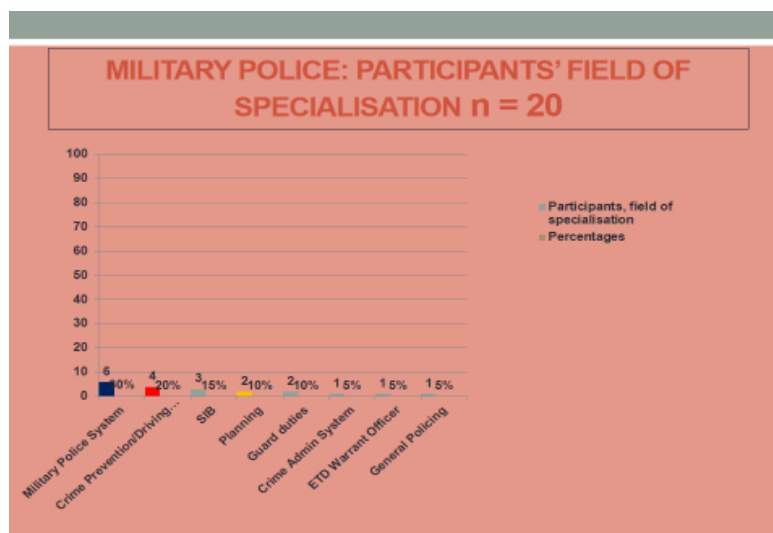


Figure 7.11: Participants' field of specialisation

(Source: Feedback from the participants)

The findings from Figure 7.11 above depicts that the majority of six participants (n=6, 30%) specialised in Military Police System (MPS), followed by four participants (n=4, 20%) who were instructors in different fields namely: crime prevention, driving maintenance, investigation and operations. Three (3) participants (n=3, 15%) were investigators from special investigation branch, two (2) participants (n=2, 10%) specialised in planning, the other two (2) participants (n=2, 10%) were guards. Furthermore, one participant (n=1, 5%) specialised in crime admin system, the other one participant (n=1, 5%) was an ETD Warrant Officer, the other one participant (n=1, 5%) specialised in general policing.

7.3.1.4 Participants' years of service

Figure 7.12 below depicts the participants' years of service within the MPD.

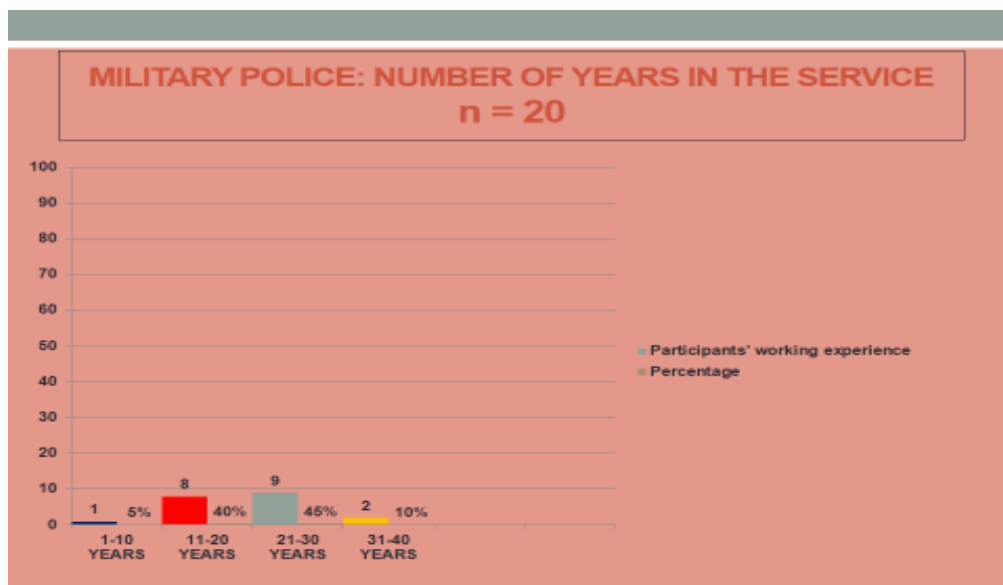


Figure 7.12: Participants' years of service summary

(Source: Feedback from the participants)

Figure 7.12 above indicates that the majority of the participants (n=9, 45%) had between 21 years and 30 years of service. Following eight participants (n=8, 40%) had between 11 years and 20 years of service. On the other hand, two participants (n=2, 10%) had between 31 and 40 years of service and only one participant (n=1, 5%) had between 1 and 10 years of service.

7.3.1.5 Participants' ranking

Figure 7.13 below is a representation of the participants' respective rankings.



Figure 7.13: Participants' ranking

(Source: Feedback from the participants)

Figure 7.13 above depicts that the majority of the participants (n=5, 25%) were classified as Corporal; followed by four participants (n=4, 20.5%) were Captains; three participants (n=3, 15.0%) were Sergeants, another three participants (n=3, 15.0%) were Majors; while two participants (n=2, 10.0%) were Staff Sergeants; another two participants (n=2, 10.0%) were Warrant Officers and only one participant (n=1, 5.0%) was classified as a Lieutenant Colonel.

7.3.1.6 Military police functional training

It is imperative for participants to understand the foundation of training in respect of its functionality. Accordingly, Figure 7.14 overleaf is a depiction of the participants in this regard.



Figure 7.14: Participants completed Military Police functional training
 (Source: Feedback from the participants)

As indicated in Figure 7.14, all participants in this study had completed basic MPD training, which is functional training for the MPOs.

7.3.1.7 Formal or informal training

Participants were asked whether the training they received was formal or informal, to which they responded as illustrated in Figure 7.15 overleaf.

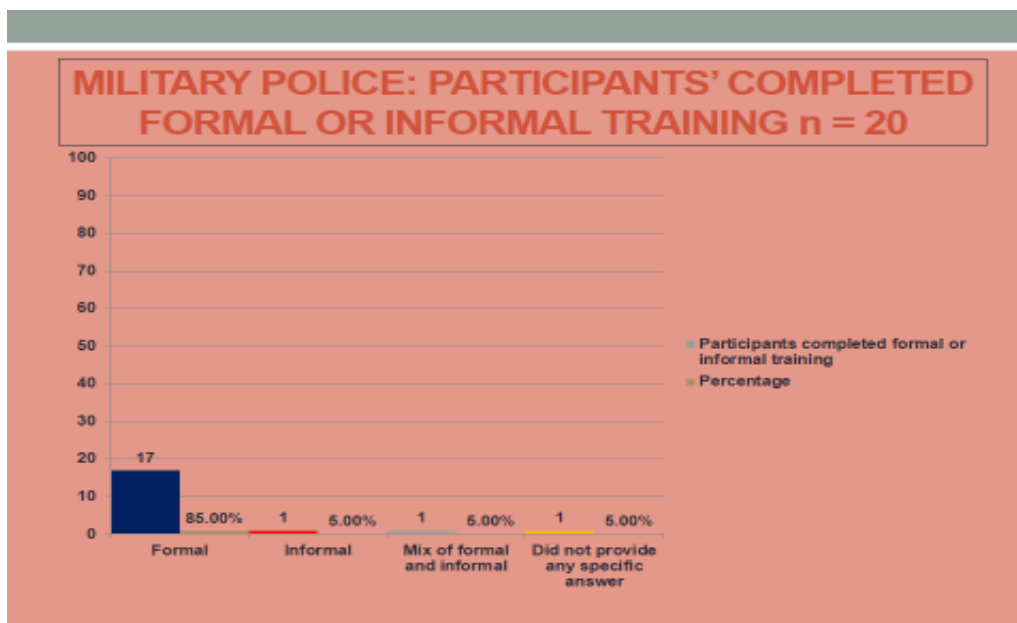


Figure 7.15: Formal or informal training
 (Source: Feedback from the participants)

From the interviewed 20 participants (n=20, 100%), the majority of the participants (n=17, 85%) expressed that they had received formal training. However, this viewpoint appears to be at discord with the literature. For example, Madlen and Kyiv (2018:17) posited that police training primarily adheres to a non-formal tradition and is not characterised by formal educational methods. Madlen and Kyiv (2018:17) further posited that formal education is particularly relevant to the training within the MP Division, which lacks accreditation and is delivered in a classroom setting. In this regard, one participant (n=1, 5%) considered training to be informal, while another participant (n=1, 5%) perceived the training as a blend of formal and informal elements. The other participant (n=1, 5%) did not provide a response to this question.

7.3.1.8 Participants' educational level

The research results related to the participants' level of education is indicated in Figure 7.16 overleaf.

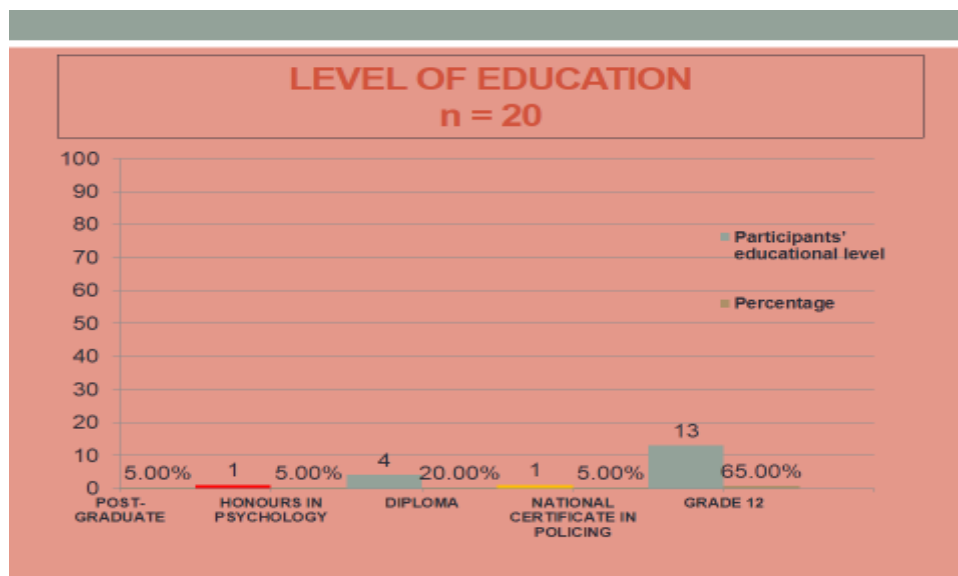


Figure 7.16: Participants' educational level

(Source: Feedback from the participants)

Figure 7.16 above depicts that the majority of the participants (n=13, 65%) had Grade 12 National Certificate, followed by four participants (n=4, 20%) who had Diploma in Policing, Criminal Justice and National ODETDP. One participant (n=1, 5%) had a PhD (Doctor of Literature and Philosophy in Police Science) the other participant (n=1, 5%) had Honours in Psychology. The other participant (n=1, 5%) had National Certificate in Policing. The researcher considered only those qualifications the

participants had already acquired and excluded the ones that are still in progress. In the following section the researcher presents the emergent main themes and sub-themes based on analysis of the qualitative semi-structured interviews results.

7.3.2 Themes and Sub-themes

A semi structured interview schedule was utilised to guide the participants' interviews. The semi-structured individual interviews, along with the research questions, served as sources for extracting emerging themes and sub-themes. Chapter 2 provided a description of the profiles of the twenty participants involved in these interviews (see Section 2.5.1). Following data analysis, four themes emerged and sub-themes were identified from the four (4) main themes from research questions and the 20 qualitative interviews that were conducted in this study. Therefore, they were supported by direct selection of participants' responses in this study. Following overleaf is a summary of the emergent main themes and sub-themes of the study.

Table 7.31: Summary of emergent main themes and sub-themes

Themes	Sub-themes
The mandate of the MPD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The vision of the MPD • The mission of the MPD • Duties and responsibilities of MPOs' • The appointment of the MPOs'
Articulation of MP training practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Definition of the term training • Sufficiency of MPD training • Alignment of the MP Division training to current modern policing • MPD structured to meet specific competencies
Effectiveness of current MP Division training initiatives/ curricula	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The purpose of MP Division training • MP Division training alignment to the National Qualification Framework • MP Division training contribution to effort to make South Africa safe • Successfulness of the MPD in producing MPOs' who are competitive to fight fast growing crime in the modern world • Effectiveness of current MP Division training initiatives/ curricula
MPD training challenges, needs and conceptual framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MPD Training Enhancing the culture of learning, to empower MPOs to ultimately give higher returns in their job • MPD training rendering modern policing • MPD training expanding knowledge and skills

Themes	Sub-themes
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supporting structure to render constant MP Division training regarding rapid changes • Training is well planned in the MPD • Participants' ideas to advance MP Division training to enable the MPO's to perform well within their field of policing • Suggestion of what should be included in MPD training in order to improve the knowledge and skills needed for MPO's to execute their duties efficiently • The participants' proposed model for MP Division training • The challenges encountered the MPD training • The factors that hinder MPD training • The MPD training needs • Training analysis • Practical guidelines suggested to MPD training on how to conduct training • Participants' practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures and recommendations offered to the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training • Participants additional comments and suggestions regarding the MPD training

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

Table 7.31 above indicates the summary of emergent main themes and sub-themes which were identified by the researcher. The above main themes namely: The mandate of the MPD, Articulation of MP training practices, effectiveness of current MP Division training initiatives/curricula and MPD training challenges, Needs and conceptual framework are derived from research questions outlined in Chapter one (1) above. The sub-themes are derived from the structure of the interview schedule questions posed to the participants. A more detail discussion of each theme follows in the next section, presenting and analysing data collected from participants regarding Theme 1, the mandate of the MPD MPD.

7.4 THEME 1: THE MANDATE OF THE MPD

This theme focused on determining whether the MPD Officials understands their mandate. As such, the researcher outlined the scope of authority granted to the MPD, which served as the basis for the development of an effective training curriculum. The curriculum is aimed at equipping officials with the practical skills and competencies

they need. The exploration of this theme was essential in order to assess the extent to which MPOs comprehend the comprehensive importance and objectives of the MPD's mandate. Following questions were posed by the researcher during the interviews:

- **Question B1** “According to your knowledge, what is mandate of the MPD?”.
- **Question B2** “If asked to explain the vision of the MPD, how would you explain it?”.
- **Question B3** “According to your knowledge, what is the mission of MPD?”.
- **Question B4** “According to your knowledge, what are the duties and responsibilities of MPO’s?”.
- **Question B5** “If asked to explain the appointment of the MPOs’, how would you explain it?”.

Data was collected from the structure of the interview schedule. The following sub-theme presents, and analyses data collected from the participants regarding the mandate of the MPD.

7.4.1 Sub-Theme 1.1: The mandate of the MPD

The participants in this study were asked in Question B1: “*According to your knowledge, what is mandate of the MPD?*”. Following below are the participants’ narrative responses:

P3: It is to police and assist military and civilian personnel in their area of responsibility as well as certain ceremonial obligations.

P4: To detect crime, crime investigation and prevention of crime at most.

P5 & P18: To maintain law and order, prevent crime and investigate crime within the SANDF and its military community to ensure a disciplined force at all times.

P6: Crime prevention (primary) and crime investigation (secondary). However, within the mandate, MPOs are to provide support to deployed forces whether within the Republic of South Africa or outside the borders.

P8: Enforce the Defence Act or any other law including the common law in so far as it applies to the Department of Defence.

P12: General police duties and operational support to the SANDF, i.e. law and order, crime investigation, Pol Int etc.

P1 & P13: To combat crime in the DoD.

P7, P9, P10, P11, P14 & P15: To police other uniform members and support to the armed forces and provide a policing within SANDF.

P17: To provide an effective, well trained and professional police force to detect and investigate crimes.

P16 & P19: To provide MP capability to SANDF by means of presenting MP courses.

P2 & P20: Could not provide any specific answer to this question.

Analysis of the participants' responses reveal that the majority of their responses are in alignment with the actions prescribed in an organisation's mandate, as outlined in Section 3.6 above. In the previous Section 3.6, the actions to be taken in accordance with the particular organisation's policies and legal frameworks were specified (Petit, 2017:133). The majority of the participants (65%), albeit expressed in various ways, encompassed activities such as crime detection, investigation, and operational support to the South African National Defence Force (SANDF), as well as the fulfilment of general policing duties.

These actions are consistent with the MPD's (MPD) mandate, as discussed in Section 3.6 above. The primary mandate of the MPD is to provide policing within the SANDF, with the secondary mandate being the provision of support during SANDF operations. However, it is worth noting that 30% of the participants provided responses that did not directly align with the MPD's mandate. It is crucial for all individuals within an organisation to have a thorough understanding of their organisation's specific mandate, despite these responses not fully conforming to it.

7.4.2 Sub-theme 1.2: The vision of the MPD

The participants in this study were asked in Question B2: *"If asked to explain the vision of the MP Division, how would you explain it?"* The data collected from the participants' answers to this question is indicated below:

P1, P9, P11: To be an effective vanguard for military discipline.

P2 & P5: To enforce military discipline in SANDF.

P3: To be a law enforcement agency of excellence.

P4: To be custodians of military discipline in South Africa.

P6: A vision by definition talks to the future hence the vision of the MPD 'is to be the Division within the SANDF by providing excellent policing capability, A vision is what an organisation strives to achieve, therefore, the Military Police.

P7, P10, P13, P15: Division is striving to provide excellent policing capability.

P8: MP Division should be the leaders for military discipline, meaning their discipline must be beyond any reproach from other members of the country or citizens.

P12: To impose the discipline and good conduct within DOD environment.

P14: To train a well discipline police official and to equip them with necessary knowledge on policing matters.

P16 & P20: Could not provide any specific answer to this question.

P17: Guardians of military discipline.

P18: To ensure that all military personnel must understand military discipline code.

P19: To have DOD crime free environment.

An analysis of the participants' responses reveals that the majority of their statements were not aligned with the MP Division vision statement, as outlined in Section 3.7 above, which specifies that the MP Division's vision statement is, "*An effective vanguard for military discipline in the Republic of South Africa*" (MPD, 2021:6). The majority of the participants' responses (85%) did not accurately convey the vision of the MP Division (MPD, 2021:6). Kirkpatrick (2016:6) indicates that the organisation that recognises the importance of aligning its vision with its training, supports its members to represent their organisation in their day-to-day work. In that regard, training would define what the achievements of the organisation and ensures that it does not only provide the knowledge and skills needed, but also influences the attitudes and behaviors of members effectively.

However, about (15%) of the participants provided responses that were directly aligned with the MPD's vision. It is worth noting that the majority of the participants (85%) provided responses that did not directly align with the MP Division vision statement. Kirkpatrick (2016) as discussed in Section 3.7 of Chapter 3 above, is of the view that the understanding of the vision statement serves as a road map and provides a point of reference. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the mission of MP Division.

7.4.3 Sub-theme 1.3: The mission of MP Division

The participants in this study were asked in Question B3: "*According to your knowledge, what is the mission of MP Division?*" Following are the participants' responses in this regard:

P1, P9: Is to detect, prevent and investigate crime so that the SANDF maintain discipline.

P2, P4, P8: To detect, prevent and investigate crime, to enforce or ensure a discipline military force capable to execute its constitutional mandate.

P3: To provide professional support and policing to the members of the DOD.

P14, P5, P18: Is to maintain law and order, prevent crime and investigate crime within the SANDF and its military community to ensure a disciplined force at all times.

P6: The mission of the MPD is to support the DOD by providing them with well-trained MPOs' capable of conducting policing operations in cooperation

with other divisions and services. A mission by definition is the core purpose of an organisation, it talks about the things that an organisation must do.

P7, P10, P13: To combat, prevent and investigate.

P11, P15, P16: Did not provide any specific answer to this question.

P12: To apply practicable measures in order to see to it that there is zero crime activity within DOD and furthermore conduct ops duties to the CJOP during and aid that is required for SANDF intervention.

P17, P20: Is to provide an effective and well-prepared police official to support SANDF.

P19: I do not know.

An analysis of the participants' responses indicate that the majority of the participants were not aligned with the MP Division mission statement, as indicated in Section 3.8 above. The MP Division mission statement mentions that "*The Military Police must detect, prevent and investigate crime to ensure a disciplined military force capable to execute its constitutional mandate as well as to provide prepared and equipped MP forces to support Joint Force Employment requirements of the SANDF*" (MPD, 2018:7).

Although the participants had different viewpoints regarding the mission statement of the MP Division, all 20 participants (n=20, 100%) provided responses that did not directly align with the MPD's mission statement. The literature review in Chapter 3 of this study dealt with the mission statement of the MP Division. Khalifa (2012) posits that understanding the mission statement would enable the MPD to achieve its vision and evaluations of activities such as MPD's training.

7.4.4 Sub-theme 1.4: The duties and responsibilities of MPOs

The participants in this study were asked in Question B4: "*According to your knowledge, what are the duties and responsibilities of MPO's?*" Following are the participants' responses to the above-mentioned question:

P1, P10: Prevention of crime, investigate crime, conventional ability in time of war/peace keeping.

P2, P11, P13, P16, P18: Prevent, combat and investigate crime, uphold and enforce the law, enforce discipline).

P3, P14, P15: The list of duties and responsibilities of the MPD is endless, thus it is not limited to crime prevention and police investigation, there are some such as traffic control, CSC duties, ceremonial and functional escorting, support during peace keeping operations.

P4, P8, P20: Crime detection, crime prevention, crime investigation, including ceremonial aspects.

