An Exploratory Study on Views of Station Commissioners and Trainees in the Pretoria Area on Training Methods used in the South African Police Service

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Abstract

This study explores the views of managers of Police Stations and trainees in one of forty-two (42) Policing Areas in the South African Police Service. It probes the feelings of the managers (herein referred to as Station Commissioners) and trainees regarding training methods used during In-service training.

The study starts by analysing the environment in which the SAPS operates. The Management Problem identified is the lack of transfer of training at station level. This problem exists in the SAPS at the time when it grapples with transforming from a militaristic form to a service organisation. It is the time when the organization's training interventions are very critical for their members to providing better service.

In finding out the views of Station Commissioners and trainees, a communication survey was conducted in all police stations found in the Pretoria Area. A questionnaire was administered to two groups from this Area. One was a group of Station Commissioners and the other made of trainees that attended training programmes at least twelve months before the survey.

The questionnaire consisted of instruments probing views on off-the-job training and on-the-job-training methods as well as organisational climate instrument. The organizational climate instrument was a modified version of Likert & Likert (1976) scale.

The trainees and Station Commissioners positively viewed goal setting and decision-making at these police stations. Leadership, motivation and communication were the dimensions of organisational climate that need improvement or reinforcement.

Both methods of training, that is off- and on-the-job, were deemed necessary in the SAPS. The act of travelling long distances before the training was identified as a problem for off-the-job training. It was also highlighted that both methods are necessary for all members regardless of their level of skills or position.

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CHAPTER 1   INTRODUCTION

The high level of crime prevailing in South Africa poses a threat to national security and economic growth. If peace and stability prevail, then economic growth can be realized and as a result social development can also be achieved. This therefore illustrates the important role that is played by a department like the SAPS in the government of the new South Africa.

This chapter outlines the legal and political environment in which the SAPS finds itself by scrutinizing the laws that enable it to fulfill its function. It also gives the historical background of the SAPS and how the South African government is structured. The statement of the problem and the rationale for the study are given as well as how the research report is structured.

1.1   The Policing Environment in South Africa

1.1.1   The Law

South Africa began her reform of laws with an Interim Constitution in 1994 and by 1997 the Constitution had become Law (Alberts *et al*, 1999, p 4). That process led to South Africa becoming a Constitutional Democracy. The **Constitution of the Republic of South Africa** (Act 108 of 1996) is the supreme law of the land and has Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights and all other relevant laws, that will be mentioned below, require that policing activities be aligned with the entire human rights ethos by police officials at all times.

The Chapters of the Constitution that deal with the Bill of Rights and Security Services gave rise to many Acts of Parliament that set up the Defense, South African Police Service (SAPS), and the Prosecution Authority. Regarding policing laws, the situation evolved as indicated below.

The **South African Police Services Act** (No 68 of 1995) unified all pre-elections Policing Agencies into a single national body. The background information about the SAPS will cover much detail regarding pre-election agencies. This Act gives powers to the state authorities to establish a police service and its regulatory bodies. It also provides for the development of policies and procedures for the police officials.

The **Criminal Procedure Act** (No 51 of 1977) regulates the process of trials, sentencing, and post-sentence remedies within the State. There are laws that need to be taken into account by police officials that empower them to carry out their duties effectively. Examples of these laws are: The **Drug and Drug Trafficking Act** (No 140 of 1992), the **Arms and Ammunition Act** (No75 of 1969), the **Child Care Act** (No 74 of 1983), and the **Domestic Violence Act** (No116 of 1998).

The laws mentioned above were revised, realigned or amended to support and made coherent with the Constitution from the time it became law.

1.1.2   The Police

There is always interrelatedness among the Law, Police and the State and/or Government. Police enforce Laws to maintain civil order and regulate human activity. Klockars (1985, p 2) describes the relationship between the police and state and sees that

"police are institutions or individuals given the general right to use coercive force by the State within the state's domestic territory".