P5: Ensure a crime free military environment.

P6, P7, P19: Crime prevention, crime investigation, general police duties, police intelligence, traffic control, management of correctional facilities.

P9: To police the force, law enforces.

P12: Prevention of crime through patrols, stop and search, opening of cases, arresting of suspects, investigation of offences.

P13: The duties are very broad and include but is not limited to crime prevention, police investigations, traffic control, CSC duties, ceremonial and functional escorting, support during peace keeping operations.

P17: Main aim is to protect and serve, enforcing military laws and regulations and also traffic.

An examination of the participants' responses shows that the majority of their statements did not align with the duties and responsibilities of MPOs as stipulated in Section 31(1)(a)(b)(c) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002). These responsibilities are elucidated in Section 3.10, which pertains to the policing functions and objectives of Military Police. These functions and objectives encompass the prevention and combat of crime, investigation of any offense or alleged crime, and the maintenance of law and order, all of which are governed by Section 31(1)(a)(b)(c) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002).

Furthermore, none of the participants exhibited familiarity with the duties and responsibilities outlined in Section 31(1)(a)(b)(c) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002). Military Police (2010), as discussed in Section 3.10 para 1 in Chapter 3 of this study, argue that it is important for the duties and responsibilities of the Division to be linked to Military Police training activities that support the mission statement of the Division, add further that such linkage of clearly defined duties and responsibilities should enable soldiers to understand their commanders' vision, goals and missions. In essence, in order for the MP Division to function as a cohesive entity, training is the pre-requisite to achieve all their functional responsibilities. Consequences of not knowing functions and responsibilities would inevitably administer and perform wrong tasks as well as producing the wrong products. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected from participants regarding the appointment of the MPOs'.

7.4.5 Sub-theme 1.5: The appointment of the MPOs'

The participants in this study were asked in Question B5: *"If asked to explain the appointment of the MPOs', how would you explain it?"* The data collected from the participants' answers to this question encompassed the following:

(P1, P12, P13): After theory course members should undergo practical assessment before being found competent.

P2: The appointment of MPOs should be based on the operational needs and priorities of the SANDF.

P3: After working functionally in all aspects of the MPD their strongest aspects should be identified and they should be appointed in that line.

P4, P7, P8, P10, P15, P17: MPOs' are appointed in terms of Section 30 Defence Act, 2002 (Act 42 of 2002) and in terms of Section 31 Defence Act, 2002 (Act 42 of 2002) some power, functions and duties as SAPS.

P5: Training and be qualifications.

P6: According to Section 30(1) of the Defence Act (Act 42 of 2002), MPOs are appointed by the CSANDF or any person delegated by him. In my view, MPOs must be recruited from the various arms of service after having undergone both basic military and corp training. Then they can be appointed and trained as MPO, this provides the MPD with the opportunity to appoint only the best personnel.

P9: MPOs' are commissioners of oath, and has completed the required qualifications to become one.

P11, P20: Appointed by Chief of army.

P14: Appointment of MPO comes from the PMG.

P16: First receive formal training.

P19: Is to look after crime and protection (VIP) and Assets.

P18: We are appointed as police.

An analysis of the participants' responses indicates that the majority of the participants' statements were not aligned with the actions prescribed in the appointment of the MPOs', as outlined in Section 3.11 paragraph 2, which specifies the powers to appoint the MPOs to execute the mandate of the MPD are vested in the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002). The minority of participants (30%) expressed that the MPOs' are appointed in terms of Section 30(1) of the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002) which indicates that any member of the Defence Force could be appointed as an MPO by the Chief of the Defence Force or any other person so designated by him or her to make such an appointment. As such, those actions are consistent with the appointment of the MPOs' as discussed Section 3.11 above.

However, it is worth noting that the majority of the participants (70%) provided responses that did not directly align with the appointment of the MPOs'. Scott (1998:52), as discussed in Section 3.11 in Chapter 3 of this study, point out that it is crucial for all individuals within an organisation to have a thorough understanding in the personnel appointments to ensure that subordinates are aligned with the goals, values and vision of the military. The next section presents and analyses data collected from participants regarding Theme 2, the articulation of MP division training practices.

7.5 THEME 2: THE ARTICULATION OF MP DIVISION TRAINING PRACTICES

The second major theme that emerged from the analysis of the research question of this study was the articulation of MP Division training practices. The goal of this theme is to determine if current MPD training initiatives are sufficiently effective to equip MPOs with the skills in the workplace. In support of this theme, participants were asked four questions, which resulted in four sub-themes, which are also discussed in this section. The four questions posed to the participants were:

- **Question C.1:** According to your knowledge of what is your understanding the term training?
- **Question C.2:** In your opinion, do you think the training you received is enough to obtain skills needed by the MPOs to perform their duties?
- **Question C.3:** In your opinion, do you think the MPD training is aligned to current modern policing?
- **Question C.4:** In your opinion, is the MPD training structured to meet specific competencies?

The researcher collected data from the structure of the interview schedule. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the definition of the term training.

7.5.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Definition of the Term, “Training”

The participants in this study were asked in Question C1: “*According to your knowledge of what is your understanding the term training?*” Following are the participants’ responses.

P1, P10, P19: Training transmitting of skills and knowledge to a person.

P3: To empower people to be able to execute their duties to the best of their ability.

P2, P6: Training by definition teaching, developing skills or imparting knowledge. Skills to another person.

P5, P4, P8: It is the process of learning different and specific skills to do a specific job.

P7: Development and upgrading of the individual.

P9, P11: Training involves programme which enable employees to learn precise skills, knowledge to improve performance.

P12: This is a method of equipping or training an individual either physical or mental to a certain required state or shape.

P13: To equip one with knowledge and experience.

- P14, P20:** Training means to teach or learn someone a certain job.
P15: Process of imparting and instilling skills and information for future use and application.
P16, P17: To give on the necessary physical and psychological fitness and knowledge to perform his duties diligently.
P18: Is a refreshment course, additional course.

The purpose of the above question was to assess the participants' knowledge on the subject of training. This study having concentrated on the effectiveness of MPD training to bring about clear outcomes of training and recognition for learning, participants should understand the meaning of term training. Analysis of the participants' responses reveal that the majority of the participants align with the concept of training, as outlined in Section 3.4.1.2 paragraph 1. The concept specifies that training has clear and specific outcomes connected to the mastery of action within the workplace' practice (Werner & DeSimone, 2012). All participants (n=20, 100%) delineated the term training in various ways, encompassed activities such as to equip one with knowledge and experience and empower people to be able to execute their duties. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the sufficiency of MPD training.

7.5.2 Sub-theme 2.2: Sufficiency of MPD Training

The researcher aimed at assessing the effectiveness of the MPD (MPD) training. As a result, the sufficiency of the training provided by the MPD serves as the cornerstone for equipping MPOs with the necessary skills. To ascertain this, the researcher posed the following question to the participants in Question C2: *"In your opinion, do you believe that the training you have undergone adequately equips MPOs with the skills required to perform their duties?"* The data collected from the participants' responses to this question included:

- P1:** Yes, I received training 1988 and then was posted to a station where we worked under guidance.
P2: I received enough training that provided me with key competencies and skills to perform my duties safely and effectively.
P3: Yes, is enough, I worked in all aspects of the MPD and fell I did my job well.
P4: To me training is effective to those whom after training go straight to the field to practice what was taught.
P5: It is enough for now but as technology evolves, it requires more upgrades.
P6: The training that I received from the MP School some years ago was never adequate for me to perform my duties as a MPO, hence I resorted on furthering my studies individually just to gain more information.

P7: The training needs to be developed as I grow up in ranks.
P8: It is definitely not enough that's why I furthered my studies because I noticed that there was a big gap between us and our competitors.
P9: Yes, however it needs to be revisited so that it can conform to current challenges.
P10: Yes, is enough is the guiding to execute those duties.
P11: It just need a person must undergo further learning programme to uplift in develop her/himself.
P12: No, always personnel are required to attend formal or further skills in order not to compromise the training, training would not be enough in the absentia of good and experience trainers.
P13: Yes, it is enough as I did both crime prevention and investigation.
P14: Definitely yes.
P15: Yes, however there is always room to learn further and improve.
P16: Yes and no, some training received I believe is relevant towards outcome whereas other training has no value.
P17: Training is never be enough as we living in a world that is continuously changing, so training is needed to meet the requirement of our changing world.
P18, P20: Not really enough.
P19: No because it is outdated.

An analysis of the participants' responses indicate that training is definitely not enough for members. The majority of members registered to further their studies with private sectors and institutions in order to obtain skills needed by the MPOs to perform their duties (P6, P8, P11 and P12). Participants (P5, P7, P9, P15 and P19) suggested that the MPD training need to be revisited. Whereas (P12, P14, P18 and P20) believed that the training received was not enough to obtain skills needed by the MPOs to perform their duties. On the other hand, participants (P1, P2, P3, P10 and P13) reported that the training they received is enough to obtain skills needed by the MPOs to perform their duties.

Two participants (P4 and P17) did not respond to the question, whilst participant (4) illuminated that training is enough for those who are lucky to do field practical. Only participant (P17) suggested that training would not be enough, training should be forever needed to meet the requirement of our changing world. As such, Participant (P16) provided an interesting point out that some of the training received was relevant towards certain part of skills whereas the other part of training had no value. Participants' responses reported that the training they received was not enough to obtain skills needed by the MPOs to perform their duties.

Based on the analysis, the majority of the participants (75%) expressed that the training they received was not enough to obtain skills needed by the MPOs to perform

their duties, However, it is worth noting that the minority of 25% of the participants provided responses that were in agreement that the training they received was enough to obtain skills needed by the MPOs to perform their duties. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the alignment of the MPD training to current modern policing.

7.5.3 Sub-theme 2.3: Alignment of the MPD Training to Current Modern Policing

The participants in this study were asked in Question C3: *“In your opinion, do you think the MPD training is aligned to current modern policing?”* The data collected from the participants’ answers to this question is indicated below:

P1: No, I think the biggest problem is budget constraints to purchase the latest technology and to train members to utilize it.

P2: No, MPD curriculums needs to be updated so that it can be aligned to the current modern policing practices.

P3: A lot can be said under this topic and is very subjective, I ‘m of the opinion that our policing practices are sufficient if applied correctly. Many new advancements can assist us in doing better policing but there is other factors that influences this.

P4: As far as I know the Military Police training is aligned with the curriculum of the SAPS so it should be in alignment with modern policing, there is always room for improvement.

P5: I wouldn’t be sure on that regard because ever since I was involved in training there has never been a workshop or work session arranged by the MPD itself to enhance the training more especially in the Military Police School.

P6: Not at all, recently I took it upon myself to read almost all the Military Police Instructions just to see if the training and information provided is in line with the current policing trends, I can safely say that there are plenty gaps that needs to be addressed.

P7: To a certain extend it is aligned however there’s still a room for improvement.

P8: Not at all, the MP Division lack resources, be it skilful personnel and technological equipment.

P9, P20: No, more needs to be done update our curriculums.

P10: Partially yes, as they are busy with the alignment.

P11: Yes, it is just they must bench make from SAPS to ensure we are still in line in our training.

P12: Yes, however more updates need to be done.

P13: It is not aligned modern policing practices, as we do not have resources and equipment.

P14: Yes, to a certain level of policing.

P15: It’s not aligned, technology is developing faster and most of the offences require skills in that regard, lack of resources is a challenge.

P16: No, it is not aligned to current modern policing practices, no research and development has been conducted with regard to training.

P17: Not, training must not be only aligned to current modern policing but should evolve with the changing world.

P18: Yes, because it's aligned to the modern policing due to some changes.

P19: No, the MPD training and not articulated as training supposed to be articulated.

The participants' responses indicated that MPD training is not aligned to current modern policing as mentioned by the following participants (P1, P2, P8, P9, P13, P15, P16, P17, P19 and P20). On the other hand, Participant (P6) emphasised that recently the participant undertook an analysis of all the Military Police Instructions to assess their alignment with current policing trends. In this context, the participant stated:

P6: Not at all, recently I took it upon myself to read almost all the Military Police Instructions just to see if the training and information provided is in line with the current policing trends, I can safely say that there are plenty gaps that needs to be addressed.

Based on the above-mentioned narrative, the participant believes that the training offered by the MPD is not in line with contemporary modern policing standards.

Similarly, participant P5 almost shared the same view as P6 indicated as follows:

P5: I wouldn't be sure on that regard because ever since I was involved in training there has never been a workshop or work session arranged by the MPD itself to enhance the training more especially in the Military Police School.

In this regard, the participant implies that the MPD training is not aligned to current modern policing. However, two participants (P4 and P18) believed that the MPD training is aligned to current modern policing. Whereas five (5) participants (P7, P10, P11, P12 and P14) indicated that they agreed the MPD training is aligned to current modern policing while at the same their answers they strongly believed that the MPD training is not aligned to current modern policing.

Essentially, the responses of five participants (P7, P10, P11, P12, and P14) can be described as a combination of "yes" and "no" responses, indicating a level of ambiguity or uncertainty. One participant (P3) is of the view that MPD policing practice is sufficient but is not applied correctly. The majority of the participants (60%) expressed that the MPD training is not aligned to current modern policing. However, it is worth noting that 40% of the participants provided responses that were in agreement that the MPD training is aligned to current modern policing. The following sub-theme

presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the MPD structured to meet specific competencies.

7.5.4 Sub-theme 2.4: MPD structured to meet specific competencies

Participants were asked the following in Question C4: “*In your opinion, is the MPD training structured to meet specific competencies?*” The data collected from the participants’ answers to this question is shown below:

P1: No, my biggest worry is that people who must hand over knowledge is ageing and is leaving.

P2: The MPD training is structured to provide its members with the key competencies and skills to ensure that the members can perform their duties, but the whole training need to be revised.

P3, P9, P10, P15, P16, P17, P18: Yes, different courses are available for the different skills needed eg. crime prevention, traffic and investigation.

P4: MPD is outcome based of course with theory and practical assessments, highly confident with the tools at our disposal.

P5, P7: The MPD training is not structured to meet specific competencies.

P6: In my understanding of training, the current training was relevant some 15 years ago but not anymore, it is not well structured to address specific competencies.

P11: Not at all because there are no members trained for specific skill or job.

P8: MPD training is based on general policing no specialisation aspects.

P12: Yes, but more updates need to be done.

P13, P19, P20: Is not.

P14: Not sure.

An analysis of the participants’ responses noted that the MP Division training is structured to meet specific competencies, and continued stating that different courses is available for the different skills needed namely crime prevention, traffic and investigation as indicated by participants (P3, P4, P9, P10, P15, P16, P17 and P18). This answer is not necessarily incorrect but is consistent with the literature reviewed MPD (2006) as discussed in Section 4.6.1 para 2 in Chapter 4 of this study, explaining the set of competencies included in the MPD Corps Competency draft, which includes listening, assertiveness, and problem-solving abilities. Specific competencies are not met by the MPD training's structure.

Eight (8) participants (P1, P5, P7, P8, P11, P13, P19 and P20) indicated that the MP Division training is not structured to meet specific competencies. Similar response was expressed by another participant (P6), that 15 years ago training was structured to address to meet specific competencies but not anymore, it is not well structured to address specific competencies. Two (2) participants (P2 and P12) believed that more

updates need to be done to structure MP Division training to meet specific competencies even though they did not agree on 'yes' and 'no'. Whereas one participant (P14) could not give a specific answer to the question. The majority of participants indicated that the MP Division training is not structured to meet specific competencies. Based on the analysis, the majority of the participants' responses (55%) expressed that the MPD training is not structured to meet specific competencies. However, the minority of participants (35%) provided responses that were in agreement that the MPD training is structured to meet specific competencies.

Based on the question, the researcher wanted to find out from the participants whether core competencies are used in training, as they are a useful tool for identifying key policing activities and a measure of the effectiveness of police training. Zuva and Zuva (2020) as discussed in Section 4.5.1 para 6 in Chapter 4 of this study, indicate that learners need to be assessed in accordance with the competencies and the information given during the occupational standards development. In the next section the researcher presents and analyses data collected from participants regarding Theme 3, effectiveness of current MP Division training initiatives/curricula.

7.6 THEME 3: EFFECTIVENESS OF CURRENT MP DIVISION TRAINING INITIATIVES/CURRICULA

In this theme, the aim is to identify strengths and effectiveness of current MP Division training initiatives/curricula. From the literature presented Stabback (2016) as discussed in Section 4.1 para 3 in Chapter 4 of this study, outlined that the curriculum largely determines whether the provision of learning is equitable, and whether the quality of such learning is relevant in its articulation and support for the holistic development of all learners. This theme was supported by the following five questions below:

- Question D1: According to your understanding what is the purpose of MPD training?
- Question D2: According to your knowledge, is the MPD training in line with the National Qualification Framework?
- Question D3: In your opinion do you think MPD training contributes to the ongoing effort to make South Africa safe? Please elaborate.

- Question D4: In your opinion is the MPD training successful in producing MPO's that can stand the test of fast-growing crime in this modern world? Please elaborate.
- Question D5: In your opinion is the current MPD training initiatives/curricula effective to provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills? Please elaborate.

These questions gave rise to the five (5) sub-themes that is discussed. Following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the purpose of MP Division training.

7.6.1 Sub-theme 3.1: The purpose of MP Division Training

The participants were asked the following in Question D1: "*In your opinion, is the MPD training structured to meet specific competencies?*" The researcher intended to find out from participants the purpose of the MPD training. The data collected from the participants' answers to this question is shown below:

P1: To develop knowledge and skills of its members.

P2: The purpose of MPD training is developing or improving its member's capability, capacity and performance.

P3: Is to empower people to be able to execute their duties to the best of their ability.

P4: To equip MPOs with necessary skills and knowledge to best perform their duties and in line with the changing times.

P5: To ensure that MPOs are trained as required by the set curriculum and found competent as such.

P6: The sole purpose of the MPD training is to produce quality and effective police officials able to fight crime within the SANDF.

P7: To provide training and development in order to ensure competent MPs' are utilised.

P8: Should be to develop and empower the MPOs with skills to do their job.

P9: To equip MPOs with knowledge that might help them better perform their tasks.

P10: To equip it members.

P11, P20: To develop learners with skills, knowledge and attitude in workplace.

P12: Skills preparing of the members.

P13: My view, is that it must just be aligned with the modern policing practices.

P14:

P15: It is to give current relevant training to members.

P16: To empower MPOs' to be efficient and effective in combating crime.

P17: Is to equip MPOs with the knowledge of military laws and how to execute them. To effectively enforce discipline among members of the SANDF.

P18: In order to manage their section effectively.

P19: Is for people to be productive towards the benefits of the organisation.

The participants' responses reveal that all the 20 participants (n=20, 100%) displayed good understanding of the purpose of the MPD training. Two (2) participants (P11 and P20) demonstrated their understanding of the purpose of the MPD training by indicating that it develops learners with skills, knowledge and attitude in workplace. In agreement to the above two participants (P11 and P20) as well as participant (P6) indicated that the sole purpose of the MPD training is to produce quality and effective police officials able to fight crime within the SANDF and this is in consistent with the literature reviewed.

As discussed in paragraph 6 of Section 3.11 in Chapter 3, Smit et al. (2011:91), points out that the purpose of training in military personnel is to enhances a better understanding of their duties as well as the information and skills required to perform their tasks effectively and efficiently with the highest level of confidence. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the MP Division training alignment to the National Qualification Framework

7.6.2 Sub-theme 3.2: MP Division training alignment to the National Qualification Framework

The participants were asked in Question D2: *“According to your knowledge, is the MPD training in line with the National Qualification Framework?”* The researcher intended to determine the participants' understanding of the National Qualification Framework. The data collected from the participants' answers to this question encompassed:

P1: I do not know.

P2: No, MPD is still on the process of getting accreditation for some of their courses.

P3: Yes, I believe in a way it is as we are applying most of the requirements as set out in the NQF.

P4: In terms of the National Qualification Framework I have no knowledge of it.

P5, P6, P9, P13, P16: The fact that most of the modules if not all presented at the MP School are not accredited is an indication that the training is not aligned with the National Qualification Framework.

P7: Yes, certain course are aligned and received credits.

P8: Not at all, the MPD is still far from meeting the requirements.

P10: Yes, it is some of qualification were taken from MPD manuals and material.

P14: Not sure.

P15: To certain extent.

P17: The training in line and it is above NQF by virtue of the military discipline of members.

P18: Yes, in line with NQF.

P20: No, MP Division training is not aligned with the NQF as it does not cater for progression within, education, training and career paths.

From the 20 participants, the majority expressed that the MPD training is not in alignment with the National Qualification Framework as indicated by the following participants (P5, P6, P9, P11, P12, P13, P16 and P19). According to these participants, the fact that most, if not all, of the modules delivered at the MP School are not accredited is an attestation that the training is not compliant with the National Qualifications Framework. Only one (1) participant (P8) who indicated that the MPD training was not in line with the National Qualifications Framework, this participant replied:

P8: Not at all, the MPD is still far from meeting the requirements.

Another participant (P20) also felt that the MP training is not compatible with NQF due to its lack of progression for training and career paths.

P20: No, MP Division training is not aligned with the NQF as it does not cater for progression within, education, training and career paths.

In this regard, one participant (P18) felt that the MPD training is in line with the National Qualification Framework.

P18: Yes, in line with NQF.

Whereas five participants (P3, P7, P8, P10 and P17) gave various answers implying that the MPD training is in line with the National Qualification Framework but their answers were not in consistence with the literature reviewed.

P3: Yes, I believe in a way it is as we are applying most of the requirements as set out in the NQF.

P7: Yes, certain courses are aligned and received credits.

P8: Not at all, the MPD is still far from meeting the requirements.

P10: Yes, it is some of qualification were taken from MPD manuals and material.

As discussed in Section 3.5.8 para 5 in Chapter 3, Lombard (2003) explained that the objective of the NQF (as envisioned in the SAQA Act (No. 58 of 1995)) is to standardise and evaluate the previously fragmented education and training credentials

in industries and institutions Nationwide. The NQF should also promote the lifelong learning by allowing all learners to access and advance educationally by means of previously acquired and recognised credentials. Based on the analysis, the majority of the participants (60%), expressed that the MPD training is not in line with the National Qualification Framework. However, about 30% of the participants provided responses that the MPD training is not in line with the National Qualification Framework. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the MP Division training contribution to effort to make South Africa safe.

7.6.3 Sub-theme 3.3: Contribution of MP Division Training to making South Africa safe

The participants were asked the following in Question D3: *“In your opinion do you think MPD training contributes to the ongoing effort to make South Africa safe?”* The researcher’s motive was to ascertain the extent to which the MP Division's training contributes to the goal of enhancing safety in South Africa. Blumberg et al. (2019:1), aver that the complexities of modern policing require law enforcement agencies to expand how police officials are trained to do their jobs, it is not sufficient for training to focus solely on the law and on perishable skills; such as arrest and control; defensive tactics; driving; and firearms. The data collected from the participants’ answers to this question encompassed:

P1: Unsure.

P2: Yes.

P3: It definitely does as without the training provided it would be impossible for PMOs’ to execute their daily tasks sufficiently resulting in an escalation of crime.

P4: Training on its own has great potential to contribute positively to the safety of SA. The attitude and interpretation of individuals is key.

P5: Yes, as part of the SANDF, the MPD train its members to preserve law and order within its military community as well as international community as part of military peace enforcement.

P6, P17: Yes, to a certain level, the issue is getting members to be effective by allowing more training and re-training.

P7: Yes, training that MPOs’ received assist to secure prosecution.

P8: Not at all because in most cases we go to other law enforcement organisations to assist us, as we cannot afford on our own.

P9, P13, P14: No, there is no research and development to keep us with the changing time, no focus training is outdated.

P10: Yes, for instance check the opening of our parliament, the role played by MPD.

P11: No, in most cases learners are just pushed to get certificate which is not wise.

P12: Yes, skills and experiences together with experiences make tasks to be possible.

P15: MPD is positively contributing in an effort to combat crime.

P16: There is no effort to rejuvenises the MPD training with new skills and knowledge.

P18: Yes, it protected South Africa as they deployed where required and in all borders of South Africa.

P19: Partially yes, although the version utilised is outdated.

P20: To a certain extent, MPD training contributes but a lot is desired within it, training must be reviewed.

Analysis of participant responses reveals that six individuals (P7, P8, P9, P11, P13, and P14) believe that the MPD (MPD) training does not contribute to the ongoing efforts to enhance the safety of South Africa.

P8: Not at all because in most cases we go to other law enforcement organisations to assist us, as we cannot afford on our own.

P9, P13, P14: No, there is no research and development to keep us with the changing time, no focus training is outdated.

Another participant, P16, expressed a lack of effort in rejuvenating MPD training with new skills and knowledge, suggesting a perceived absence of contribution to South Africa's safety.

P16: There is no effort to rejuvenises the MPD training with new skills and knowledge.

In contrast, on the same question (D3), six participants (P2, P3, P5, P7, and P18) conveyed feedback indicating that MPD training indeed contributes to the ongoing effort to ensure the safety of South Africa.

P2: Yes.

P3: It definitely does as without the training provided it would be impossible for PMOs' to execute their daily tasks sufficiently resulting in an escalation of crime.

P7: Yes, training that MPOs' received assist to secure prosecution.

P18: Yes, it protected South Africa as they deployed where required and in all borders of South Africa.

Participant P12 shared a perspective emphasising the role of skills and experiences in making tasks achievable.

P12: Yes, skills and experiences together with experiences make tasks to be possible.

However, four participants (P6, P17, P19, and P20) adopted a neutral stance in their responses. While acknowledging some contribution of MPD training, their answers hinted at a partial contribution. For example, participant P6 noted that training contributes to crime-fighting efforts to a certain extent but highlighted escalating crime levels within the South African National Defence Force (SANDF).

P6, P17: Yes, to a certain level, the issue is getting members to be effective by allowing more training and re-training.

P7: Yes, training that MPOs' received assist to secure prosecution.

P20: To a certain extent, MPD training contributes but a lot is desired within it, training must be reviewed.

Upon analysis, 35% of participants expressed the view that MPD training does not contribute significantly to South Africa's safety efforts. Conversely, around 30% of participants asserted that MPD training does play a role in enhancing safety. The subsequent sub-theme delves into the collected data, examining participants' perspectives on the effectiveness of MPD training in producing Military Police Officers (MPOs) capable of combating the rapidly growing crime landscape in the modern world.

7.6.4 Sub-theme 3.4: Success of the MPD Training in producing competent MPOs able to fight fast-growing crime in the modern world

The following question was posed to the participants in Question D4: *"In your opinion is the MPD training successful in producing MPO's that can stand the test of fast-growing crime in this modern world?"* Through this question, the researcher's motive was to ascertain if the MPD training produces quality MPOs who are able to compete with new crime trends. Following are the responses from the participants:

P1: I am not sure.

P2: Yes, I believe we have stats to prove that.

P3: I believe it is, as there is many other factors that influence the above statement and cannot solely be pointed at training alone.

P4: Beyond training there is a need for awareness of training.

P5: Yes.

P6: Over the years the MPD has not been successful in my view in their effort to produce quality MPOs' who are strong enough to stand the test of time. Our members are after money more than anything else hence their work is compromised. The recruiting strategy has to be changed if we are serious about fighting crime.

P7: Yes, currently there are MPOs that trained to handle white collar crimes which are a threat to the country.

P8: Not at all the MPD relies on other law enforcement or organisations to train its members because of lack of modern resources.

P9, P13: No, MPD training is not giving us enough and is not relevant current, training that is relevant I talk of modern training.

P10: Yes, check at the way MPO execute their duties.

P11: Yes, it is vital that every individual must develop himself.

P12: Yes, but members are not patriotic.

P14, P19: No, as we cannot compete hand in hand without counter parts SAPS.

P15: MPD has managed to reduce crime in the SANDF.

P16: No, development is not conducted on continues basis.

P17: Training is good but for it to be successful, maintenance the level of training physically and mentally is key.

P18: Yes, their training is in line with new modern world as has been elected in some African continent.

P20: The MPD training is capable of producing good MPOs' but with what I have seen on course is like the trainers we went to class already with the mind of having of get summative and formative from the trainers and also trainers is like they teach for summative and formative assessment they do not open up on their training.

An analysis of the participants' responses reveals that eight participants (P2, P3, P5, P7, P10, P11, P12, and P18) indicated that MPD training is successful in producing MPOs who stand the test of the rapidly increasing crime rate in this modern world. The participants' responses were as follows:

P2: Yes, I believe we have stats to prove that.

P3: I believe it is, as there is many other factors that influence the above statement and cannot solely be pointed at training alone.

P5: Yes.

P7: Yes, currently there are MPOs that trained to handle white collar crimes which are a threat to the country.

P10: Yes, check at the way MPO execute their duties.

P11: Yes, it is vital that every individual must develop himself.

P12: Yes, but members are not patriotic.

Although two (2) participants (P11 and P12) felt that MPD training is successful in producing MPOs that can withstand the rapidly increasing crime rate in this modern world; apart from their yes, they felt that something should be done. Participants' statements were as follows:

P11: Yes, it is vital that every individual must develop himself.

P12: Yes, but members are not patriotic.

As mentioned by the participants, (P11) pointed out that individuals should develop alongside education, while another participant (P12) believed that MPD training is quality and the challenge is that MPOs are not patriotic.

In contrast to the above-mentioned statements from the participants, the responses of the other eight (8) participants (P6, P8, P9, P13, P14, P16, P19 and P20) indicated that MPD training is not successful in producing MPOs who can respond to test of the rapidly increasing crime rate in this modern world. Following are the participants' statements:

P6: Over the years the MPD has not been successful in my view in their effort to produce quality MPOs' who are strong enough to stand the test of time. Our members are after money more than anything else hence their work is compromised. The recruiting strategy has to be changed if we are serious about fighting crime.

P8: Not at all the MPD relies on other law enforcement or organisations to train its members because of lack of modern resources.

P9, P13: No, MPD training is not giving us enough and is not relevant current.

P19: The MPD training is capable of producing good MPOs' but with what I have seen on course is like the trainers we went to class already with the mind of having of get summative and formative from the trainers and also trainers is like they teach for summative and formative assessment they do not open up on their training.

Participant (P20) highlighted the trainer's limitation of not engaging in detailed information as a challenge to training the MP Division to create MPOs that can stand the test of the rapidly increasing crime rate in this modern world. The following excerpts depict the participants' responses in the above regard:

P20: The MPD training is capable of producing good MPOs' but with what I have seen on course is like the trainers we went to class already with the mind of having of get summative and formative from the trainers and also trainers is like they teach for summative and formative assessment they do not open up on their training.

Based on the analysis, the minority of participants (40%) expressed that the MPD training is successful in produces MPOs who stand the test of the rapidly increasing crime rate in this modern world.

However, it is worth noting that another 40% of the participants provided responses that the MPD training is not successful in producing MPOs who stand the test of the rapidly increasing crime rate in this modern world. While two participants above (P4 and P17) opted to provide suggestions rather than answers.

P4: Beyond training there is a need for awareness of training.

P17: Training is good but for it to be successful, maintenance the level of training physically and mentally is key.

However, (P4) suggested that beyond training, there is a need for awareness of training. It is imperative to have a support process that would ensure that MPOs have the knowledge and skills to perform their duties. On that note, (P17) suggested that in order for training to be successful in producing MPO's that can stand the test of fast-growing crime in this modern world, the level of training should be on-going and measures should be in place for a mentally stable training. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the effectiveness of current MP Division training initiatives/curricula.

7.6.5 Sub-theme 3.5: Effectiveness of Current MP Division Training Initiatives/Curricula

The participants were asked in Question D5: *"In your opinion is the current MPD training initiatives/curricula effective to provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills?"* The purpose for question D5 was to discover the effectiveness of the current MP Division training initiatives/curricula. Naval Service Training Command (2020:4-2) as discussed in Section 4.1 in Chapter 4 of this study, emphasises that the effectiveness of the curriculum does not only depend on knowledge and skill content, but also on the method used to convey that content to the learners, as well as instructional and training system experts who should evaluate the instructional materials.

Following below are the participants' responses regarding the effectiveness of the curriculum:

P1: Unsure.

P2: No, MPD curriculums needs to be revised.

P3: Yes, it is, courses are very practically aligned and not theoretical which means MPOs' are trained and should be able to execute daily tasks as soon as they are finished with training.

P4: We can always do more, what we currently have in place are old ways of doing things. More research and innovations are necessary.

P5: No, the MPD is currently experiencing a back lock regarding updating of training curriculum. Curriculum currently used are not up to date.

P6: I would say it is effective to a certain extent. The current curricula do not provide our members with the necessary knowledge and skills required for the execution of their duties. For one to be more effective, they have to study further on their own in order to gain more knowledge and skills. A mentorship and coaching program used by the South African Police Service must be adopted and applied to newly recruits so that they can gain some skills from seasoned MPOs.

P7: Yes, however it need improvement.

P8: Not at all, because the information which is used is outdated and workplace environment changes every day.

P9: No, most curriculums are about 15 years to 10 years without being revisited or amended.

P10: Yes, skills are obtained from MP school which gives MPO the skills.

P11: No, after the learner have found competent there's no follow up in the work place.

P12: Practically so, hence the guidelines are still relevant.

P13: Yes, because it included both theory and practical.

P14: No.

P15: More training is required.

P16: No, I believe current curricula is outdated.

P17: More needs to be done to have an effective MPOs', bringing in private sector to enhance the quality of training in specific fields.

P18: Yes, their training is national accepted and recognized.

P19: Yes, their training is national accepted and recognized.

P20: As I highlighted in your prevision question D 4 I do not think MPD training curricula is effective judging by the fact of trainer teaching for assessment.

An analysis of the participants' responses indicates that most of the participants were of the view that the current MPD training initiatives/curricula are not effective to provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills (P2, P5, P6, P8, P9, P11, P14, P16 and P19). An interesting answer implying that the current MPD training initiatives/curricula does not provide MP officials with the necessary effective workplace skills was provide by one participant (P20) as follows:

P20: As I highlighted in your prevision question D 4 I do not think MPD training curricula is effective judging by the fact of trainer teaching for assessment.

Furthermore, (P6) pointed out that for one to be more effective, they have to study further on their own in order to gain more knowledge and skills. Following is the response of (P6):

P6: I would say it is effective to a certain extent. The current curricula do not provide our members with the necessary knowledge and skills required for the execution of their duties. For one to be more effective, they have to study further on their own in order to gain more knowledge and skills. A mentorship and coaching program used by the South African Police Service must be adopted and applied to newly recruits so that they can gain some skills from seasoned MPOs.

There are suggestions that more research and innovations are necessary and that a mentorship and coaching program used by the South African Police Service should be adopted and applied by the MP Division. This might be administered to newly

recruits so that they could gain some skills from senior MPOs (P6 and P4). It is evident from the participants' responses that there is a need to revisit the current MPD training curriculums as mentioned by participants (P2, P7 and P15) below:

P2: No, MPD curriculums needs to be revised.

P15: More training is required.

P7: Yes, however it need improvement.

Six (6) participants (P3, P7, P10, P12, P13 and P18) believed that the current MPD training initiatives/curricula is effective to provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills able to execute daily tasks. Therefore, the curriculum could be endorsed as the foundation of training (as discussed in Section 4.1 para 3 in Chapter 4). Based on the analysis, 65% of the participants, expressed that the current MPD training initiatives/curricula are not effective to provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills. However, about 30% of the participants mentioned that the current MPD training initiatives/curricula is effective to provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills. In the following section the researcher presents and analyses data collected from participants regarding Theme 4, MPD training challenges, needs and conceptual framework.

7.7 THEME 4: MPD TRAINING CHALLENGES, NEEDS AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The MPD training challenges, needs and conceptual framework is the fourth main theme that emerged from the research question. This theme was supported by the following fifteen questions below:

- **Question E.1:** In your opinion, does the MPD training enhance a culture of learning to empower you with the necessary skills to perform your duties? Please elaborate.
- **Question E.2:** In your opinion, does MPD training provide you with modern policing needs required by MPO's to complete your police duties effectively? Please elaborate.
- **Question E.3:** In your opinion, does MPD training present opportunities to expand policing knowledge and skills to meet the current crime situation? Please elaborate.
- **Question E.4:** According to your knowledge, after completion of MPD training do you have a supporting structure that keeps you up to date with constantly rapid changes as training evolves with time? Please elaborate.

- **Question F.1:** In your opinion, what knowledge should be imparted by MPD training to enable the MPO's to perform well within their field of policing?
- **Question F.2:** According to your experience, do you think MP Division training is well planned?
- **Question F.3:** According to your experience, what should be included in MPD training in order to improve the knowledge and skills needed for MPO's to execute their duties efficiently?
- **Question F.4:** In your opinion, what training model should be used by the MPD to ensure embedded knowledge and practical skills required by MPO's?
- **Question G.1:** According to your experience what are the challenges in MPD training? Please elaborate.
- **Question G.2:** In your opinion, what can be the factors that hinder MPD training?
- **Question G.3:** In your opinion, what are the MPD training needs?
- **Question G.4:** According to your knowledge, what is your understanding of the term "Training analysis"?
- **Question G.5:** In your opinion, what practical guidelines can you suggest on how to MPD training should be conducted? Please elaborate.
- **Question G.6:** In your opinion, what practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures and recommendations can be offer to the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training?
- **Question G.7:** Do you have any additional comments or suggestions regarding the MPD training to that we have not been discussed?

In this theme, the researcher identified fifteen sub-themes as indicated in Table 7.18. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected from participants regarding the MPD training enhancing the culture of learning, to empower MPOs to ultimately give higher returns in their job

7.7.1 Sub-theme 4.1: MPD Training in enhancing the culture of learning and empowering MPOs' performance in their duties

The researcher sought to find out whether the MPD training was able to enhance the culture of learning, and empowering MPOs to ultimately give higher returns in their job. Accordingly, the participants were asked in Question E1: *"In your opinion, does the MPD training enhance a culture of learning to empower you with the necessary*

skills to perform your duties?” The purpose of this question was to determine continually acquiring new skills within the MPD training. The following excerpts are a depiction of the participants in the above regard:

P1: Members are encouraged to make use of skills training.

P2: Yes, we have normal structured classes and also we get to do practical's.

P3: Yes and no. Yes, in a sense that MPOs are send to do functional courses on a regular basis. No in a sense that most members are required to do some functional courses that are not relevant to their utilisation.

P4: The standard of training needs a revisit and serious attention, upgrades here and there. Why not infuse the SAPS within/amongst the MPOs'.

P5: I belief it does but is difficult to influence learners to want to enter into lifelong learning and a huge factor being the average age of our soldiers.

P6: Please, there is no culture of learning within the MPD and the current training does not help in augmenting such a culture. Moreover, the Defence Force in its entirety does not value education. Those with qualifications are sidelined in most cases, this is a sad reality.

P7: Yes, to a certain extent as the members are developing themselves because of the limitation of courses within the MPD training.

P8: Not at all, that's why I ended up deciding to further my studies because I realised that knowledge I acquired was definitely not sufficient for me to do my duties.

P9, P10: No. MPD training does not enhance a culture of learning. Yes

P11: Yes, it just needs follow up in workplace.

P12: Yes, however, to use my technological skills is still lacking.

P13: Yes, after training one is able to be effective in the workers' environment.

P14: Yes, crime prevention training as well as policing.

P15: Interdepartmental training is done with SAPS and Metro Police and MPOs are still encouraged to study at state expense.

P16: No, there is no culture of learning after training follow-up on new development is not done.

P17: A lot is still needed to achieve - learning and empowering not enough opportunities available to members.

P18: Yes, because they are provided with modern courses.

P19: No, as I have pointed out what you get at training is not what experience in the working field.

P20: No, the information is old but it did give us a base of what it means to be an MPO.

An analysis of the participants' responses indicate that two (2) participants' (P1 and P15) responses were not necessarily wrong, but the question referred to the culture of learning within the MPD training not outside the MPD training. One participant (P3) gave a redundant answer. In the above replies, the participants provided different answers regarding question E1, nine participants (P2, P5, P7, P10, P11, P12, P13, P14 and P18) suggested that the MPD training it does enhance a culture of learning to empower you with the necessary skills to perform your duties. As such, eight

participants (P4, P6, P8, P9, P16, P17, P19 and P20) reported that the MPD training does not enhance a culture of learning to empower learners with the necessary skills to perform your duties.

Based on the analysis, 45% of the participants' responses, expressed that the MPD training does enhance a culture of learning to empower you with the necessary skills to perform your duties. However, another 40% of the participants provided responses that the MPD training does not enhance a culture of learning to empower you with the necessary skills to perform your duties. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected from participants regarding the MPD training rendering modern policing.

7.7.2 Sub-theme 4.2: MPD Training contribution in modern policing

This subtheme aimed at determining whether the MPD training provide you with the modern police requirements that MPOs need to carry out their police duties effectively. The participants in this study were asked in Question E2: *“In your opinion, does the MPD training provide you with the modern police needs required by MPOs to complete your police duties effectively?”* The data collected from the participants' answers to this question is as follows:

P1: I am of the opinion that curricula must be revisited and revised.

P2: Yes, it used to, but now everything needs to be revised to be on par with modern policing.

P3: I feel in the current state it does not but we are slowly moving into a different era of policing where the use of technological advancements should seriously be considered.

P4: To be honest we are trying our best but there is still a lot to be done to achieve total satisfaction of a need for training/ professional and effective

P5: More research need to be done by MPD to update the curriculum as mentioned earlier in order to be in par with recent police as technology evolves.

P6: The training provided by the MPD to its members is still outdated simply because there is no benchmarking from other law enforcement agencies or MP from developed countries. Some countries have already adopted the 4ir by acquiring advanced technology in augmenting their policing efforts. Modern policing dictates that we move with the times, hence we are still in the 2ir.

P7: It only provides training to a lower level the advance courses MPOs are forced to do them outside MP School.

P8: Modern policing requires modern resources which MP Division does not have, so it is a no.

P9: No.

P10: Yes, the MPD is having the section that research and develop the modern policing.

P11: No, most learning programmes are based on curriculum that are not accredited.

P12: No, modern technologies are required i.e. speed guns and breathalyser.

P13: No lack of resources (Technology).

P14: Yes, like international peace support operational duties.

P15: Modern policing requires MPOs who understand for example cyber-crimes and how to combat them; how to handle domestic violence and violence against women and children.