When looking at the process outlined above, the Acts of parliament or the laws created by government give powers to the police. This then fits the definition of the police given by Klockars (1985) and confirms the difficulty in separating the police and the State.

Though the 'distinction' between the State and the police may be fuzzy, police are supposed to serve the community. The South African Police Services Code of Conduct depicts, among other, the following as core police activities

(i)   addressing root causes of crime,

(ii)   preventing and investigating crime and

(iii)   upholding and protecting fundamental rights of every person.

1.1.3   The Government

Government is generally a temporary bearer of the authority of state. Alberts *et al* (1999, p 8) state that in the case of South Africa, government authority is separated into three main divisions:

(i)   The Legislature – which formulates or amends laws,

(ii)   The Executive – the president, cabinet, government departments that implement and enforce laws, and

(iii)   The Judiciary – the courts that deal with legal disputes.

The South African government has a formal structure to fulfill its function in the form of Criminal Justice System (CJS). The government departments are tasked with the criminal justice process. Each department interacts with another so that, (i) *police officials* investigate cases, identify criminals and bring them to court, (ii) *prosecutors* assist courts to have fair trials and reach just verdicts, and (iii) *correctional officials* secure prisons in which imprisoned persons are accommodated (Alberts *et al*, 1999, p 11).

The three government departments within the CJS are: Department of Safety and Security, Department of Justice and Constitutional Law and the Department of Correctional Service. This industry also consists of regulatory authorities. The Independent Complaints Directorate (ICD) and the Secretariat for Safety and Security were formed as per Chapters 10 and 2 of the South African Police Service Act (No 68 of 1995) respectively.

The objects of the Secretariat are to: advise the Minister of Safety and Security, ensure civilian oversight of the South African Police Service, facilitate participation by the South African Police Service in the Reconstruction and Development Programme and provide legal, Communication, and administrative services to the Minister (Secretariat for Safety and Security Publication, 1999).

The ICD mainly ensures that allegations of misconduct and complaints laid against police official are investigated in an unbiased manner. It also deals with issues pertaining to deaths in police custody and/or as a result of police action. The ICD functions as an independent body from the police and is given powers by Section 53(6) of the South African Police Service Act to access any information that may be necessary to conduct and investigation on the Service.

Both the Secretariat and the ICD are important for the SAPS because of the challenge of improving the image of a police person in the eyes of the majority of the South African community. Past experiences of the Police Force by a major group of the black community involved conflict on political issues.

The police were perceived as a repressive force that supported apartheid and discharged violence against those communities (Brodgen & Shearing). The civilian oversight provided by the Secretariat will provide transparency in all police activities while complaints of excessive use of force, misuse of force and devious police actions, would be investigated by the ICD.

1.2 The Industry in which SAPS Operates

The SAPS forms part of the broader public service besides being part of the criminal justice system. It supplies a public good to its clients. Schiller (1997, p 82) defines a public good as *"a good or service whose consumption by one person does not exclude consumption by others"*.

Policing has all the merits of being a public good. In South African policing is provided by the state as well as private security firms. This puts alliances and competitors for the SAPS as it continues in its business of providing a policing service to the community. The private security firms employ four times the number of employees found in the national police service (Sector Skills Plan, 2002).

Metropolitan police agencies are growing rapidly as well in South Africa. The Cape Town, Johannesburg, and Thswane (Pretoria) metropolitan police have been constituted during the past four years. Traffic police are constituted within the Department of Transport and Provincial Authorities. Police official at Game parks and conservation sites are also constituted outside the scope of the SAPS. The SAPS Act gives powers to the police National Commissioner to determine training and certification standards for the metropolitan and traffic police officers.

The nature of policing, being a service, poses a great challenge to the training and development of police officials. Kotler (1997, p467) defines a service as

> *"any act or performance that one party can offer to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything. Its production may or may not be tied to a physical product"*

A service has the characteristics of being intangible, inseparable, and perishable. Inseparability refers to the fact that a service is produced and consumed simultaneously and perishability to the fact that a service cannot be stored. These properties and the demand of this public good have a bearing on the training of frontline police officials that interact with the community for the SAPS.

1.3 Policing within the Public Sector

South Africa, as a new democracy, faces a challenge of stabilizing and minimizing the formation of the shadow economy. A shadow economy comprises all illicit activities, like corruption, money washing, smuggling, prostitution, mafia, and criminal structures (International Report in Human Development, 1998).

The SAPS has to combat organized crimes, protect the environment like endangered species, secure borders and curb illegal entry of persons from other states.

1.4   Background Information about the SAPS

The SAPS was founded in 1994 through the South African Police Service Act (68 of 1995) corresponding with the new political dispensation. Before then, policing agencies were performing the function of policing in South Africa, the Self-governing Territories, and independent States. All of these agencies were amalgamated to form one united police service, SAPS, in 1994.

In addition, a number of local or 'municipal' police had been created to perform policing duties in the black townships during the height of political unrest in the country in the 1970's and 1980's (Klipin, 2000). These groupings were incorporated into the SAPS as well.

The SAPS is an organization with a diverse skills base consisting of **27 118** women and **94 794** men. There is a reservist group of **22 463** members that supplements the full establishment of the SAPS. The ratio of black to white members is 70:30. Black members include Africans, Coloureds, and Indians (Workplace Skills Plan, 2001).

The South African Police (SAP) was the 'mother' body of all policing agencies prior to the 1994 political dispensation. To understand the history of policing in South Africa, one has to trace the history of the former SAP.

The policing agencies did not last for long. They were brought about by the creation of Independent States and Self-governing Territories. Independent States included Transkei, Bophutatswana, Venda and Ciskei. Self-governing territories were KwaZulu, KaNgwane KwaNdebele, Gazankulu, Lebowa, and Qwaqwa.

Transkei, the first homeland to get independence, was established in 1976 and incorporated into South Africa in 1994 (The Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia, 2000). This means the Transkei Police Agency lasted for about 18 years. This is insignificant when considering that SAP was celebrating 75 years of existence in 1998. During this period the SAP controlled much of training activities for all policing agencies. It also controlled the standard and certification of police officers across most of the agencies.

1.5   The Problem Statement for the Study

The SAPS reaches out to communities through police stations that contain human, financial, and material resources to deliver a service. Well-trained and committed personnel are expected to deliver a better service from station level, and up. The SAPS management attached greater importance to training by establishing the Training Division. This was to ensure that training investments made, provide a possibility for organizational effectiveness in combating crime.

Information gathered from training coordinators in provinces indicated that Station Commissioners, in their roles of maintaining human resources, nominate members from their stations that would attend workshops, seminars or short training programmes. By so doing, they play and important role as line managers to collaborate with a support Division.

If these nominations are not based on a Skills Plan that has been produced by a Skills Audit, these nominations tend to be arbitrary, uncoordinated and often result in individuals taking the training sessions as an opportunity for an outing, as stated by the SAPS National Commissioner at the Management Forum Meeting of May 2001. Such an occurrence, no matter how significant, results in wastage for the organization and amounts to a 'training for the sake of training' trap.

This study probes the viewpoints of both Station Commissioners and trainees towards training methods in order to further strengthen the interdependence between line management and a support Division like Training. It is also aimed to help in the formulation of the hypotheses for further research on workplace training within the SAPS.

The other problem is that after receiving training, when members go back to the stations they do not find a conducive atmosphere that allows them to apply the knowledge they gained during training (Klipin 2000). The overall perception at the moment is that some Station Commissioners do not encourage the application of skills gained during training of their members at stations.

More often there is an outcry at police stations that, due to other factors not necessarily from the manages, members at the workplace apply very little of what is learnt during training. Broad and Newstrom (1991, p 6) describe this situation as the transfer of training problem. They define the transfer of training as

> " the effective and continuing application, by trainees to their jobs, of the
> knowledge and skills gained in training - both on- and off –the- job".