P16: No, there are no new developments taking place.

P17: The training on its own is good but for one to execute his duties well, equipment needs to be readily available, which is not the case.

P18: As we are part of the African continent we are considered not modern.

P19: As I have pointed out when coming to the empowering skills it is certain individuals who go to do advance courses.

P20: Yes, it does, but slowly moving to a modern and advanced era.

An analysis of the participants' responses indicate that, four (4) participants (P3, P5, P12 and P13) expressed concerns about the effectiveness of MP Division training in providing modern policing requirements that MPOs need to perform their duties effectively in terms of technological advances. Relating to technology one (1) participant (P6) indicated some degree of concern connected to the MPD training. Participants' (P6) concern was concurred by another participant (P15). On the other hand, two (2) participants (P1, P7) suggested that the MP Division training need to be revised, implying that the MPD training does not provide them with the modern police needs required by MPOs to complete their police duties effectively.

Participant (P11)'s answer correlates with that of (P1). Consequently, five (5) participants (P8, P9, P16, P18 and 19) were also of the opinion that the MPD training does not provide them with the modern police needs required by MPOs to complete their police duties effectively. However, six (6) participants (P4, P2, P10, P14, P17 and P20) had a different opinion, they felt that MP Division is trying to provide them with the modern police needs required by MPOs to complete their police duties effectively. Based on the analysis, 70% of the participants expressed that the MPD training does not provide them with the modern police needs required by MPOs to complete their police duties effectively. However, it is worth noting that the minority of 30% participants provided responses that the MPD training does provide them with the modern police needs required by MPOs to complete their police duties effectively. The

following sub-theme presents data collected participants regarding the MPD training expanding knowledge and skills.

7.7.3 Sub-theme 4.3: MPD Training's expansion of knowledge and skills

This sub-theme explores the issue of whether there is a vital role played by the MPD training in the development of policing knowledge and skills as the tool to respond to crime situations. The participants were then asked in Question E3: "*In your opinion, does MPD training present opportunities to expand policing knowledge and skills to meet the current crime situation?*" The main focus of this sub-theme was to establish if there is a positive correlation between the MPD training offered and the knowledge and skills acquired from the same training offered to attain objectives. The data collected from the participants' answers to this question is as follows:

P1: If curricula are being revisited by a "panel" this can be addressed.

P2: Yes, members get learning opportunities to study at university, join SAPS training and also go to other countries for learning.

P3: Yes, looking at the top crimes investigated by the MPD training covers how to handle said crimes and opportunities is even available to further their skills and knowledge by using outside service providers.

P4: It does challenge the thinking process of individual's and surely depending on individual's interests a need to expand policing knowledge and skills is sparking one way or the other.

P5: Yes, but there is a serious need of resources.

P6: The current training model does not present any opportunities aimed at expanding policing knowledge and skills necessary to fight the current crime situation, for instance cybercrime is not presented at the MP school, only few lucky senior officers are sent to do such a course at private institutions and when they came back they do not transfer skills but sit in their air-conditioned offices and do absolutely nothing.

P7, P13: No, the policing knowledge is limited due to inability to present advanced courses.

P8: The information that is shared through MPD training is vague, so it is practically impossible to acquire or get necessary skills to challenge the current crime situation.

P9: No, the institution does not even have an effective library or internet room or the environment itself is not equipped to train a MPOs.

P10: Yes, it does that by everyday developing its members with new skills.

P11: No, due to financial constraints training does not meet the current crime situation.

P12: No.

P14: Yes, knowledge of investigation.

P15: Yes, through interdepartmental memorandum of understanding and study at state expense.

P16: Yes, there are still development courses presented.

P17: Opportunities are not enough. A lot needs to be done to accommodate young MPOs who can explore learning opportunities.

P18: Yes, the MPD are meeting current crime situation.

P19: Same as E2”, “As I have pointed out when coming to the empowering skills it is getting individuals who go to do advance courses.

P20: Yes, training focuses on how to prepare yourself and handle crime.

An analysis of the participants' responses reveal that, ten (10) participants (P1, P6, P7, P8, P9, P11, P12, P13, P17 and P19) expressed that the MPD training does not present opportunities to expand policing knowledge and skills to meet the current crime situation, experienced opportunities are not enough. Meanwhile, the other (10) participants (P2, P3, P4, P5, P10, P14, P15, P16, P18 and P20) acknowledged that the MPD training does present opportunities to expand policing knowledge and skills to meet the current crime situation. Based on the analysis, 50% of the participants' responses, reacted negatively to the question, on the other hand, 50% of the participants provided responses which were positive to the question. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the supporting structure to render constant MP Division training regarding rapid changes.

7.7.4 Sub-theme 4.4: Supporting structure to render constant MP Division Training consistent with rapid changes

The participants in this study were asked in Question E4: “*According to your knowledge, after completion of MPD training do you have a supporting structure that keeps you up to date with constantly rapid changes as training evolves with time?*”

The researcher was to determine the willingness of the MP Division training to support the efforts of lifelong learning after completion of MP Division. Following are the responses of the participants:

P1: I do not think that this opportunity is fully exploited mostly due to budget constraints.

P2, P12, P13, P14, P20: No.

P3: If there is such mechanisms, I am unaware thereof.

P4: I believe in every region or structure there is of the MP Division there is an element of support in terms of ETD reps.

P5: No, MPD does have structure like existing.

P6: Some years ago, there was something called impost training within the MPD so that members were always aware and informed of new developments. It was effective to a certain extent but if it could be resuscitated and be monitored by the MPD HQ, it could yield the desired results. Currently, there is absolutely no follow-up after training, hence, members lose touch with modern developments and crime trends.

P7: Yes, the training is provided outside the MPD structure.

P8: There isn't any that I know of for one to be updated depends on the individual him or herself.

P9: No, however, it is your duty as an MPO to equip himself/herself.

P10: Yes.

P11: Yes, there are work sessions that are held.

P15: MPD still needs to dust and polish that pillar to function effectively.

P16: No, there is no post MPD training follow up after courses are presented.

P17: Not that I know of. Mostly you can train, and you need to constantly acquire knowledge from your colleagues with more experience.

P18: Yes, on-job training is considered after courses.

P19: No, supporting structures, and members of the reserve force are expected to be part of policing, but they are not enhanced with the necessary training as others who working at the MPD.

An analysis of the participants' responses reveals that eight (8) participants (P1, P3, P5, P8, P9, P16, P17 and P19) indicated that there is no supporting structure that keeps them up to date with constantly rapid changes as training evolves with time. Six (6) participants (P2, P12, P13, P14, P15 and P20) submitted different answers in relation to MPD training have a supporting structure after training. One (1) participant (P6) submitted multiple answers attesting to (P1, P3, P5, P8, P9, P16, P17 and P19). These participants' answers were confirmed by this participant (P6):

P6: Some years ago, there was something called impost training within the MPD so that members were always aware and informed of new developments. It was effective to a certain extent but if it could be resuscitated and be monitored by the MPD HQ, it could yield the desired results. Currently, there is absolutely no follow-up after training, hence, members lose touch with modern developments and crime trends.

Not every participant mentioned that after completion of MPD training there is no support system that keeps them up to date with the developments pertaining to rapid changes as training evolves with time,

The other Participant (P4) disagreed with the above-mentioned participant, and mentioned the following:

P4: I believe in every region or structure there is of the MP Division there is an element of support in terms of ETD reps.

Participants (P7, P11 and P18) suggested that after completion of MPD training they do have a supporting structure that keeps you up to date with constantly rapid changes as training evolves with time. Based on the analysis, a majority of the participants (80%), expressed that there is no supporting structure that keeps them up to date with constantly rapid changes as training evolves with time. However, it is worth noting that the minority of 20% participants provided responses that there is supporting structure that keeps them up to date with constantly rapid changes as training evolves with time.

Following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the participants' ideas to advance MP Division training to enable the MPO's to perform well within their field of policing.

7.7.5 Sub-theme 4.5: Participants' ideas to advance MP Division Training to enable MPO's to perform well within their field of policing

The researcher posed the following in Question F1: *"In your opinion, what knowledge should be imparted by MPD training to enable the MPO's to perform well within their field of policing?"* The data collected from the participants' answers to this question encompassed:

P1: Practical experience is essential; members learn best when they are exposed to real life situations under guidance.

P2: Research needs to be done, so that curriculums can be revised to meet the standard of today's policing.

P3: By getting support from the MP Division.

P4: The focus should be on real time problem solving, detecting, prevention of crime.

P5: Functional knowledge and practical application thereof as this lessens the impact to further train MPO's when arriving at their different units after training specifically MSDS intakes.

P6: Policing training must be aligned with policing functions and responsibilities, moreover, modern policing suggests that police officials must be equipped with skills such as negotiation skills, computer skills, interpersonal skills and more. These are some of the skills required to perform day-to-day policing functions. For instance, if a policeman/woman is performing crime prevention duties, they must build a good rapport with the community members so that trust develops which makes it easier for the community to provide the police with valuable crime information.

P7: Community orientated policing knowledge should be imported.

P8: Relevant and practical knowledge, as well as comprehensive information on policing.

P9: For example, forensic investigation, how to detect crime, domestic violence, advanced driving for escorts.

P10: Police functions.

P11: Learned should be trained in their field of expertise.

P12: Exploration of MPOs' the training, admin is required to make comparisons.

P13: Training in technology.

P14: Understanding of investigation and client service centre knowledge.

P15: All aspects of policing that are in line with policing the SANDF.

P16: A form of theoretical and practical.

P17: The idea that would be effective is the rotation of MPOs from training institutions; MP stations, DB, HQ and deployment units let there be yearly rotation among members.

P18: By getting support from the MP Division.

P19: Police functional knowledge and we must grow with specialisations on ranks.

P20: The knowledge imparted to the MPD is sufficient to enable the MPOs to perform well in the field of policing.

An analysis of participants' responses unveils several crucial aspects that warrant attention in the context of MP Division training. The consensus among most participants is the need for alignment between MP Division training and contemporary training developments. Participants emphasised the importance of enabling learners to apply the knowledge and skills acquired, with a particular emphasis on practical learning and field application (P1, P5, P8, P9, P10, P11, P12, P13, P14, P15, P16, and P20). Participant (P2) highlighted a concern regarding the lack of curriculum updates, suggesting that this gap could adversely affect the outcomes of MP Division training. Others, such as participants P3 and P18, stressed that for training to be truly effective, the MP Division must actively support it.

P18: By getting support from the MP Division.

P3: By getting support from the MP Division.

Moreover, a subgroup of participants (P4, P6, P7, P17 and P19) advocated for community-oriented policing training. This approach, characterised by a strong influence from field application, focuses on problem-solving techniques and specialised training.

P4: The focus should be on real time problem solving, detecting, prevention of crime.

P6: Policing training must be aligned with policing functions and responsibilities; moreover, modern policing suggests that police officials must be equipped with skills such as negotiation skills, computer skills, interpersonal skills and more. These are some of the skills required to perform day-to-day policing functions. For instance, if a policeman/woman is performing crime prevention duties, they must build a good rapport with the community members so that trust develops which makes it easier for the community to provide the police with valuable crime information.

P7: Community orientated policing knowledge should be imported.

P17: The idea that would be effective is the rotation of MPOs from training institutions; MP stations, DB, HQ and deployment units let there be yearly rotation among members.

These participants believe that such training would better prepare Military Police Officers (MPOs) for the challenges they face in their policing roles. In summary, participants presented a diverse range of ideas to enhance MP Division training, aiming to equip MPOs with the capabilities necessary for effective policing. The key

responses of the participants are summarised in Table 7.32 below, reflecting the varied perspectives on advancing MP Division training.

Table 7.32: Participants’ ideas to advance MP Division training to enable the MPO’s to perform well within their field of policing

Participants’ ideas to advance MP Division training		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Align with modern policing functions/technologies/practical	12	60.0
	Community orientated policing/specialisation	5	25.0
	Relevant training/training must be supported	2	10.0
	Curriculum update	1	5.0
	Total	20	20.0
Total		20	100.0

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

The ensuing sub-theme delves into the collection and analysis of participant data, specifically focusing on the effectiveness of planning within the MPD's training programs.

7.7.6 Sub-theme 4.6: Well planning of training in the MPD

To distinguish whether the Military Police training is well-planned, the participants were asked in Question F2: “According to your experience, do you think MP Division training is well planned?” The researcher wanted to determine whether the MPD training is well-planned, as the ability to deliver a meaningful training depends on its planning. The data collected from the participants’ answers to this question encompassed the following:

P1: Training is planned, however, members with knowledge and experience are gradually dwindling.

P2: On planning yes, problem is execution.

P3: Certain aspects can be made more effective, “In my opinion better interaction between MP School and MPD can result in a higher effectiveness planning.

P4: In it all appears all legit and well planned, the focus should be on execution part overall.

P5: Yes.

P6: In their own view, it is properly planned. In reality it is properly planned to a certain extent.

P7: Yes, to a certain extent, but improvement is needed.

P8: It is partially planned, thorough and complete planning is needed from all involved as well as the understanding of the plan for achieving the objectives of the training.

P9: No, it still encompasses the old training for MPOs.

P10, P13, P15, P16: No.

P11: Yes, there is a course programme every year, it means that is planned.

P12: Yes, as per MP Div training flow for every financial year.

P14: I am not sure.

P17: Well planned, yes but are the students disciplined enough to take training seriously.

P18: Yes, has been planned due to the current situation and changes.

P19: No, I don't think so because if it was well planned it was not going to take me 7 years after basic training to do the crime prevention.

P20: Some aspects still need to be revamped in my opinion.

An analysis of the participants' responses reveals that seven (7) participants (P6, P8, P10, P13, P15, P16 and P19) expressed that they were not to be totally convinced that the MPD training is well planned.

P6: In their own view, it is properly planned. In reality it is properly planned to a certain extent.

P8: It is partially planned, thorough and complete planning is needed from all involved as well as the understanding of the plan for achieving the objectives of the training.

P10, P13, P15, P16: No.

Three participants (P3, P9 and P20) shared a variety of opinions in favour of these six participants (P6, P8, P10, P13, P15, P16 and P19) implying that the MPD training is not planned. According to Nassazi (2013) as discussed in Section 6.3 para 11 in Chapter 6 in this study, a well-planned training consists of the following; planned training programs that meet the needs and objectives by using the right combination of training techniques, identified and defined training needs, defined objectives of the training, defined learning is required in terms of which skills and knowledge have to be learned and which attitudes need to be changed, decision who provides training, evaluated training and it should be amended and extended training where applicable.

In contrast, nine participants (P1, P2, P4, P5, P7, P11, P12, P17 and P18) noted that MP Division training is well planned.

P1: Training is planned, however, members with knowledge and experience are gradually dwindling.

P2: On planning yes, problem is execution.

P11: Yes, there is a course programme every year, it means that is planned.

P12: Yes, as per MP Div training flow for every financial year.

P17: Well planned, yes but are the students disciplined enough to take training seriously.

One participant (P14) was not sure whether or not the MPD training is well-planned.

P14: I am not sure.

Based on the analysis, half (50%) of participants expressed that MPD training is not well-planned. However, it is worth noting that about (45%) of participants responded that the training provided by the MPD is well-planned. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the suggestion of what should be included in MPD training in order to improve the knowledge and skills needed for MPO's to execute their duties efficiently.

7.7.7 Subtheme 4.7: Suggestion on what should be included in the MPD Training for improving the knowledge and skills needed for MPO's efficient functioning

The participants were asked in Question F3: *“According to your experience, what should be included in MPD training in order to improve the knowledge and skills needed for MPO's to execute their duties efficiently?”* Following are the participants' responses to this question:

P1: One aspect that can be repeated more often is crime scene management.

P2: Lots and lots of research.

P3: Personally I would like to see included in our training how to speak and interact with clients/suspects as the current content we have should be expanded.

P4: More practicals more than theory, more problem-solving scenarios to match the current trends in the policing sector.

P5: Action plan is needed for the MPD training, sometimes we can see that there is no seriousness by the trainer they send in the class.

P6: A committee of experts should be established to deal with MPD training issues, from training aspects to the trainers who are presenting this course.

P7: Community orientated policing and policing management.

P8: More practice or crime scenes should be included; research methodology should form perfect part of training. Access and exports to modern crime situation must be conveyed to the MPO's.

P9: Research and development section that would always update the content of the current curriculums.

P10: None, or maybe later.

P11: Training must be real, put qualified trainers.

P12: Outsourcing saps trainers.

P13: Current modern policing practices.

P14: Get serious new personnel in training.

P15: Fraud; corruption; violence against women and children/domestic violence; interdepartmental operations; forensic; ballistics.

P16: Follow-up process after training was received.

P17: Getting professionals from different stakeholders to assist where necessary, would be good.

P18: Computer literacy and explosive experts.

P19: New knowledge should be included on the outdated training versions which normally cause confusion between learners and instructors.

P20: Crime management.

Analysis of the participants' responses reveals numerous suggestions that can be applied to align MP Division training so that it positively impacts all expected outcomes. Only one participant (P13) suggested that real training for the MP Division be provided, and that qualified trainers should be used.

P13: Current modern policing practices.

This above-mentioned participants' response suggests that MPOs acquire the knowledge and skills they need to perform their jobs more successfully. A summary of the range of participants' suggestions of what should be included in MPD training in order to improve the knowledge and skills needed for MPO's to execute their duties efficiently are illustrated below in Table 7.33 below.

Table 7.33: Summarised participant responses concerning improvement of the knowledge and skills needed for MPO's efficient functioning

Participant's suggestions summary on MP Division training		Frequency	Percent
	Harvest new knowledge to training	4	20.0
	Updated/Improvement of the trainers	4	20.0
	Outsourcing SAPS trainers	3	15.0
	More practical's/real training	3	15.0
	Research and Development (R&D	2	10.0
	Modern policing practices	2	10.0
	Community oriented policing	1	5.0
	Total	19	95.0
Missing	System	1	5.0
Total		20	100.0

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the participants' proposed model for MP Division training.

7.7.8 Subtheme 4.8: Participants' proposed model for MP Division training

Concerning this subtheme, the participants were asked the question: *"In your opinion, what training model should be used by the MPD to ensure embedded knowledge and practical skills required by MPO's?"* The data collected from the participants' answers to this question encompassed:

P1: Revision of curriculums on a yearly basis in order to stay current and be effective.

P2, P10, P14, P15: I don't know.

P3: Direct application of theoretical knowledge gained should be done immediately after obtaining theoretical knowledge. Currently we are doing that but we should just be more aware of the fact and apply it.

P4: In a world where most things are going digital, we should also experiment more with technology as well, so much can be achieved through technology.

P5: Why they do not try evident-based approach in training.

P6: For as long as there are no passionate instructors, there is no embedded knowledge, as soon as members write assessments, leave the school, the information/knowledge would immediately evaporate out of their minds. Get the right people for the job.

P7: The model must be in line with the current policing practices that must be based on community orientated policing.

P8: Both analogues and digital models, but because of changing crime environment, digital one should take up the upper hand.

P9: They should also benchmark with other safety forces such as SAPS.

P11: Training is not supported as it is supposed to be, put supervisors who understands training.

P12: Possible attachments to the saps stations to deal with updated information of current affairs.

P13: MPD training should be accredited.

P16: More subject-related knowledge should be given.

P17: Only one model - the disciplined way of the military school should set the ground rules. Military etiquette is neither here nor there.

P18: Monthly and quarterly refreshment training to be established.

P19: Learning adult approach should be used.

P20: After knowledge is gained, application exams should be done immediately.

An analysis of participant responses indicates that seven (7) individuals (P3, P4, P5, P8, P16, P19, and P20) have provided diverse suggestions regarding the training model that the MPD should adopt.

P3: Direct application of theoretical knowledge gained should be done immediately after obtaining theoretical knowledge. Currently we are doing that but we should just be more aware of the fact and apply it.

P4: In a world where most things are going digital, we should also experiment more with technology as well, so much can be achieved through technology.

P5: Why they do not try evident-based approach in training.

P19: Learning adult approach should be used.

P20: After knowledge is gained, application exams should be done immediately.

The proposals by the above-mentioned participants align with the literature, emphasizing the importance of a workplace learning model that actively involves learners in tangible experiences (Schwartz, 2016:359). Conversely, eight (8)

participants (P1, P6, P7, P9, P11, P17, P13 and P18) have put forth crucial suggestions aimed at incorporating the practical knowledge and skills necessary for MPOs.

P6: For as long as there are no passionate instructors, there is no embedded knowledge, as soon as members write assessments, leave the school, the information/knowledge might immediately evaporate out of their minds. Get the right people for the job.

P7: The model must be in line with the current policing practices that must be based on community orientated policing.

P9: They should also benchmark with other safety forces such as SAPS.

Four (4) participants (P2, P10, P14 and P15) refrained from offering a response.

P2, P10, P14, P15: I don't know.

In a nut shell, participants have proposed a model for MP Division training, with the details outlined in Table 7.34 below.

Table 7.34: Participants' proposed model for MP Division training

Participants' proposed model for MP Division training		Frequency	Percent
	Interact/attach with SAPS stations for information	4	20.0
	Practical training	3	15.0
	Regular follow-up/refreshment training	2	10.0
	Supervisors must be instructors/Instructors must be passionate	2	10.0
	Training must be accredited	1	5.0
	Training must be community oriented	1	5.0
	Adult-learning approach	1	5.0
	Digital training must take the upper hand	1	5.0
	Total	16	80.0
Missing	System	4	20.0
Total		20	100.0

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the challenges encountered the MPD training.

7.7.9 Subtheme 4.9: The challenges encountered in the MPD training

The aim of this sub-theme is to identify the areas in the MPD training that have challenges in. The participants were asked in Question G1: *“According to your experience what are the challenges in MPD training?”* The purpose of this sub-theme was to gain a better understanding of the challenges that negatively impact the MPD

training. The data collected from the participants' answers to this question encompassed the following:

- P1:** I think the biggest challenge is subject matter experts.
- P2:** Trainers are not well-versed on their subjects, less preparations for courses and outdated curriculums.
- P3:** I also think there is many different factors that is relevant to individuals but some more general points I think of is lack of dedicated trainers/subject matter specialist, old classrooms and furniture which is not conducive to learning as well as technology used.
- P4:** Training by qualified trainers, introduction of technology and innovations.
- P5:** Outdated information that is used and lack of modern resources.
- P6:** Inadequate resources, incorrectly placed members who do not have passion for education, no reviewal of instructions, outdated training manuals, poor planning (to a certain extent).
- P7:** Point out "Ageing of the instructors and long processes of changing the curriculum.
- P8:** Knowledgeable persons or experts lack thereof.
- P9:** Most of the subjects are not accredited.
- P10:** There are no challenges within the MPD training.
- P11:** Challenges are learning support material.
- P12:** Equipment requirements, training aids for research, e.g. internet.
- P13:** Proper facilities and outdated study material.
- P14:** Good instructors are needed.
- P15:** Lack of resources, and old facilities. There is a dire need for new and current resourceful training.
- P16:** Poor research and development of training.
- P17:** Lack of resources and shortage of well-trained and dedicated instructors.
- P18:** Shortage of instructors.
- P19:** Outdated versions uninformed instructors old, and facilities.
- P20:** There is poor research and development of training.

An analysis of the participants' responses reveals that despite the fact that MP Division is still offering training, there are many difficulties with it. However, these challenges are not specific to training per se; rather, they are the result of a combination of factors. Some of these difficulties include outdated information being used, a dearth of contemporary resources, and trainers with inadequate training backgrounds and experience. The analysis indicates that the majority (95%) of the participants indicated in their responses that there are challenges with the training provided by the MPD. The summary of the challenges encountered in the MPD training as mentioned by the participated are illustrated in Table 7.35 overleaf.

Table 7.35: The challenges encountered in the MPD training

The challenges encountered in the MPD training		Frequency	Percent
	Improve/Train/get new trainers	6	30.0
	Lack of equipment/Resources/Facilities	5	25.0
	Update/improve the curriculum	3	15.0
	poor research and development of training	2	10.0
	Shortage of trainers	2	10.0
	Introduction of technology	1	5.0
	Total	19	90.0
Missing	System	1	5.0
Total		20	100.0

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

It is noteworthy that only 5% of the participants responded that there are no difficulties in the MPD's training. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the factors that hinder MPD training.

7.7.10 Sub-theme 4.10: Factors that hinder MPD training

The participants in this study were asked in Question G2: *“In your opinion, what can be the factors that hinder MPD training?”* The researcher decided to ask this question from the participants to determine the factors that hinder MP Division training. The data collected from the participants' answers to this question encompassed the following:

- P1:** Budget and subject matter experts.
- P2:** Old and less-interested trainers, old training aids and outdated curriculums.
- P3:** The only things that comes to mind of trainers is mess times, unit maintenance and visits from company representatives.
- P4:** Ageing trainers, neglected facilities at our disposal, lack of motivation by trainers and toxic work environment.
- P5:** Outdated information that is used and lack of modern resources.
- P6:** Inadequate resources, incorrectly placed members who do not have passion for education, no reviewal of instructions, outdated training manuals, poor planning (to a certain extent).
- P7:** Identification of suitable facilitators and insufficient training equipment.
- P8:** Proper planning is not sufficient, lack of professionalism by not understanding the objectives of the training.
- P9:** Facilitators are ageing, lack of training conducive facilities, e.g. internet, library, and no research and development.
- P10:** There are no factors that hinder the MP Division training.
- P11:** Training support material and qualified trainers.
- P12:** Facilities and tools for training.
- P13:** The competencies of the facilitators and lack of material and equipment.
- P14:** Poor knowledge of instructors and study aids or materials.

- P15:** Lack of research outcome that can be implemented.
- P16:** Finance is a major factor.
- P17:** Constant budget cuts, and add further qualified members leaving the MP Division and overlooking qualified personnel that can do the job.
- P18:** Shortage of staff and equipment.
- P19:** Instructors not doing research before going to the class and instructor not a subject matter expert.
- P20:** Outdated curricula (P20).

An analysis of participant responses indicates that three (3) individuals (P1, P16, and P17) emphasised the hindrances posed by limited access to funding for training and the shortage of experts within the MPD. While these issues were initially mentioned as challenges in Section 7.7.10 above, other responses, such as the acknowledgment that “planning overlapped from challenges to be factored that hinder MP Division training,” highlight the pivotal role of planning in training effectiveness. Two (2) participants (P6 and P8) specifically identified planning as a contributing factor that hampers MPD training.

- P6:** Inadequate resources, incorrectly placed members who do not have passion for education, no reviewal of instructions, outdated training manuals, poor planning (to a certain extent).
- P8:** Proper planning is not sufficient, lack of professionalism by not understanding the objectives of the training.

Furthermore, four (4) participants (P7, P13, P14 and P19) identified the lack of knowledge among trainers as a significant factor impeding MP Division training.

- P7:** Identification of suitable facilitators and insufficient training equipment.
- P13:** The competencies of the facilitators and lack of material and equipment.
- P14:** Poor knowledge of instructors and study aids or materials.
- P19:** Instructors not doing research before going to the class and instructor not a subject matter expert.

Similarly, three (3) participants (P2, P4 and P9) recognised the age of trainers as another contributing factor hindering effective training within the MPD.

- P2:** Old and less-interested trainers, old training aids and outdated curriculums.
- P4:** Ageing trainers, neglected facilities at our disposal, lack of motivation by trainers and toxic work environment.
- P9:** Facilitators are ageing, lack of training conducive facilities, e.g. internet, library, and no research and development.

Additionally, eight participants (P3, P5, P10, P11, P12, P15, P18 and P20) echoed responses related to challenges outlined in Section 7.7.9 above, including the need to improve the curriculum and address the aging trainer demographic.

P3: The only things that comes to mind of trainers is mess times, unit maintenance and visits from company representatives.

P15: Lack of research outcome that can be implemented.

P10: There are no factors that hinder the MP Division training.

P11: Training support material and qualified trainers.

The summarised factors hindering MPD training, as highlighted by the participants, are presented in Table 7.36 below.

Table 7.36 Participants’ perspectives concerning factors that hinder MPD training

The factors that hinder MPD training		Frequency	Percent
	Improve/Train/ageing trainers	5	25.0
	Update/improve the curriculum	4	20.0
	Lack of equipment/Resources/Facilities	3	15.0
	Constrain budget	3	15.0
	Lack of research and development	2	10.0
	Lack of professionalism	1	5.0
	Overlooking qualified personnel	1	5.0
	Total	19	95.0
Missing	System	1	5.0
Total		20	100.0

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

Based on Table 7.36 above, the majority (95%) of the participants, identified factors hindering MPD training. It is noteworthy that the minority (5%) of participants expressed the view that there are no hindering factors in MPD training. The subsequent sub-theme delves into the collected data, exploring participants' perspectives on the training needs within the MPD.

7.7.11 Sub-theme 4.11: The MPD training needs

The participants were asked in Question G3: “*In your opinion, what are the MPD training needs?*” The data collected from the participants’ answers to this question encompassed the following:

P1: Audio/video equipment and videos on policing techniques/etc.

P2: Place young and energetic trainers, and added: Revised curriculums.

P3: I am not sure, I understand this question but better facilities, furniture and technological advancements is needed.

P4: An instructor is an example of what is expected from learners, appearance is everything, age, fitness, energy and knowledge.

P5, P10, P11, P18: I do not know.

P6: Based on the primary mandate of the MPD being crime prevention, our training needs must focus mainly on providing training that enables MPOs to fight crime effectively in the SANDF.

P7: Well-equipped facilitators.

P8: It needs professional and academic facilitators, proper restructuring and thorough planning and sufficient resources.

P9: More modern skills that fit the current challenges.

P12: Good facilities and sophisticated training tools.

P13: It just needs well trained and knowledgeable instructors.

P14: Study materials, good instructors and subjects' knowledge.

P15: Latest equipment e.g. route marking equipment, vehicles and training, motorbikes, and succession plan of trainers/facilitators.

P16: More subject matter should be provided.

P17: More instructors at junior level, more qualified MPOs trainers and Military Police equipment.

P19: Knowledgeable instructors, identification of gaps in training, more emphasis on field training, theory training should be goal oriented, give us the tools to meet the MPD goals.

P20: Better facilities, furniture, technological advancement, dedicated trainers/instructors.

Upon analysis of the participant responses, it is evident that four (4) participants (P4, P7, P13, and P16) emphasised the necessity for certified instructors in MPD training.

P4: An instructor is an example of what is expected from learners, appearance is everything, age, fitness, energy and knowledge.

P7: Well-equipped facilitators.

P13: It just needs well trained and knowledgeable instructors.

P16: More subject matter should be provided.

Some of the participants provided multiple answers. Other participants (P14, P17, P20, and P15) highlighted the importance of qualified trainers and adequate resources in MPD training.

P15: Latest equipment e.g. route marking equipment, vehicles and training.

P17: More instructors at junior level, more qualified MPOs trainers and Military Police equipment.

P20: Better facilities, furniture, technological advancement, dedicated trainers/instructors.

Three (3) participants (P1, P3, and P12) pointed to the lack of resources, offering various justifications for the need for MPD training.

P1: Audio/video equipment and videos on policing techniques/etc.

P3: I am not sure, I understand this question but better facilities, furniture and technological advancements is needed.

P12: Good facilities and sophisticated training tools.

Furthermore, participants such as P6, P9, and P19 approached the question from a different perspective, emphasising the need for more field training in MPD programs.

P6: Based on the primary mandate of the MPD being crime prevention, our training needs must focus mainly on providing training that enables MPOs to fight crime effectively in the SANDF.

P9: More modern skills that fit the current challenges.

P19: Knowledgeable instructors, identification of gaps in training, more emphasis on field training, theory training should be goal oriented, give us the tools to meet the MPD goals.

The overarching theme from a majority (80%) of the participants' responses is premised on the strengthening of the MPD training. However, not all participants provided specific answers to question G3; about four (4) participants who constitute a minority of (20%) did not offer any specific responses (P5, P10, P11, and P18).

P5, P10, P11, P18: I do not know

The summary of training needs, as suggested by the participants, is presented in Table 7.37 below.

Table 7.37: Summary of the participants suggested training needs

The participants suggested training needs		Frequency	Percent
	Improve/Train/get new trainers	5	25.0
	Update/improve the curriculum	4	20.0
	Lack of equipment/Resources/Facilities	4	20.0
	Thorough planning	2	10.0
	More regular learning	1	5.0
	Total	16	80.0
Missing	System	4	20.0
Total		20	100.0

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the training analysis.

7.7.12 Sub-theme 4.12: Training Analysis

To determine the participants' understanding of the term "training analysis", they were asked in Question G4: *"According to your knowledge, what is your understanding of the term "Training analysis?"* The data collected from the participants' answers to this question encompassed the following:

- P1:** Process whereby one can determine gaps in training and specific training needs.
- P2:** Process in which the organisation identifies training and development needs of its members so that they can perform their duties effectively.
- P3:** It is something that must be done to see how effective the training presented was and what could be done for better future output.
- P4:** A deep analysis into all spheres of training, seek to bring about change in training, a review to current standards of training.
- P5:** Recording of training - what worked, what didn't.
- P6:** In my understanding, training analysis is a process of identifying the gaps in employee training and other related training needs.
- P7:** The purpose of training, methodology and its objectives.
- P8:** The examination of training to check it enables the organisation from in achieving its objectives and goals based on the training that is given.
- P9:** Is trying to find jobs that are there and coming with ways to fill them.
- P10:** None.
- P11:** It is the process of identifying the gaps in employee training and related training needs.
- P12:** The manner in which all the training requirements and way of conducting the training is unpacked.
- P13:** It is the process of identifying the gaps in employee training and needs.
- P14:** A person who monitors training and gives advice to instructors and learners.
- P15:** Finding pros and cons of the current programme/training and creating space for development.
- P16:** It is the analysis that should be done towards training provided to see where the shortcomings.
- P17:** The dissecting of training understanding of what is needed at training and then giving feedback.
- P18:** Is the theory training.
- P19:** Analysing training in order to improve it
- P20:** Checking the value of training given.

An analysis of the participants' responses reveals that five (5) participants (P3, P8, P5, 15 and P20) responded by mentioning that training analysis is checking what training is required to make it work. Regarding their understanding of the term "training analysis," the four participants (P4, P16, P17 and P19) gave varying answers to the same question (G4). They all agreed that training analysis is the analysis of training with the goal of reviewing current standards training.

- P4:** A deep analysis into all spheres of training, seek to bring about change in training, a review to current standards of training.
- P16:** It is the analysis that should be done towards training provided to see where the shortcomings.
- P17:** The dissecting of training understanding of what is needed at training and then giving feedback.

However, four (4) more participants (P1, P6, P11 and P13) suggested that training analysis is the process of identifying training gaps.

P1: Process whereby one can determine gaps in training and specific training needs.

P6: *In my understanding, training analysis is a process of identifying the gaps in employee training and other related training needs.*

P11: *It is the process of identifying the gaps in employee training and related training needs.*

P13: *It is the process of identifying the gaps in employee training and needs.*

The Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) (2002), as discussed in Section 6.7 para 1 in Chapter 6, defines training analysis as the process to; determine current abilities, determine required abilities, identify any gaps between the two, and factors about how best the training needs might be met. Responses of the majority (70%) of the aforementioned participants (P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P8, P11, P13, P15, P16, P17, P19 and P20) indicated that they understood the term, “training analysis”.

P1: Process whereby one can determine gaps in training and specific training needs.

P2: Process in which the organisation identifies training and development needs of its members so that they can perform their duties effectively.

P3: *It is something that must be done to see how effective the training presented was and what could be done for better future output.*

P4: *A deep analysis into all spheres of training, seek to bring about change in training, a review to current standards of training.*

P5: *Recording of training - what worked, what didn't.*

P6: *In my understanding, training analysis is a process of identifying the gaps in employee training and other related training needs.*

While the answers of the remaining (30%) participants (P7, P9, P10, P12, P14 and P18) were not necessarily incorrect, they were discovered to be inconsistent with the reviewed literature. The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the practical guidelines suggested to MPD training on how to conduct training.

P9: *Is trying to find jobs that are there and coming with ways to fill them.*

P10: *None.*

P14: *A person who monitors training and gives advice to instructors and learners.*

7.7.13 Sub-theme 4.13: Suggested practical guidelines for conducting MPD training

The participants in this study were asked in Question G5: *“In your opinion, what practical guidelines can you suggest on how to MPD training should be conducted?”*

The data collected from the participants’ answers to this question encompassed the following:

P1, P6, P17: Subject matter experts are crucial.

P3, P5: Trainers should visit different area offices and experience and interact with the different sections on the ground to gain insight on requirements and apply it in training.

P4: On the job training, exercises, simulation, mentorship programs and feedback thereafter.

P6: Select people who are passionate about training, who are capable of providing training, who are knowledgeable on the subjects they are to present and moreover, people who value education the most not to place people because of trivial emotional reasons.

P7: To improve the MPD training institution and provide the equipment required.

P8: MP Division training needs specialisation and different policing fields, thorough training for facilitators, have a set of standard to place facilitators and training institution, facilitators must be mentored.

P9: Stop training for the whole year, and concentrate on the amendments and introducing new skills such as forensic investigation.

P11: Requesting us guest speakers and get well-experienced trainers.

P12: If, for example, a member conduct investigation training that member must be attached to SAPS station.

P15: Having knowledgeable facilitators who are empowered to research their modules and contribute towards syllabus/curriculae.

P16: Research and development.

P17: Getting more qualified members to do training, endorsing military standards and adhering to the military etiquette all the time.

P18: To go under full-pricing courses.

P19: Training should be similar to other institutions that offer policing e.g. SAPS.

P20: Visit different sections so they can gain insight on requirements and apply them.

Analysis of the participants' responses reveals that five participants (P3, P5, P12, P15, and P20) indicated that there should be a collaboration with other stakeholders outside the MP Division and trainers be sent to gain more experience. Four participants (P1, P6, P17 and P11) felt that qualified individuals should be brought in as trainers. Three participants (P8, P9 and P19) suggested that if at all possible, MPD training should include the introduction of new skills.

P8: MP Division training needs specialisation and different policing fields, thorough training for facilitators, have a set of standard to place facilitators and training institution, facilitators must be mentored.

P9: Stop training for the whole year, and concentrate on the amendments and introducing new skills such as forensic investigation.

One participant (P7), however, suggested redesigning the learning environment.

P7: To improve the MPD training institution and provide the equipment required.

The idea of training benchmarking was put forth by three participants (P4, P16 and P18).

P4: On the job training, exercises, simulation, mentorship programs and feedback thereafter.

P16: Research and development.

P18: To go under full-pricing courses.

Another three participants (P2, P10 and P14) opted not to comment because they were unsure. Overall, the majority of the participants showed a good understanding of the question and made several important suggestions. The summary of the participants' practical guidelines suggested to MPD training on how to conduct training are illustrated below in Table 7.38.

Table 7.38: Participants' suggested practical guidelines for MPD training

Practical guidelines suggested by the participants		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Get qualified members who can contribute toward the improvement of the curricula	7	35.0
	Subject matter experts needed	4	20.0
	Improve training/environment	2	10.0
	Give full training	2	10.0
	Benchmarking	2	10.0
	Research and development needed	2	10.0
	Stop training for the whole year and review the whole MPD training	1	5.0
	Total	20	100.0
Total	20	100.0	

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

The following sub-theme presents and analyses data collected participants regarding the participants' practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures and recommendations offered to the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training.

7.7.14 Sub-theme 4.14: Suggested practical guidelines, procedures and recommendations for effective Military Police training

The researcher intended to find out from participants whether there is something different that should be done to effectively enhance the MPD training. In this regard, the participants were asked in Question G6: *"In your opinion, what practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures and recommendations can be offer to the Military*

Police to effectively enhance the MPD training?" The data collected from the participants' answers to this question encompassed the following:

- P1:** There should be a balance between theoretical training and practical exposure.
- P2:** Do more research, benchmark with other countries or even SAPS.
- P3:** Using of modern technology should be considered.
- P4:** Let MPD members attend courses with SAPS, MPD members get exposure at SAPS stations, intergrade training with other institutions.
- P5:** MPD training should be professionalized, bring in people that takes MPD training to the future.
- P6:** Well trained and knowledgeable policemen/women must be placed at the MP School instead of placing people in posts based on pure nepotism, this can only happen provided we have passionate, committed and dedicated leaders who are serious about training as opposed to the current situation.
- P7:** During staffing process the MPD must prioritise the MP School to ensure that only members that are qualified as instructors are appointed.
- P8:** MPD must allocate more budget, recruit academic qualified personnel from other recognised law enforcement agencies.
- P9:** Start to comply with SASSETA requirements to be able to accredited, recruit new young facilitators who have passion for training, who have advanced courses, fingerprint experts, advanced driving for escorts.
- P11:** Trainers must learn the SOPS training, support material must be correctly according to assessment policy.
- P12:** The training tools, the qualities and exposures of the trainers, the outsourcing of trainers.
- P13:** Military Police School must establish the research and development on education, training and development.
- P14:** Proper study aids and materials.
- P15:** The training unit must be self-sustainable in terms of accommodation and mess for all ranks, then you have full C2, however there is always room to learn further and improve.
- P16:** Relevance of training provided.
- P17:** MP School standards need to be high up to restore the military values, let the MP School be the exemplary institution of discipline and military conduct.
- P18:** Recommendation, promotion should be provided.
- P19:** Through research must be done on all the programmes conducted at the MP School with the view to review all programmes to meet the current situations.
- P20:** When you lost the way, start from the beginning, look for qualified people to take over the training, new ideas.

It is evident that an overwhelming majority (95%) demonstrated a clear understanding of their intentions upon analysing participants' responses by providing practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures, and recommendations to enhance the effectiveness of MPD (MPD) training. However, one (1) participant (P10) chose not to offer a response. The participants' recommendations encompassed bringing in qualified trainers, improving training resources and learning materials, reviewing all

MP School training programs, benchmarking and outsourcing trainers, establishing research and development initiatives, incorporating modern learning methodologies, and rejuvenating the trainers. In summary, the practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures, and recommendations provided by participants to effectively enhance MPD training are outlined in Table 7.39 below.