To gain more insight on the 'transfer of training' problem, a comprehensive study of the process from the *pre-training phase* to the *actual training* and the *post-training phase* may be required. On the other hand, policing in a complex and rapidly changing environment will require new skills and attitudes from police officers. Such skills are acquired during training and development.

This study has been looking at an appropriate 'training design' that could be suitable for Station Commissioners and their members at station level. Specifically, the study has probed the perceptions that the two samples had on Off- and On-the-Job Training and then associated those perceptions with the organizational climate measured on the two groups.

1.6   The Rationale for the Study

The Skills Development Act, Act 97 1998 and all related legislation have placed a lot of pressure for employers to set up deliberate interventions for the "skilling" of the workforce. One of the provisions of the Skills Development Act is for companies to develop the skills of their employees and render themselves places for continuous and life-long learning (National Skills Development Strategy, 2001, p 18).

The orientation of Station Commissioners in promoting or inhibiting on-the job training will be key to the creation or eradication of a life-long learning culture within the service. By the same token, the preparedness and ability of trainees to learn will promote life-long learning in the SAPS.

In the present training system where training takes place off-site, Station Commissioners are expected to support the trainees by setting work goals and objectives with which members from training sessions can practice what they have learnt. It is at this point where the transfer of training espoused by Broad and Newstrom (1991) should take place.

There is a need to gradually reduce one dominated corporate learning strategy of sending members of to 'classrooms'. Instead, another alternative learning strategy should be to learn on the job for the sake of saving time and other resources. Such a strategy would satisfy the principle of taking learning to the learners as advocated in the Education Training and Development Policy of the SAPS.

The SAPS Competency - Based Assessment System (Hertzog, 2000, p 13) proposes that line managers be involved in Workplace Assessment for members. At station level, this process will involve Station Commissioners in one way or another. This study would then be used when making inferences on the attitudes of this particular group of Station Commissioners on training of their team members.

Recently, the SAPS introduced the Performance Enhancement Process (PEP) as a developmental tool for performance measurement at the lower ranks of the organization. According the system, line managers and supervisors will among other things, negotiate individual development plans with their members (PEP User Guide, 2001, p 21).

To address learning needs identified during this process, off-the-job training interventions, will be identified by Station Commissioners. Other aspects of the individual plans will be addressed using learning strategies like coaching, mentoring and other on-the-job training methods.

The Station Commissioner's competency profile, in the near future, will be influenced by all the developments outlined above. This study after exploring their perceptions to current programmes and OJT issues will suggest possible training interventions for the Station Commissioners that could enable them to handle this area of competence.

The study is also aimed at generating questions for further research on whether the prevailing organizational climate is suitable for transforming the Training and Development function. It will determine possible Organizational Development (OD) interventions at the Station Commissioner's level.

1.7   The Structure of the Dissertation

The next section of the report introduces the theoretical framework surrounding Off-and On-the-job Training as well as the function of training in general. Training is located appropriately within the broader Human Resource Management environment and its benefits highlighted. The concept of Organization Climate has also been discussed.

Chapter 3 outlines the research methodology for the study. The two samples from the stations in the Pretoria Policing Area are described. Conditions under which the subjects operate are also pointed to give and insight to their day-to-day activities. Then the methods of analyzing the data are described.

In Chapter 4, results are explained and given in the form of graphs, cross tables, and correlations to describe the views held by Station Commissioners and trainees. Quantitative and qualitative approaches are used in this description and lastly Chapter 5 provides recommendations and the conclusions of the study.

1.8   Conclusion

In this chapter three major issues regarding the SAPS have been discussed. The first was all the laws, bodies and processes associated with its functioning. The second issue was the environment within which the SAPS operates. The third issue concerned the problem statement and the rationale for this study.

SAPS environment is highly regulated, full of pressure from the community that demands better service. The environment is one that experiences rapid technological changes. At the same it is expected that SAPS equips the police officers with the necessary skills to perform their duties well.