Table 7.39: Participants’ practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures and recommendations for enhancing effective MPD training

Participants’ practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures and recommendations		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Bring in qualified trainers	6	30.0
	Improve training/resources/learning material	4	20.0
	Review all MP School training programmes	3	15.0
	Bench-marking/outsource trainers	3	15.0
	Establish research and development	2	10.0
	Morden learning	1	5.0
	Rejuvenation of the trainers	1	5.0
	Total	20	100.0
Total		20	100.0

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

The following sub-theme presents, and analyses data collected participants regarding the participants’ additional comments and suggestions regarding the MPD training.

7.7.15 Sub-theme 4.15: Participants’ additional comments and suggestions regarding the MPD training

The participants were asked in Question G7: *“Do you have any additional comments or suggestions regarding the MPD training to that we have not been discussed?”* This is question was necessary to provide the participant an opportunity to additional new information that came to the participant during the course of an interview. The data collected from the participants’ answers to this question encompassed the following:

- P1:** Candidates who want to become trainers should be screened and selected.
- P2:** Ask SAPS for help ... call them in to provide training for MPD trainers.
- P4:** Train the trainers, use fresh blood (rejuvenate MP Division), motivate trainers, create healthy environment that allows training to take place.
- P5:** We lost our training from 1994 allowing the situation of dictatorship in training now dictators are gone, proper solution should found.
- P6:** The above (G.6) are my final comments regarding training in the MPD”,
- P3:** “Well trained and knowledgeable policemen/women must be placed at the MP School instead of placing people in posts based on pure nepotism, this can only happen provided we have passionate, committed and

dedicated leaders who are serious about training as opposed to the current situation.

P7: There must be a continuous research and development within the MPD training in order to align it with the current era.

P8: Place members who are passionate with training at Military Police School, members who would revive training.

P9: Improve training with immediate effect – it is the heart of the MPD and it should be given priority.

P11: May change how people are being placed in a post, put people who understand training – not just a person to be in Military Police School.

P12: MP School must schedule two year zero courses and focus on development of the facilitators and satisfaction training tool.

P13: Military Police School should outsource competent instructors from SAPS where necessary.

P16: If research and development is conducted in proper way towards subjects good training can be provided.

P17: The MPOs of MP Division must be encouraged to hold the military standards high as they are the backbone of the Defense.

P18: Full traffic course, investigation and first aid to all MPD staff or personnel.

P19: Training must cater for both permanent members and reserve force.

A significant majority (75%) of the participants provided additional comments or suggestions concerning MPD training, further emphasising points made during their interview responses. However, five participants (P3, P10, P14, P15 and P20) did not offer any additional recommendations.

P3, P10, P14, P20: Well trained and knowledgeable policemen/women must be placed at the MP School instead of placing people in posts based on pure nepotism, this can only happen provided we have passionate, committed and dedicated leaders who are serious about training as opposed to the current situation.

The participants' suggestions included enhancing responses related to the placement of individuals who understand training and passionate members, improving training resources and learning materials, reviewing all MP School training programs, benchmarking and outsourcing trainers, establishing research and development initiatives, rescheduling courses, and focusing on the development of facilitators. The summarised additional comments and suggestions from participants regarding MPD training are presented in Table 7.40 overleaf.

Table 7.40: Participants' additional comments and suggestions regarding the MPD training

Participants' additional comments and suggestions regarding the MPD training		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Placement of people who understand training/passionate members	5	25.0
	Improve training/resources/learning material	4	20.0
	Review all MP School training programmes	3	15.0
	Bench-marking/outsource trainers	3	15.0
	Establish research and development	2	10.0
	Re-schedule courses and focus on development of the facilitators	1	5.0
	Rejuvenation of the trainers	1	5.0
	Training must cater for both permanent members and reserve force	1	5.0
Total		20	100.0
Total		20	100.0

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

The participants identified factors that could explain why the Military Police training wasn't as successful as it should have been, and they also provided important recommendations. These suggested solutions were made during the semi-structured individual interviews with the participants. These participants were chosen for the qualitative interview because they are the ones who participate in both the day-to-day operations and the MP division training as learners.

7.8 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the quantitative and findings of the study in respect of the research topic and its associated variables. The chapter first presented the results obtained from the questionnaire, which served as the quantitative method of data collection. Furthermore, the chapter thoroughly reviewed, analysed, and interpreted the findings obtained through the qualitative semi-structured interview mode of data collection. The quantitative data collected through the questionnaire provided insights into the participants' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of MP Division training. On the other hand, the qualitative data, gathered through semi-structured interviews, served to corroborate and elaborate on the findings derived from the quantitative aspect.

Central to both the quantitative and qualitative findings is the fact that they encompass points of divergence and convergence with the dominant literature perspectives on the subject of training in general, and military police training in particular. Accordingly, the

gist of the discussions in this chapter is grounded on the empirical responses provided by the participants regarding their perceptions of MP Division training. The next chapter presents a summary of the findings derived from both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study, as well as the recommendations related to the research study as a whole.

CHAPTER 8: SUMMARY, FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the entire research and outlines the research findings derived from the primary data of respondents and participants of the study in relation to the research objectives outlined in Chapter 1. This chapter further shows how the objectives of the research were accomplished, as well as the extent to which the research questions were addressed. Therefore, the chapter contextualises the main findings in respect of the research problem, as well as the research aim, objectives, and questions.

The chapter includes summarised versions of all chapters included in this research. The chapter also presents an overview of the achievement of the quantitative and qualitative research findings, followed by a comparison of the quantitative and qualitative research findings. Furthermore, the chapter highlights the researcher's own recommendations to help in addressing the gaps regarding the ineffectiveness of the MPD training and challenges. The chapter concludes with the applicable initiatives for addressing each research questions, as well as suggestions/ proposals for further research. This chapter is vital to the study as it assisted the researcher to determine the significance of the study with an evaluation of the extent to which the research objectives were achieved by interpreting the results of the study. The next section presents the research problem of the study.

8.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

This research was prompted by the fact that the training of MPOs has not improved significantly since the dawn of democracy in South Africa in 1994, primarily centered around discipline enforcement. In the modern era, the ensuing rapid shift from regimental aspects (discipline enforcement) has necessitated training emphasis on real-time policing. However, a proper articulation of training has been lacking. In this regard, the study's significance is premised on its contribution towards the development of a cogent articulation framework for the delivery of relevant and quality training whose outcomes are observably measurable with improved on-the-job performance.

8.3 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The aim of this study was to explore, describe and analyse the effectiveness (or lack thereof) of the current MPD training initiatives/curricula on the MP Officials' practical workplace skills and experience. This research aim is consistent with Khan's (2008:2) assertion that the purpose of research is to obtain reliable and unbiased information by applying scientific methodology to solve problems. The research aim was addressed by articulating the research objective listed below.

- To explore and describe the mandate of the MPD;
- To determine whether the current MPD training initiatives are sufficiently effective to provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills;
- To explore, describe and analyse international and local best police training practices; and
- To explore, describe and analyse the current MPD training challenges, needs and develop the conceptual framework.

8.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions were crucial in the process of obtaining the data required to draw sound and constructive conclusions, as well as recommendations for addressing the deficiencies that have been identified. Accordingly, the following research questions were articulated for the purposes of this study:

- What is the mandate of the Military Police?
- To what extent do the current MPD training initiatives/curricula provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills?
- What are the international and local best police training practices?
- What are the current MPD training challenges, needs and conceptual framework?

The aforementioned research questions were addressed by means of diverse data gathering techniques and approaches. These research questions were possible to accomplish by focusing on the identified research problem and ensuring that the conclusions were pertinent and objective. The results obtained were not impacted by the researcher's personal knowledge, and his experience had no bearing on the

conclusions made. The only sources of information gathered by the researcher was obtained from the reviewed literature and the respondents respectively.

8.5 CHAPTER SUMMARIES

In order to provide a more coherent and systematic exploration of each chapter and to guarantee that pertinent and related themes are covered in a methodical and scientific manner, this research was formally organised into eight chapters. A synoptic overview of each chapter is then presented hereafter.

Chapter One provided the study orientation and background, with emphasis on the research problem, research questions and objectives to be achieved. This chapter presented the formulation of the research, which was to explore, describe and analyse the effectiveness and lack of effectiveness of the current MPD training initiatives/curricula in relation to the practical skills and experiences of MP officials in the workplace. The study is justifiable in that it should contribute towards the development of a cogent articulation framework for the delivery of relevant and quality training whose outcomes are observably measurable with improved on-the-job performance (see Section 1.3.1, paragraph 1). Chapter One also outlined the research demarcation, the purpose of the research, the definition of the main theoretical concepts to enable the reader to acquire a comprehensive understanding of the respective key concepts in the research, as well as the layout of all chapters in the study.

In Chapter Two, the methodology used in this study was described in detail, including the research approach, as well as the processes and procedures for collecting and analysing data. Moreover, this chapter presented the differences in approach between the qualitative and quantitative research methods and the characteristics of research (see Section 2.3). The present study adopted the mixed-methods research approach for its facilitation of adequate evidence that directly addresses the research problem, and provision of answers to questions that cannot be answered by either qualitative or quantitative alone.

The sampling and data collection methods were also discussed in this chapter. Phase one focused on quantitative data collection through questionnaires that were physically distributed to 155 MPOs. Meanwhile, phase two involved twenty qualitative

semi-structured individual interviews that were conducted telephonically due to the COVID-19 restrictions that were in place then. An explanatory mixed-methods sequential design was adopted in the study, with some questions from the questionnaires forming part of the interview schedule used for the qualitative semi-structured individual interviews.

In conducting the qualitative semi-structured interviews, the researcher's intention was to verify the findings of the questionnaire in order to probe further into the state of the MPD training. The questionnaire consisted of three sections. Section A contained the demographic information of the respondents, while Section B was a modified Five-Point Likert Scale based on "strongly agree", "agree", "neither agree nor disagree", "disagree" and "strongly disagree" respectively. This section was aligned to the study aim, namely: "To explore, describe and analyse the effectiveness (or lack thereof) of the current MPD training initiatives/curricula on the MP Officials' practical workplace skills and experience".

Section C consisted of open-ended opinion questions that addressed relevant variables of the study. The carefully planned measures taken by the researcher to ensure the trustworthiness of the study were presented. This was complemented by the ethical considerations applied by the researcher in collecting, recording, analysing and interpreting the presented data.

Chapter Three of this study focused on the mandate of the MPD, and also provided an explanation of the organisation of the MPD as well as the overview of the MPD training. Furthermore, the MPD training in practice was discussed in this chapter. The MPD's mandatory legislative framework and different pieces of legislation governing training and development were briefly explained.

The legislations included: the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996), the Defence Act (No. 42 of 2002), the Criminal Procedure Act (No. 51 of 1977), the White Paper on Public Service Training and Education (WPPSTE), 1997, the Department of Defence Overarching ETD Instruction No. Trg/00004/2001, the Military Police Agency Instruction (MPAI) No. 11/00, 2006, the Labour Relations Act/LRA (No. 66 of 1995), the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act (No. 58 of 1995), the Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998), the Skills Development

Amended Act (No. 37 of 2008); as well as the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (No. 75 of 1997 as amended Act No. 11 of 2002).

In addition, this chapter briefly discussed the MPD's mandate, vision, mission statement, values, strategic objectives, as well as the appointment of Military Police officers. The purpose was to gain insight into the MP Division, which also related to the first research question, namely: *What is the mandate of the military police?* (see Sub-section 1.5.2).

Chapter Four of this study focused on the MPD training initiatives/ curricula. The chapter presented various perspectives and definitions or characterisation of the term, 'curriculum' in order to enable the reader's broader understanding of this term. The chapter further presented an overview of the importance and application of the major learning theories, and also provided an explanation of pedagogy and andragogy as additional learning theories that contribute to adult learning; as well as the efficacy of these theories in training. Given their various critical roles in training, the outcomes-based and competency-based curriculum approaches were defined as well. The chapter then concludes with the curricula of the MPD training in policing. This chapter was relevant to the research problem and addressed the second research question, namely: "To what extent do the current MPD training initiatives/curricula provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills" (see Sub-section 1.5.2).

Chapter Five presented an overview of international and local police best training practices. In addition, the chapter examined police practices of the following: Military Police United Kingdom (MPUK) (UK), South African Police Service (SAPS) and the MPD (MPD) of the SANDF by comparing their strengths and weaknesses, as well as the similarities and differences. Accordingly, this chapter addressed the third research question, namely: "What are the international and local best police training practices"? (see Sub-section 1.5.2).

Chapter Six presented discussion concerning the MPD training challenges, needs and the conceptual framework. The chapter further discussed the MPD training policy and curriculum, training management, MPD training environment, training needs identification, and training need analysis. Additionally, the chapter discussed aspects such as the organisational analysis, task analysis for training and development,

individual analysis; as well as the value of training need analysis. The conceptual framework was discussed to address the MP Division training and contribution to the MP Division training effectiveness. Furthermore, the three main components of the proposed conceptual frame were outlined, namely: theoretical knowledge, practical knowledge, and work experience. This chapter was relevant to the research problem and addressed the fourth research question, namely: “What are the current MPD training challenges, needs and conceptual framework”? (see Sub-section 1.5.2).

Chapter Seven presented an analysis and interpretation of the findings, commencing with the questionnaire-based phase one quantitative interpretation of results. Descriptive statistics were used to record respondents’ perceptions on:

- Analysis of demographics characteristics of respondents Section A.
- Presentation of data and analysis of section B of the questionnaire.
- Presentation the opinion Section C of the questionnaire open ended questions.

The responses to the questions were summarised graphically in tables that consisted of a maximum of 103 responses. The aim of analysing the collected data was to obtain a clear understanding of the effectiveness of the current MPD training initiatives/ curricula on the MP Officials’ practical workplace skills and experience. Phase two was based on the qualitative interpretation and analysis of semi-structured interview responses in order to supplement the quantitative results and to fill the gaps in the questionnaire.

This phase consisted of 20 participants. It commenced with an analysis of the biographical data of participants, followed by the emergence of main themes and subthemes as shown in Table 7.18 (see Sub-section 7.3.2). The main themes in this chapter included:

- Theme 1: The mandate of the MPD.
- Theme 2: The articulation of MP Division training practices.
- Theme 3: Effectiveness of current MP Division training initiatives/curricula.
- Theme 4: MPD training challenges, needs and conceptual framework.

Each theme was preceded by a brief introduction and supported with sub-themes. Each sub-theme was supplemented with verbatim quotes from participants in order to

support the claims made, and to determine the extent to which the results of the data analysis supported the aim of the study.

Chapter Eight basically presents an overview of the main research findings, recommendations, and contributions of the study. The chapter's recommendations are derived from the findings, and serve as the foundational basis for further research studies on the training of MPOs in the MPD of the SANDF. The next section presents the overview of the findings of the study.

8.6 OVERVIEW OF THE FINDINGS

The research highlights the crucial role the MPD training plays in the development of MPOs who are tasked with enforcing of the Defence Act or any other law, including the common law insofar as it applies to the Department, any member, employee and property of the Department, and to any person, area, land, premises and property under the protection and control of the Department. Their roles include: the prevention and combating of crime, the investigation of any offence and alleged offence and the maintenance of law and order, dealing with these high-risk situations. This requires adequate and comprehensive expansive knowledge and skills, which MPOs ought to acquire from their training. Therefore, to address challenges and further enhance the ineffectiveness of the MPD training, the findings from the phase one quantitative questionnaire respondents and phase two qualitative interview participants are presented.

8.6.1 Findings related to phase one: Quantitative questionnaire Likert-scale statements outcomes (Section B)

From the B1 statement of the quantitative questionnaire, it emerged that 35.0% of the respondents were satisfied with the quality of training offered by the MPD (see Sub-section 7.2.2.1). Furthermore, 47.6% of respondents agreed with the B2 statement concerning the MPD's training effects on the MPOs thinking ability to make better decisions in a timely manner, as shown in Table 7.2. In addition, 35.0% of the respondents agreed that the training received from MPD is sufficient to enable them to carry out your duties effectively, as shown in statement B3 of Table 7.3.

Findings on the statement B4 indicate that there is a gap in the current training of the MPD. In addition, a majority of the participants (54.4%) agreed with the B5 statement.

About 47.6% responded that the training is relevant insofar as it relates to the MPO's effective improvement in the field (see Table 7.5). The findings from the respondents' responses to statement B6 revealed that 37.9% agreed that the MP Division training improved their confidence in providing good service and delivery. Furthermore, in relation to statement B7, 29.1% of the respondents believe that the MP Division curriculum gives them an advantage over their competitors in the SAPS and traffic officers when working side by side (see Table 7.7).

Regarding statement B8, 27.2% of the respondents made it clear that the training that is offered by MPD provides MPOs with the modern policing needed to meet the current crime situation (see Table 7.8). Furthermore, the findings indicated that 30.1% of the respondents were in agreement with statement B9, that Military Police training provides MPOs with the ability to make quick decisions and act effectively without hesitation to any crime situation (see Table 7.9). About 33.0% of the responses to statement B10 indicate that the Military Police training is well planned and tends to improve the policing practices (see Table 7.10). Additionally, 37.9% of the responses were in disagreement with the statement B11, that after their training, they had supporting structures that kept them up to date with constantly rapid changes as training evolves with time (see Table 7.11).

In support of the above, Robbins (2005:208) states that training and development is unsuccessful if there is a failure to provide feedback and use information about results. In Table 7.12, 39.8% of the respondents pointed out that after training, Military Police training gives MPOs immediate improvement in knowledge and skills to carry out their duties. Findings on statement B13 revealed that 42.7% of the respondents supported the view that the Military Police training they received did enhance the culture of learning for empowering MPOs to ultimately give higher returns in their job. Regarding statement B14, the respondents acknowledge that Military Police training techniques attain firm target organisational objectives (see Table 7.14). The responses pertaining statement B15 indicated that 45.6% respondents were in agreement with the statement. Concerning statement B16, findings indicated that the Military Police training did fulfil the MPOs' expectation (see Table 7.16). Furthermore, the findings indicated that 27.2% of the respondents were in agreement with statement B17 (see Table 7.17).

8.6.2 Findings related to phase one: Quantitative questionnaire (Section C)

This study uncovered several significant findings related to respondents' understanding of training and their experiences with MPD training. In Chapter 7, Section 7.3.3.1, Table 7.18, it was observed that the respondents demonstrated a comprehensive understanding of the concept of training. According to Noe et al. (2008:251) and Stickle, (2015:16), training involves the acquisition of skills, knowledge, and competencies necessary for task performance through instructional methods.

Furthermore, as highlighted in Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3.2, Table 7.19, the majority of respondents exhibited a clear understanding of the primary purpose of training. However, dissatisfaction with the current MPD training was evident among 43.7% of the respondents, as indicated in Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3.2, Table 7.20. Similarly, Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3.2, Table 7.21 revealed that 45.6% of participants felt that their expectations were not fulfilled by the training they received, aligning with Kleiman's (2003:103) assertion that training success requires clear objectives.

Moreover, Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3.2, Table 7.22 highlighted that 25.2% of respondents expected the Military Police training to enable them to apply acquired skills and knowledge. This aligns with Grobler et al. (2004:43), who assert that employers should provide information enabling employees to interpret organisational expectations. Additionally, dissatisfaction with training effectiveness was expressed by 44.7% of the respondents, as shown in Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3.2, Table 7.23. In Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3.7, Table 7.24, the majority (42.7%) noted that the current training did not adequately support the transfer of acquired information and skills to the workplace.

Statements C8 to C13 delved into respondents' perceptions of Military Police training. Notably, 35.9% believed that the training enhanced their policing knowledge and skills (Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3.7, Table 7.25). However, challenges within the training process were acknowledged by 62.1% of the respondents (Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3.2, Table 7.26). Furthermore, factors hindering MPD training were identified, including a lack of resources, instructor negativity, and outdated curriculums, as reported in

Chapter 6, Section 7.2.3.2, Table 7.27. Respondents, in Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3.2, Table 7.28, recognised challenges and suggested improvements for the MPD training.

Moreover, Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3.2, Table 7.29 shows that 39.8% of the respondents agreed that the training equipped them with the necessary skills to advise colleagues on policing aspects. However, 48.2% of the respondents suggested training was not an important tool, as disclosed in Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3.2, Table 7.30. These findings collectively provide valuable insights into the effectiveness and challenges of MPD training, offering a foundation for potential enhancements.

8.6.3 Findings related to phase two: Qualitative Semi-Structured Interviews

The thematically categorised findings in this section are presented in accordance with the stated research objectives as stated in Section 1.5.1 of Chapter 1.

8.6.3.1 Theme 1: The mandate of the MPD

A clear understanding of the insights of the mandate of the MPD, as discussed below, was achieved by posing five questions to the participants. Consequently, five sub-themes were also generated (see chapter 7, section 7.4). Based on the findings, it was established that 65% of the participants were aware of the mandate of the MPD (see chapter 7, section 7.4.1). According to Robbins (2005:401), if the mandate, vision mission and objectives of the organisation are aligned and supported by both the MP Division and the MPOs, training, development and education programmes delivered might provide substantial returns in terms of increasing productivity, knowledge and skills. The findings further reveal that approximately 85% of the participants were unable to precisely describe the vision of the MPD (see chapter 7, section 7.4.2). According to Perry (2007:120), training would not improve product quality if it is not aligned to organisational goals. In addition, the findings showed that all of the participants (100%) were able to respond to the question: “What is the mission of the Military Police?” (see chapter 7, section 7.4.3).