CHAPTER 2   LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

Policing is a labour intensive business. The SAPS employs over 120 000 people to carry out its function of policing in South Africa. The last chapter has also highlighted the fact that people cannot be easily dissociated with the service when it is delivered to the community.

As a background to the review of literature for this study, the researcher looked into the models of human resource management that are prevalent in today's organizations. The human resource management process is viewed as a whole with emphasis put on the training sub-system within the broader human resource management system. Learning theories and approaches of training adult learners are explored as well. Training is then defined and the rationale for organizations to train people explored.

Training methods in the form of off-the-job and on-the-job training are defined and analyzed. The concept of organizational climate is discussed and its dimensions explained as it developed all the years. Lastly a number of related studies that have been undertaken at SAPS have been discussed to make a link with this one.

2.2   Models of Human Resource Management

It is a well-known fact that organizations exist for purposes of producing goods and services to the community. Even though organizations may vary according to ownership, the types of products or services they make, they all exist so that someone benefits from their existence.

In order to produce products and services, organizations use capital, land, raw material, and technology as resources. These resources need to be managed within an organization so that products and services are produced. Tayeb (1996, p 10) points out that, by definition, human resource management considers employees as another resources alongside those resources mentioned above that is in need of management.

There is a counter-argument against the way of viewing human resources as just another resource. Tayeb (1996) asserts that this ignores fundamental differences between people and the other resources. The other resources are less anchored in an organization since they can be moved around, discarded, transformed with ease unlike the human resources. This view is taken as degrading for human beings.

Tayeb (1996) then compares two models of human resource management, which emanate from the way human beings are viewed in organizations. The modern and recently adopted model is the *commitment – based* model of human resource management. It is a shift from a *control-based* model.

Vaughan (1994) puts the commitment – based and the control – based models of human resources at two extreme ends. The former is taken as a 'romantic' view of human resource management. The control-based model is rather taking a tough-minded approach to the management of human resources.

According to Lundy (1994) the commitment – based model attempts to promote a relationship between management and employees. It is characterized by autonomy, responsibility, employee commitment that would (it is hoped) later result into effectiveness and high productivity.

On an individual level, the commitment – based model acknowledges that people have needs, emotions, interests and attachments as they continue to perform their day-to-day tasks in organizations. They need to be empowered and catered for by management in the workplace. Tayeb (1996) also states that unlike the other resources, human resources are not subjected to market forces. They cannot be valued, transformed or displaced freely like the other resources. All these factors lead to a challenge to managers when they deal with human resources.

Since human resource management is viewed as another branch of management, which has to regard human beings as a resource. This would mean that this "resource" is subjected to the law. Therefore employees should be assessed to determine how much skill they possess in order to help the organization achieve its production goals (Tayeb, 1996, p 11).

There will always be a need to develop human resources in organizations, regardless of the model used in managing them, Cascio (1991, p 116) states that training leads to improved performance which affects productivity in an organization.

2.3   Training within the Human Resource Management System

Swanepoel *et al* (1998), Cascio (1991) locate training and development within the broader human resources management system. Training and development is embarked upon after employees have been introduced to the organization through the processes of recruitment, selection, and placement. The success of training and development of employees could be influenced by the other processes within the human resource management system.

Table 1: Human Resources Management: A process Approach

Plan and organize the HR system	Activate, direct and lead the HR system		Control the HR system
Planning for and organizing the work, the people to do the work, and the support functions	Acquisition of required human resources	Utilization and conservation of the organization's human resources	Exercising control over the organization's human resource system
- Work/job analysis - Strategies and structures for HRM - Work and organization design - Workforce planning	- Recruitment - Selection - Hiring/ placement - Induction/ socialization	- Performance appraisal and management - **Training and development** - Career and succession management - Compensation and reward - Collective bargaining - Communication, motivation and leadership - Maintaining sound relations	- Maintaining discipline - Employee attitude surveys - HRM audits/ evaluations - HR-related information

Source: Erasmus, van Wyk & Schenk (1998) South African Human Resource Management, p 13

The outcomes of training should result in performance improvement and employee satisfaction. Individual performance will be influenced if training can cause a change of state in the skills, knowledge and attitudes of the individual (Cascio, 1991, p 161). This change eventually results in a change in social behavior by the individual.

One may ask a question that when should training start in an organization. Cascio (1992, p 256) provides an answer to this question. During the employees initial experience with the organization, the company standards, traditions and polices need to be learnt. This is where the training process helps to make the *individual-organization* fit possible. Subsequently, training helps in imparting the technical aspects of the job as well as any desired social behavior.

Cascio (1992) further identifies a three – phase sequence for training as (i) needs assessment, (ii) implementation, and (iii) evaluation. The needs assessment gives rise to what is to be learnt in an organization by undertaking the analysis of the organization, operations, and the individual. These needs are supposed to be aligned with strategic goals of the organization and should dictate the method(s) that must be used during training.

2.4   Adult Learning Principles

Theories of learning also dictate to the methodology used for training (Cascio, 1991). Although training needs and theories would indicate the kind of method for training, there are fundamental adult learning principles that would normally apply in any organization which trainers should take cognizance of during the implementation phase.

Malcom Knowles (1980) came up with a theory of andragogy. This theory was different from pedagogy. The pedagogical theory is based on a child –centered model of education where one of the assumptions made about the learners is that he/she brings nothing to the learning situation. The androgogical model assumes several conditions that adults bring to the learning situation. These conditions are important to designers of training programs that would be directed to adults in the workplace.

(i) **Adult – learners are self-directing** - this refers to the tendency of adults wanting to take responsibility for their own lives. They would want to plan, implement and evaluate their learning activities,

(ii) **Adults are motivated by internal factors** – this refers to the tendency of adults driven by self – actualization. Learning activities for them should lead to high self esteem, recognition and self confidence,

(iii) **Adults want real – world application** – the skills and knowledge gained in learning activities should help solve real life problems that adults confront in their daily work lives.

(iv) **Adults build on prior experience** – this refers to the fact that adults will always bring some knowledge that they have acquired on their own in a learning situation. The learning base is formed from this knowledge and the adult learner will build new knowledge from there (Lawson, 1998, pp9-10).

These principles are useful for the designers of training programs during the process of training as stated before. They are relevant to workplace training because learners are either in their early – career or mid-career sections of their work life cycle. The principles are largely relevant also since this study is focusing on the training of police officers. As one talks of andragogy and the training process, there is a need to look at those training methods that are compatible with adult learning theories.

2.5   Training Methodology

The management problem identified in this study concerns the transfer of training. The study is aimed at getting views about the training methods and conditions in which training is provided in the SAPS. It is not yet clear where the problems lie within the three phases of training given by Lynton & Pareek (2002, pp 48-50), *viz.* pre-training, training, and post – training within the SAPS training system. Views on off – the – job and on – the – job training were therefore solicited from managers and subordinates.

Rothwell & Kazanas (1994, p 140) compares off-the-job from on –the-job training on the basis of the individuals being catered for. Group needs are entertained during off-the-job training while it is an individual that gets catered for in on-the-job training.

Common group training methods, according to a manual for job training methods by Pagewise Inc., consist of lecture, demonstration, seminar, conference, panel, role - playing, case studies, simulations, and projects.

Common individual training methods being self-discovery, computer – based training (CBT), on-the-job training (OJT), and mentoring. Broadwell (1995) states that each of these training methods has its own good points and drawback. Each situation may suite one or the other.