The study findings also revealed that none of the participants (constituting 100% of the sample) were familiar with the duties and responsibilities outlined in Section 31(1)(a)(b)(c) of the Defence act (No. 42 of 2002) (see chapter 7, section 7.4.4). In line with the above finding, Hazier and Render (2006:334) assert that the training process enables members to be aware of their individual specific roles and

responsibilities in terms of achieving organisational goals. Furthermore, the findings revealed that approximately 70% of the participants' answers were not directly aligned with the appointment of the MPOs (see chapter 7, section 7.4.5). Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hartfield (2006:95) state that it is important that the relevant training plans are devised in order to fit appropriately the trainees, the job description, the managers and supervisors, and their different levels of education and background, especially in South Africa with its past history.

8.6.3.2 Theme 2: The articulation of the MPD training practices

In support of this theme, participants were asked four questions which resulted into four sub-themes to give a clear understanding of the insights of the articulation of MP Division training practices as explicated also in chapter 7, section 7.5. The study findings revealed that all the participants demonstrated a clear understanding of the term "training", despite their varying answers (see Chapter 7, Section 7.5.1). The study findings also showed that the majority of the participants (75%) believed that the training they received was insufficient to equip them with the skills needed by the MPOs to perform their duties (see Chapter 7, Section 7.5.2).

Furthermore, the majority of the participants (60%) explicitly stated that the training provided by the MPD does not correspond with the standards of contemporary modern policing (see Chapter 7, Section 7.5.3). In addition, the majority participants (55%) also stated that the MPD training is not designed to meet specific competencies (see chapter 7, section 7.5.4). In this regard, Grobler et al. (2006:95), provide evidence to support these findings by asserting that South Africa's historical background necessitates that appropriate training plans should be developed to match the job description, the trainees, and their various educational backgrounds and levels of education.

8.6.3.3 Theme 3: Effectiveness of current MPD training initiatives/curricula

To provide a clear understanding of the articulation of MP Division training practices, participants were asked five questions that led to the creation of five sub-themes in support of this theme (see chapter 7, section 7.6). Accordingly, all participants displayed an adequate understanding of the purpose of the MP Division training. Furthermore, the majority of the participants (60%) mentioned that the MP Division

training does not comply with the National Qualifications Framework (see chapter 7, section 7.6.2).

The study findings revealed that 35% of the participants expressed the view that MP Division training does not contribute significantly to South Africa's safety efforts (see chapter 7, section 7.6.3). Furthermore, 40% participants expressed the view that the MP Division training is successful in producing MPOs who are capable of withstanding the demands of coping with the rapidly increasing crime rates. In contrast, it is worth noting that another 40% of the participants expressed the view that the MP Division training is not successful in producing MPOs who are capable of withstanding the demands of coping with the rapidly increasing crime rates (see chapter 7, section 7.6.4).

The study findings all revealed that the majority of the participants (65%) expressed that the current MPD training initiatives/curricula are ineffective to provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills (see chapter 7, section 7.6.5). In this regard, Nel, Gerber, van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner (2004:142) state that effective development initiatives enable an organisation to have a workforce with the necessary skills to handle newly developed training technologies and guarantee the adequacy of available human resources for supporting expansion into new areas.

8.6.3.4 Theme 4: MPD training challenges, needs and conceptual framework

In support of this theme, participants were asked fifteen questions, whose responses resulted in fifteen sub-themes regarding the MPD training challenges, needs and conceptual framework (see chapter 7, section 7.7). In chapter 7, section 7.7.1, 45% of the participants stated that the MP Division training improves the culture of learning by equipping the MPOs with the skills they need to carry out their responsibilities. Furthermore, the study's findings showed that 70% of the participants were of the view that the MP Division training did not equip them with the contemporary skills needed by MPOs to carry out their duties as officers (see chapter 7, section 7.7.2).

It is important to note that 50% of the participants stated that the MP Division training does present opportunities to expand policing knowledge and skills to address the current crime situation. However, another 50% of the participants felt that there were insufficient opportunities to expand policing knowledge and skills required to address

the current crime situation (see chapter 7, section 7.7.3). According to the study's findings (see chapter 7, section 7.7.4), the majority of the participants (80%) expressed that there is no supporting structure that keeps them abreast with constant changes, considering that training evolves with time.

The literature revealed that training, new knowledge and skills and changing attitudes are communicated to the members in order to raise awareness regarding their current knowledge and skills (Noe et al., 2008:202). The study findings also demonstrated that all the participants provided important suggestions that should be taken into consideration in order for the MPOs to function effectively in their line of work (see chapter 7, section 7.7.5, table 7.32). Based on the research findings (see chapter 7, section 7.7.6), most participants (50%) expressed that they were not convinced that the MPD training is well planned.

Furthermore, the study findings also revealed that 95% of the participants offered suggestions regarding the content of the MPD training and its capacity to enhance the knowledge and abilities required of MPOs to carry out their duties effectively (see chapter 7, section 7.7.7, table 7.33). The findings related to the proposed integrated conceptual framework revealed that the majority of the participants (80%) offered diverse suggestions regarding the training model, and that the MP Division ought to adopt and integrate evidence based/practical training (see chapter 7, section 7.7.8, table 7.34).

Based on the findings outlined in (chapter 7, section 7.7.8, table 7.34), the diverse suggestions offered by the participants (P3, P4, P5, P8, P16, P19 and P20) prompted the researcher to develop a proposed integrated conceptual training framework (see chapter 6, Figure 6.3) in order to have a single curriculum that might accommodate all forms of learning. The study findings revealed further that the majority of the participants (95%) were in agreement that there are challenges with the training provided by the MPD (see chapter 7, section 7.7.9, table 7.35). Furthermore, the study findings revealed that 95% of the participants were in agreement that there are factors hindering MP Division training (see chapter 7, section 7.7.10, table 7.36).

Additionally, the study findings revealed that participants provided different perspectives regarding the MP Division training needs (see chapter 7, section 7.7.11,

table 7.37). In light of the research findings (see chapter 7, section 7.7.12), the majority of the participants (70%) were able to explain the meaning of training analysis. According to the study findings (see chapter 7, section 7.7.13, table 7.38), all participants provided valid practical guidelines on how MP Division training should be conducted. Valuable suggestions in this regard included that the MPD should have qualified members who can contribute towards the improvement of the training curriculum.

Furthermore, the study findings also revealed that all participants provided valid suggestions, guidelines, procedures and recommendations for enhancing the effectiveness of the MPD training through the MPD’s adoption of evident-based approach training (see chapter 7, section 7.7.14, table 7.39). In addition, 75% of the participants also provided additional comments and proposed that the MPD should review and benchmark all MP School training programmes, outsource trainers, and also establish research and development (see chapter 7, section 7.7.15, table 7.40).

8.7 COMPARISON OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS

Comparing and integrating quantitative and qualitative research findings is vital for the convergence of these findings as the product of a single study focusing on the resolution of a single research problem as identified by the researcher (Almalki, 2016:290; DePoy & Gitlin, 2016:16). The common questions in both the quantitative and qualitative responses yielded the following findings as shown in Table 8.1 below.

Table 8.1: Comparison of quantitative and qualitative research findings

Similar questions	Quantitative research findings	Qualitative research findings
In your opinion, do you believe that the training you have undergone adequately equips MPOs with the skills required to perform their duties?	It was found that 42.7% of the respondents agreed that the training they have undergone adequately equips MPOs with the skills required to perform their duties. It should be noted that 29.1% opted to be neutral and this should be a worrying factor (see section 7.2.2.3, para 2).	It was found that 75% of the participants clearly expressed that the training they received was not enough to obtain skills needed by the MPOs’ to perform their duties (see section 7.5.2, para 3).

Similar questions	Quantitative research findings	Qualitative research findings
In your opinion, do you think the MPD training is aligned to current modern policing?	It was found that 38.8% of the respondents were in agreement that the MPD training is aligned to current modern policing, whilst (34.4%) disagreed to this notion (see section 7.2.2.9, para 2).	It was found that 60% of the participants clearly expressed that the MP Division training is not aligned to current modern policing (see section 7.5.3, para 2). Follow-up question, the majority (70%) of the participants expressed that that the MPD training does not provide them with the modern police needs required by MPOs' to complete their duties effectively (see section 7.7.2, para 2).
In your opinion, does the MPD training enhance a culture of learning to empower you with the necessary skills to perform your duties?	It was found that 56.3% of the respondents were in agreement that the MPD training it does enhance a culture of learning to empower you with the necessary skills to perform your duties. It should be noted that (26.2%) were unsure of the fact, they neither agreed nor disagreed. (see section 7.2.2.13, para 2).	It was found that 45% of the participants expressed that the MPD training it does enhance a culture of learning to empower you with the necessary skills to perform your duties (see section 7.7.1, para 2).
In your opinion, does the MPD training present opportunities to expand policing knowledge and skills to meet the current crime situation?	It was found that 42.7% of the respondents were in agreement, whilst (28.2%) were unsure of the fact, they neither agreed nor disagreed (see section 7.2.2.9, para 2).	It was found that 50% of the participants expressed that the MP Division training does not present opportunities to expand policing knowledge and skills to meet the current crime situation, experienced opportunities are not enough, while another (50%) of the participants expressed that the MP Division training it does present opportunities to expand policing knowledge and skills to meet the current crime situation, experienced opportunities are not enough (see section 7.7.3, para 2).
According to your knowledge, after completion of MP Division training do you have a supporting structure that keeps you up to date with constantly rapid	It was found that 50.5% of the respondents revealed that they do not have supporting structure after training that keeps them up to date with constantly rapid changes in	It was found that 80% of the participants expressed that there is supporting structure that keeps them up to date with constantly rapid changes as

Similar questions	Quantitative research findings	Qualitative research findings
changes as training evolves with time?	training. whilst (24.3%) were unsure of the fact, they neither agreed nor disagreed (see section 7.2.2.11, para 2).	training evolves with time (see section 7.7.4, para 2).
According to your experience, do you think MP Division training is well planned?	It was found that 43.7% of the respondents agreed that the MP Division training is well planned, whilst (35.9%) disagreed (see section 7.2.2.10, para 2).	It was found that 50% of the participants expressed that MP Division training is not well planned, whilst (45%) asserted that it is well planned (see section 7.7.6, para 2).
In your opinion, do you think there are challenges in the MP Division training?	It was found that 62.1% of the respondents agreed that there are challenges in the MP Division training (see section 7.2.3.9, para 2).	It was found that 95% of the participants expressed that there are challenges with the training provided by the MPD (see section 7.7.9, para 2).
In your opinion, what can be the factors that hinder MP Division training?	It was found that 95.1% of the respondents expressed factors that hinder MP Division training (see section 7.2.3.10, para 2).	It was found that 95% of the participants identified factors hindering MP Division training (see section 7.7.10, para 2).

(Source: Compiled by the researcher)

The researcher juxtaposed the quantitative and qualitative research findings where similar questions were asked, in order to provide a comprehensive picture of the findings (Almalki, 2016:290; DePoy & Gitlin, 2016:16). In terms of Table 8.1, both the quantitative and qualitative findings indicated some distinct responses concerning the effectiveness of the MPD training. In that regard, these differences present some discrepancy in the integration of the two types of data, which warrants future discussion.

8.8 RECOMMENDATIONS

Both quantitative and qualitative research findings were used to develop the recommendations of the study. In this regard, the recommendations of the study, could be used as useful guidelines and as means to maximise the effectiveness of training and development within the MP Division training. To conclude the research and propose the necessary recommendations, the researcher reflected particularly on both the research problem and main aim of the study. In that regard, the following recommendations encompass the conceptual, methodological, and practice-related

domains of the research topic; all of which are the essential manifestation of the study's significance and contribution (Cho, 2018:17; Faryadi, 2018:2912-2913).

- The study recommends the implementation of specific guidelines and a focused process for learning outcomes in order to address the MPD training's alignment with its ultimate objective of fostering the acquisition of new knowledge and skills. This approach empowers learners to actively consider and work towards achieving desired outcomes. Furthermore, the approach emanates from that the study's significant finding that 45.6% of the participants expressed dissatisfaction with the training provided by the MPD (see Table 7.21 in Section 7.2.3.2 of Chapter 7). Additionally, Section 7.2.3.13 highlighted that 48.5% of the participants perceived the current Military Police Training as lacking significance in terms of enhancing knowledge and skills. This proactive approach might further contribute to reshaping the perception of the current MPD training, positioning it as an essential element for modifying knowledge and skills.
- It is recommended that a comprehensive improvement of MPD training should be premised on coordinated efforts from both the Military Police School and Military Police Headquarters. This recommendation emanates from the findings outlined in Table 7.21 of Section 7.2.3.6 in Chapter 7, according to which 44.7% of the respondents expressed a notable concern and dissatisfaction with training effectiveness. Moreover, 42.7% and 75% of the participants stated in Sections 7.2.3.7 and 7.5.2 respectively that the MP Division training falls short in facilitating the transfer of knowledge and skills.
- It is recommended that workshops should be conducted, with the active support and involvement of senior MPD leadership and the management of the Military Police School. These workshops should particularly focus on training concepts and specialised training matters to further equip these key individuals and their indispensable contribution to sustainability of the MPD training.
- It is recommended that significant attention be given to the challenges identified in the study, with 62.1% of respondents (Section 7.2.3.9, Table 7.26) and the majority of the participants (95%) highlighted issues with the current training provided by the MPD. This apparent inconsistency in MPD training may stem from insufficient resource allocation, a concern unanimously emphasised by all respondents and participants.

- The study recommends that the promotion policy within the training environment should be carefully reviewed. As such, the criteria for consideration for a training post should be refined in order to ensure that individuals promoted also possess the necessary training skills and experience, thereby enhancing morale and the overall effectiveness of MPD training. To address this challenge, it is recommended further that a thorough review and enhancement of resource allocation to the MPD training should be prioritised, which resonates with the findings in Section 7.7.10, that 95% of the participants identified various factors hindering MP Division training, including the lack of knowledge among trainers, the aging of trainers, instructor negativity, and outdated curricula.
- It is recommended that a comprehensive development plan should be created for training personnel within the Military Police School in order to address the aging and shortage of trainers. Remuneration in the form of allowances for scarce skills should be provided to motivate facilitators. An early warning system should be established to counteract skills loss, including the aging of trainers and trainer shortages. This involves conducting a gap analysis, planning individual development, and ensuring succession plans are in place. It is crucial to appoint professionally trained and competent younger generations to form part of the management pool, emphasising competence in training and a deep understanding of policing training ethics and practices.
- The study recommends further that training workshops should be conducted periodically, focusing on sharpening trainers' skills, training techniques, and assessment skills. These workshops should keep trainers abreast of current trends in police training systems. Additionally, MPD leadership, along with experienced training members, should collaborate to develop comprehensive training interventions. This process should begin with training needs identification and extend to training needs analysis (see Chapter 6, Section 6.3-6.4). Thorough engagement on training matters is crucial for addressing outdated curricula, with experts being utilised for curriculum inspection and endorsement by the Provost Marshal General to ensure coherence within MPD training.
- It is recommended that personnel appointed to key positions within the MPD training structure, including the Staff Officer in charge of training at the MPD, Officer Commanding of the Military Police School, Training Wing Commander of

the Military Police School, Training Support Commander of the Military Police School, and trainers, should possess the necessary skills, experience, and knowledge. Importantly, they should also demonstrate the "aptitude" to steer MPD training towards modern policing standards. Additionally, in Section 7.6.2, paragraph 2, it was found that an equal percentage of participants (60%) believe that the current MPD training is not in line with the National Qualification Framework. In essence, a comprehensive revision of the entire MPD training is recommended, aligning it with the priorities of the National Qualification Framework to enhance its effectiveness. By implementing these recommendations, the aim is to ensure that individuals with the requisite background knowledge and consistent experience in training are appointed to key roles, contributing to the improvement and advancement of MPD training in line with contemporary policing standards.

- It is strongly recommended that the MPD should urgently review its training curricula and training quality assurance structure, assigned with clear duties and responsibilities to ensure ongoing improvement. Furthermore, the adoption of the researcher-developed integrated conceptual training framework (Chapter 6, Section 6.5, Figure 6.3) is recommended. This framework should serve as a comprehensive guideline for the development and implementation of effective training within the MPD in respect of modern policing needs and requirements. This proposed model should be viewed as a solution to address various issues in training, including substandard quality offered by the current curriculum. The recommended approach involves exposing learners to content, providing opportunities for practice, and facilitating reflection on the learned subject matter within the working environment before final assessment. This integrated learning strategy ensures that training is aligned with real-life situations, fostering a more effective and relevant learning experience for MPD personnel.
- It is recommended that the Military Police School should prioritise the relevance of training in order to address the dynamic challenges of the modern crime landscape. In this regard, training should be practical, facilitating the expansion of policing knowledge and skills. It is crucial for the Military Police School to recognise that the ultimate objective of learning is to bring about behavioral changes in the workplace. To enhance the relevance of training content, emphasis should be placed on applying learned skills in real-world scenarios. By ensuring that training aligns with

the practical demands of the field, the Military Police School can guarantee that training is not only effective but also efficient in preparing MPOs to navigate and combat the complexities of contemporary crime. This approach might contribute to the overall success of the MPD's training programs in producing officers who are well-equipped to meet the challenges of the rapidly evolving modern world. The effective acquisition of skills is intricately tied to feedback and information flow, particularly during the post-learning phases. A critical aspect identified in the study is the accuracy of information provided during these phases.

- It is strongly recommended that a robust training supporting structure should be established. Without a well-defined feedback mechanism and utilisation of evidence-based data, the MPD learners may be significantly disadvantaged. Mistakes, if not identified early, could lead to the application of faulty skills over an extended period. The lack of a training support structure inhibits the ability to monitor the trainees' progress and assessment of the training programs' extent of effectiveness. To address this, it is recommended that the Military Police School establishes a training support structure to handle learners' needs after the completion of their training. Timely feedback on how learners adapt to the working environment should be provided to the Military Police School. Additionally, new training developments should be made available to Military Police Officers (MPOs) in the working environment, ensuring their ability to adapt to changing times and evolving policing duties.
- It is recommended that the training planner for the MPD's training planner should demonstrate the capacity to integrate ideas by aligning desired performance with the trainees' present conditions in order to create input demands and establish performance, process, and outcome goals. Emphasising outcome goals ensures the constructive alignment of the training plan, thereby centralising planning around the learner. In Section 7.7.14, the study revealed that a majority of 95% participants provided practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures, and recommendations to enhance the effectiveness of MPD training.
- It is strongly recommended that a training model for the MP Division should be adopted and promptly implemented. This includes the need for qualified members contributing to curriculum improvement, the involvement of subject matter experts, enhancement of training resources and learning materials, a comprehensive

review of all MP School training programs, and the adoption of an evidence-based approach to training. This proactive approach ensures a notable improvement in the quality of the learning environment within the MPD, aligning training practices with the practical insights provided by those directly engaged in the training process.

8.9 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

This research study contributes to the value of training provided in the South African National Defence Force, the MPD, and the MPOs. In that regard, the study contributes towards a sustainable solution for the current MPD training challenges as a whole. As such, the study might be of great benefit to the entire MPD and may also be used for benchmarking purposes. Countries experiencing similar training challenges could refer to the findings of this study to address some aspects of their issues in this regard. Furthermore, the study might also assist the MPD's management to have a clearer understanding of the occurrences at the Military Police School, and be in a position to enhance drafting of professional and integrated training strategy, policies and procedures.

The recommendations of this study might be a return on investment for the MPD insofar as empowering the Military Police School to manage the MPD training in an effective and professional manner, and possibly resolve the current MPD training situation. To enhance the effectiveness of MPD training, the study has produced an integrated conceptual training framework that could be applied to improve training practices of the MPD training office in pursuance of a single curriculum with three modules: a knowledge/theory component, a practical skills component, and a work experience component. These components are more than just following rules-based actions and include practical and applied knowledge that is conducive to the specific working environment of the MP Division learners to become competent in their Military Police occupation. The proposed integrated conceptual training framework integrates what the researcher advocates as a possible strategy for a single curriculum that ensures is the trainees' full capacitation before they are assessed. As such, an integration would assist the learner to more closely associate the practical value of learning theoretical concepts as part of the execution of their occupational responsibilities.

8.10 FURTHER RESEARCH

The study acknowledges the need for further research study to be conducted in order to support and strengthen the findings and recommendations proposed in this research study in respect of the development of the MPD's professionalism. Therefore, further research should be undertaken as follows:

- Evaluate the important role of MPOs' competencies in the enhancement of professionalism.
- The impact of outcome-based education on the MPD training.
- The impact of the MPD Education, Training and Development office in creating a good atmosphere of Military Police professional quality training, and how it enhances the competency of innovation and novelty among the Military Police School trainers.

8.11 CONCLUSION

The study has revealed both positive and negative findings relating to the research topic. The negative findings of this study have painted an uninspiring picture of the training of the MPOs within the MPD of the South African National Defence Force. However, it is important to note that the MPD's training has a foundation upon which it should build for its strengthening and improvement. The study showed that there are challenges within the MPD training initiatives/curricula that impact on the MP Officials' practical workplace skills and experience.

Based on its quantitative and qualitative findings, the study has proposed a series of recommendations aimed at improving the MPD training towards a strong learning environment for its trainees. If accepted by the relevant policymakers within the SANDF, the future of the Military Police School could be rated amongst the best as a professional, educational service provider. The proposed integrated conceptual training framework is the strategy of bridging the gaps between the knowledge/theory component, practical skills component and work experience component within a single curriculum. Proper implementation of the integrated conceptual training framework would enhance competencies and quality training within the MP Division training and maximise the effectiveness of training and development within the MP Division.

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ANNEXURES

2.1 ANNEXURE A: UNISA ETHICAL CLEARANCE



UNISA 2020 ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2020:11:10

Dear Leonard Kobiso

ERC Reference No. : ST124-2020

Name : L. Kobiso

Decision: Ethics Approval from 2020:11:10 to 2023:11:10

Researcher: Mr Leonard Kobiso

Supervisor: Prof JS Horne

A Critical Analysis of the Effectiveness of Military Police Division Training

Qualification: Doctor of Philosophy in Criminal Justice

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa 2020 Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for 3 years.

The Low risk application was reviewed by the CLAW Ethics Review Committee on 11 November 2020 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

- 1. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached. Provisional authorisation is granted.**



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Pretorius Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
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2. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
3. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the CLAW Committee.
4. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
5. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
6. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
7. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data require additional ethics clearance.
8. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **2023:11:10**. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

The reference number ST 124-2020 should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.

Yours sincerely,



Prof T Budhram
Chair of CLAW ERC
E-mail: budhrt@unisa.ac.za
Tel: (012) 433-9462



Prof M Basdeo
Executive Dean : CLAW
E-mail: MBasdeo@unisa.ac.za
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2.2 ANNEXURE B: DEPARTMENT OF DEFENCE AUTHORISATION TO CONDUCT THE STUDY

RECEIVED 25/10/2019 14:54

RESTRICTED



Defence intelligence
Department:
Defence
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Telephone: (012) 315-0216
Fax: (012) 326-3246
Enquiries: Col J. van Wyk

DI/DDS/R/202/3/7
Defence Intelligence
Private Bag X387
Pretoria
0091
16 October 2019

AUTHORISATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF DEFENCE (DOD): MAJ L. XOBISO (RETIRED)

1. Receipt of a letter MP SCHOOL/R/102/1/2 to conduct research in the DOD dd 08 October 2019 with a Research Proposal attached as required is acknowledged.
2. Permission is hereby granted from a security perspective to Maj L. Xobiso (Ret) to conduct research in the DOD on the topic entitled **"A Critical Analysis of the Effectiveness of Military Police Division Training,"** as a precondition for an attainment of a Degree Doctor of Literature and Philosophy in the Subject Police Practice under the auspices of the University of South Africa as per request.
3. After the completion of the research, the final research product must be forwarded to Defence Intelligence (DI), Sub-Division Counter Intelligence (SDCI) for security scrutiny before it may be published or distributed to any entity outside the DOD.
4. Approval is however granted on condition that there is compliance with inter alia Section 104 of the Defence Act (Act 42 of 2002) pertaining to Protection of DOD Classified Information and the consequences of non-adherence.
5. For your attention.



(T.G. BALOYI)
ACTING CHIEF DIRECTOR COUNTER INTELLIGENCE: BRIG GEN
KS/KB (Maj L. Xobiso (Ret))

DISTR

For Action

OC 1 Provost Regiment


(Attention: Maj L. Xobiso)

Internal:

DI/DDS/R/202/3/7

RESTRICTED

2.3 ANNEXURE C: MPD AUTHORISATION TO CONDUCT THE STUDY

 Defence and Military Veterans
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA



DOD/MP SCHOOL/R/102/1/2

Cell number: 061 424 8838
Facsimile: (012) 674-4100
Enquiries: Maj L. Xobiso

Department of Defence
1 Provost Regiment
P.O. Box 580
Thaba Tshwane
0143
18 December 2019

AUTHORITY TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION (MPD): MAJ L. XOBISO (DOCTOR OF LITERATURE AND PHILOSOPHY IN POLICING)

1. Letter DOD/MP SCHOOL dated 10 April 2018 has reference...
2. I hereby request permission to conduct research as part of my studies for the Doctor of Literature and Philosophy in Policing with the University of South Africa. The title of my research proposal is **"A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MILITARY POLICE DIVISION TRAINING"**.
3. A study in the environment of the training, of the police personnel is vital to enhance training, training needs to be analysed in order to be aligned with the current modern policing situation as crime patterns changes now and then.
4. For my **Magister Technologiae (Mtech)**, I did research on the title: **"THE CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE ROLE OF THE MILITARY POLICE IN CRIME PREVENTION"**. The findings of my study revealed that Military Police Division crime prevention plays a significant role within the Department of Defence and a copy of the study in the form of a book was handed over by the researcher to R ADM (JG) M.A. Maphoto.
5. This research will not have any derogatory statements towards other human beings (military personnel and civilians and it will not contain any material that may harm any individual either physical or emotional.

Ungqongolo: 061 424 8838, I-Fax: (012) 674-4100, I-Enquiries: Maj L. Xobiso, I-Cell: 061 424 8838, I-Facsimile: (012) 674-4100, I-Postal: P.O. Box 580, Thaba Tshwane, 0143

"Unity is Strength"

RESTRICTED

**AUTHORITY TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN THE MILITARY POLICE DIVISION
(MPD): MAJ L. XOBISO (DOCTOR OF LITERATURE AND PHILOSOPHY IN
POLICING)**

6. My supervisor for the duration of the research is Dr N.J.C. Olivier contact details: 062 465 0932. Find the attached research proposal module result marked as annexure 9. The projected completion date of this study 2021.

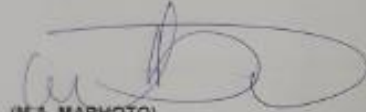
7. Your cooperation will be appreciated.



(L. XOBISO)
ACCREDITATION OFFICER: MAJ (Retired)

Approved / Not Approved

Approved



(M.A. MAPHOTO)
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2.4 ANNEXURE D: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

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RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

TITLE: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF EFFECTIVENESS OF MILITARY POLICE DIVISION TRAINING

The questionnaire has been designed to solicit information for purely academic purposes. This will enable the researcher Leonard Xobiso, a PhD student of University of South Africa to complete his thesis.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (PLEASE MARK WITH AN X IN AN APPROPRIATE BLOCK)

The following information will be necessary for statistical purposes to summarise the conclusion of the study in a proper manner and to reflect opinions of members in all levels, ages and gender in the Military Police Division.

Participation will be voluntary and participants will remain anonymous. All answers will be confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

1.

Gender	Male	Female

2.

Age	50 Above	
	43-49 years	
	36-42 years	
	25-35 years	
	18-24 years	

3.

Race	African	
	White	
	Coloured	
	Indian	

4.

Geographical area Station	
---------------------------	--

5.

What is the Number of years in the service	Post-Graduate	
	20 years+	
	16-20 years	
	11-15 years	
	6-10 years	
	0-2 years	

6.

What is the highest level of formal education that you have completed?	Post-Graduate	
	Degree	
	Diploma	
	Certificate	
	Below Grade 12	

7.

Current Rank	Colonel	
	Lieutenant Colonel	
	Major	
	Captain	
	Lieutenant	
	Warrant Officer	
	Staff Sergeant	
	Sergeant	
	Corporal	
	Lance Corporal	
	Private	

SECTION B: FACTUAL QUESTIONS**PLEASE INDICATE WITH AN X**

1. Have you attended any training programme since you have been placed in the Military Police Division? YES NO

2. The training that you received so far in Military Police Division is it enough to enable you perform your tasks effectively?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

3. Are you satisfied with the training offered by the Military Police Division?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

5. Do you think there is a gap in the current Military Police training?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

6. Do you think the training that you have received should be enhanced in order for it to be relevant as to enable you to more effective in the field of work?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

7. The Military Police training provides you with confidence and prestige of good services delivery?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

8. After training, does the curriculum the give you an edge against your competitors (SAPS, Traffic Cops') when working shoulder to shoulder?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

9. The training that is offered by Military Police Division provides you with the modern policing needs to meet current crime situation?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

10. Do you think Military Police training provides you with the ability to make quick decisions, act effectively without hesitation to any crime situation?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

11. Do you think Military Police training is well planned within the policing context?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

12. After training you have supporting structure that keeps you up to date with constantly rapid changes as training evolves with time?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

13. After training, do you think Military Police training gives you immediate improvement in knowledge and skills to carry out your job?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

14. Do you think the training that you have attended enhances the culture of learning, to empower you to ultimately give higher returns in your job?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

15. Do you think Military Police training techniques raises the bar of your performance to attain firm target organisational objectives?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

16. Is the Military Police training equipment suitable to eventual equip Military Police Officials with knowledge, skills and abilities to make substantial contribution to solve crime situation?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

17. Do you think Military Police training is seen as the tool to increase productivity?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

18. Military Police training met your expectation?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

19. Are you always motivated to attend training that is provided by Military Police Division?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4

SECTION C: OPINION QUESTIONS**PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOW QUESTIONS BELOW**

1. What is training?

2. What is the primary purpose of the Military Police training?

3. In your opinion, what do you think of the current Military Police Division training?

4. In your opinion, do you think Military Police training you attended met your expectation?

5. According to you, is the training of the Military Police Division sufficient to enable you to perform your tasks effectively?

6. In your opinion, is the current Military Police Division training initiative effective to provide Military Police officials with the necessary skills?

7. How well is the training of the Military Police Division?

8. In your opinion, do you think there are challenges in Military Police training?

9. What can be the factors hampering training?

10. If there are challenges in Military Police training, in your opinion, what should be done to improve Military Police Division training?

11. Do you think Military Police Division training provides you with multitude policing skills that enable you to advise colleagues in terms of policing aspects? Motivate your answer.

12. Do you think Military Police training is seen as an essential aspect in terms of modifying knowledge and skills? Motivate your answer.

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

2.5 ANNEXURE E: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

PARTICIPANT NUMBER: _____

TOPIC: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MILITARY POLICE DIVISION TRAINING

I am Leonard Xobiso a post graduate student that is currently busy conducting research for the degree - "Doctor of Literature and Philosophy in Criminal Justice: Police Science, Forensic Science and Technology" at the University of South Africa. My supervisor is Prof Juanida Home who can be contacted at the university on 012 433 9415 with regards to any matters pertaining to my research.

The aim of the research is to explore the effectiveness of Military Police Division (MPD) training with the intention to design a firm comprehensive MPD training and strategies that would improve Military Police Official's (MPO's) daily functional ability. The following research questions will be answered in this study:

The main research question under this study:

1. Is the current MPD training initiatives/curricula effective to provide MP Officials with the necessary workplace skills?

In support of the main research question, the following sub-questions will be answered in this study:

2. What is the mandate of the Military Police?
3. What are the international and local experiences in terms of policing training United Kingdom, Botswana and SAPS?
4. What are the challenges of MPD training?
5. What are the MPD needs in training?
6. What knowledge is required in the training field of the Military Police?
7. What practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures and recommendations can be offer to the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training?

The research seeks:

- To determine whether the current MPD training initiatives/curricula is effective to provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills.
- To explore the mandate of the Military Police Division.

- To explore International and local best policing training practices, United Kingdom, Botswana and SAPS.
- To explore the challenges of MPD training.
- To determine the MPD needs in training.
- To explore the knowledge required in the training field of the Military Police.
- To develop practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures and recommendations for the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training.

Your participation in this research is of major importance for the successful answering of the research questions.

The researcher is bound to his assurances and guarantees by the research ethics code of the University of South Africa. The information you provide will be used in a research project for a Doctor of Philosophy in Criminal Justice: Police Science, Forensic Science and Technology at the University of South Africa. The analysed and processed data will be published in a research report.

The interviewer will personally note your answers on paper and record the interview. Should any question be unclear, please ask the researcher for clarification. Only one answer per question is required. When answering the questions, it is very important to give your own opinion.

All interviews will be treated as strictly confidential

Your participation in this study is voluntary and can be terminated at any time. All responses will be treated with the utmost confidentiality by the researcher and all participants will remain anonymous. The names of the organisations participating in this will not be included. All participants will be allocated a number and completed interview schedules will be captured in an electronic database. All computerised notes will be stored on a secure, password-protected computer. Transcribed interviews will be kept in a secure place for a period of three years as required by the university rules. The transcribed interviews will thereafter be destroyed.

Research agreement between researcher and participant:

I undertake not to disclose your name.

All information will be treated confidentially.

When reporting on the findings, no names of individuals or companies will be mentioned.

You are free to terminate the questioning at any stage of the interview.

The above information has been explained to me and I understand it. My name will not be disclosed, and I will allow my information or responses to be used in a confidential manner that will not harm me or my employer in any way and I am also aware that the thesis might be published in future.

If you have any queries about this interview schedule, please contact Leonard Xobisoon 081 424 8638 and via email at shezileonard@yahoo.com

Thank you for your cooperation.

Doctor of Philosophy in Criminal Justice student
UNISA

Signature of participant Place Date

PARTICIPANT

I hereby give permission to be interviewed and that information supplied by me can be used in this research.

YES	NO
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SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

A1. Gender

F	M
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A2. Where are you stationed/working?

A3. What is your mustering?

A4. How many years of service do you have in the Military Police Division?

A5. What is your current position?

A6. Did you undergo any Military Police functional training? Please elaborate.

A7. The training you attended was it formal or informal? Please elaborate.

A8. Do you have any formal qualification/s? Please elaborate.

SECTION B: Mandate of the MPO's

Question B.1: According to your knowledge, what is mandate of the MPD?

Question B.2: If asked to explain the vision of the MP Division, how would you explain it?

Question B.3: According to your knowledge, what is the mission of MP Division?

Question B.4: According to your knowledge, what are the duties and responsibilities of MPO's?

Question B.5: If asked to explain the appointment of the MPO's, how would you explain it?

SECTION C: Articulation of MP training practices

Question C.1: According to your knowledge what is your understanding of the term training?

Question C.2: In your opinion, do you think the training you received is enough to obtain skills needed by the Military Police Officials to perform their duties?

Question C.3: In your opinion, do you think the Military Police Division training is aligned to current modern policing? Please elaborate.

Question C.4: In your opinion, is the MPD training structured to meet specific competencies? Please elaborate.

SECTION D: Effectiveness of current MPD training initiatives/curricula

Question D.1: According to your understanding what is the purpose of MPD training?

Question D.2: According to your knowledge, is the MPD training in line with the National Qualification Framework?

Question D.3: In your opinion do you think MPD training contributes to the ongoing effort to make South Africa safe? Please elaborate.

Question D.4: In your opinion is the MPD training successful in producing MPO's that can stand the test of fast growing crime in this modern world? Please elaborate.

Question D.5: In your opinion is the current MPD training initiatives/curricula effective to provide MP officials with the necessary workplace skills? Please elaborate.

SECTION E:MPD training needs

Question E.1: In your opinion, does the MPD training enhance aculture of learning to empower youwith the necessary skills to perform your duties? Please elaborate.

Question E.2: In your opinion, does MPD training provide you with modern policing needs required by MPO's to complete your police duties effectively? Please elaborate.

Question E.3: In your opinion, does MPD training present opportunities to expand policing knowledge and skills to meet the current crime situation? Please elaborate.

Question E.4: According to your knowledge, after completion of MPD training do you have a supporting structure that keeps you up to date with constantly rapid changes as training evolves with time? Please elaborate.

SECTION F: Knowledge required in the field of MPO's

Question F.1: In your opinion, what knowledge should be imparted by MPD training to enable the MPO's to perform well within their field of policing?

Question F.2: According to your experience, do you think MP Division training is well planned?

Question F.3: According to your experience, what should be included in MPD training in order to improve the knowledge and skills needed for MPO's to execute their duties efficiently?

Question F.4: In your opinion, what training model should be used by the MPD to ensure embedded knowledge and practical skills required by MPO's?

SECTION G: Challenges of MPD training

Question G.1: According to your experience what are the challenges in MPD training? Please elaborate.

Question G.2: In your opinion, what can be the factors that hinder MPD training?

Question G.3: In your opinion, what are the MPD training needs?

Question G.4: According to your knowledge, what is your understanding of the term "Training analysis"?

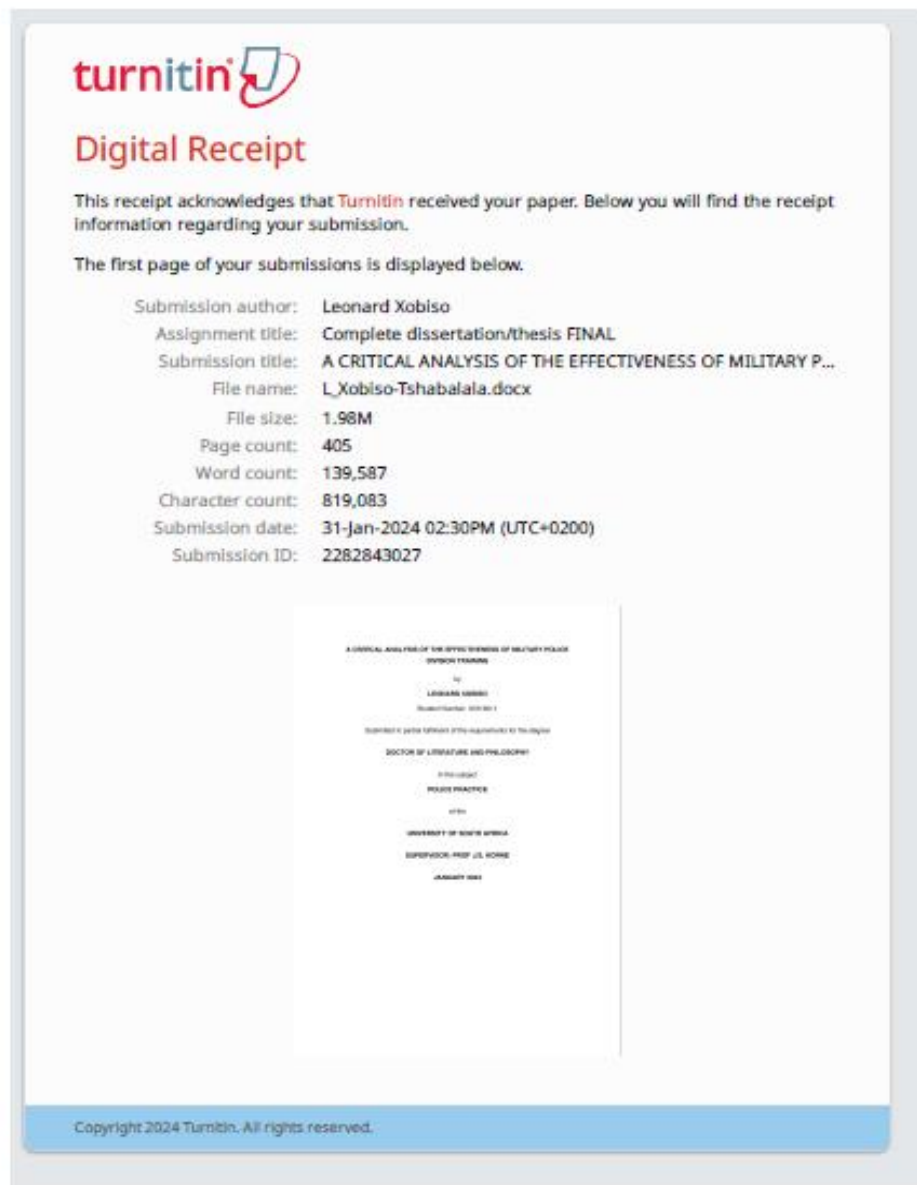
Question G.5: In your opinion, what practical guidelines can you suggest on how to MPD training should be conducted? Please elaborate.

Question G.6: In your opinion, what practical suggestions, guidelines, procedures and recommendations can be offer to the Military Police to effectively enhance the MPD training

Question G.7: Do you have any additional comments or suggestions regarding the MPD training to that we have not been discussed?

Thank you for participating in this interview.

2.6 ANNEXURE F: TURNITIN DIGITAL RECEIPT



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by
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JANUARY 2024

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2.7 ANNEXURE G: EDITING LETTER

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I, the undersigned, hereby confirm my involvement in the language editing and research methodology compatibility check for the thesis manuscript of Mr Leonard Xobiso (Student Number: 37216511) submitted to me as part of his fulfilment of the requirement for the Doctor of Literature & Philosophy (DLitt et Phil) in Police Practice degree registered with the University of South Africa (UNISA), and entitled:

A critical analysis of the effectiveness of military police division training

As an independent academic editor, I attest that all possible means have been expended to ensure the final draft of Mr L. Xobiso's thesis manuscript reflects both acceptable research methodology practices and language competency standards expected of postgraduate research studies at his academic level.

In compliance with expected ethical requirements in research, I have further undertaken to keep all aspects of Mr L. Xobiso's study confidential, and as his own individual initiative.

Sincerely,

T.J. Mkhonto

BA Ed: North-West University, Mahikeng (1985)

MEd: School Administration; University of Massachusetts-at-Boston, USA, Harbor Campus (1987)

DTech: Higher Education Curriculum Policy Reform, Design & Management; University of Johannesburg (2007)

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Signed: 

Dr T.J. Mkhonto
Independent Academic Editor

Date: 20 February 2024

dd/mm/yyyy



Promoting excellence in editing

Themba J Mkhonto

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