Pareek (2002, p 214) focuses on three dimensions of classifying training methods. These are: (i) the amount of participant activity allowed by the training method, (ii) the amount of emphasis on cognitive learning, and (iii) the scope for experimentation by the participants. Ultimately these dimensions produce a typology of eight sets given in the table below:

Table2: Classification of Training Methods

Set	Type	Emphasis on Participant	Emphasis on Cognitive Learning	Emphasis on providing Experience	Remarks	Example
1	Inspirational Methods	Low	Low	Low	High activity on the part of the trainer	e.g giving a semon or a pep talk
2	Expository Methods	Low	High	Low		e.g lecture method
3	Natural Learning Methods	High	Low	Low	Learners are left on their own	e.g trial and error, on-the-job training discussions methods
4	Individualised Methods	High	High	Low	Feedback given immediately learner has fewer chances of learning from mistakes	e.g programmed instruction
5	Behaviour control methods	Low	Low	High	Main emphasis to help the learner to experience and experiment some behavior	e.g modelling
6	Controlled Exposure Methods	Low	High	High	Trainer dominates by showing	e.g demostration
7	Encounter Methods	High	Low	High		Eg laboratory training creativity training assertion training
8	Discovery Methods	High	High	High	People discover knowledge for themselves	Eg experiments field training, roleplaying simulation

Source: Lynton,, RP & Pareek, (200) 21) Training for organization Transformation: Part 2

2.6   On-the-job Training

Dipboye, Smith & Howell (1994) state that the difference between on-the-job and off-the-job training methods lies in their philosophical foundations. Various authors give the following definitions:

"a structured process conducted at the employees" work-area to provide the employees with knowledge and skills to perform job tasks" (Lawson, 1997 p 2).

"is the process in which one employee, most often the supervisor or lead person of a work area, passes job knowledge and skills to another employee" (Jacobs and Jones, 1995, p12)

"is a planned instruction occurring on the job and during the work, centered around what workers need to know or do to perform competently" (Rothwell and Kazanas, 1994 p 141)

A seen in typology of Lynton & Pareek (2000), on-the-job training involves trial and error with lots of generalizations made about the learning process. Lynton & Pareek (2000) identified three assumptions about on-the-job training

First, is that the task and its setting cannot be separated. Secondly, is that the job will remain for a long time and, thirdly, that very minimal risk of error exists as learning takes place. However, the complexity of today's jobs makes it difficult to practice and learn at the same time. The life span of skills is shorter thus making learning off-the-job difficult. Tighter schedules and high investments make the possibility of errors in the jobs undesirable.

On-the-job training can be successfully used in training of high-level skills as well as lower-order skills. Dipboye, Smith and Howell (1994) mention that on-the-job techniques like mentoring, internship, job rotation and transfers are used in management and professional training with success. Lawson (1997, p 61) speaks of on-the-job **coaching** when this method is used in management development.

The convenience of on-the-job training normally distract its drawbacks that are not easy to identify. Dipboye, Smith and Howell (1994) identified that the time used by the experienced trainer is ignored and not calculated as time lost for productivity with regards to the trainer. The cost of errors and equipment that maybe broken during the training, may impose huge costs to the organization. It is said that such costs are sometimes not taken into account in evaluating on-the-job training.

In moving away from the inherent drawbacks of on-the-job training, Jacobs (1992) in Stolovitch and Keeps talks of **structured** on-the-job training as a move from its unstructured nature.

The comparison of the unstructured and the structured methods identifies a systems approach and performance enhancement as important elements in the structured model.

Table 3: Comparison of Structured and Unstructured OJT

Unstructured OJT	Structured OJT
Systems approach not used	Systems approach is used
Outcomes not defined in advance, with unpredictable results.	Outcomes defined in advance, with predictable results.
Experienced worker not trained to be a trainer; over-dependence on natural communication skills	Experienced worker trained to be a trainer; equal-dependence on job guides
Viewed simply as a training program	Viewed as one solution within the Human Performance system
No role for the Human Performance Technologist	Defined role for the Human Performance Technologist

Adapted from: Jacobs (1992) in Stolovitch and Keeps, p 501

Lawson (1997) also emphasises the need to plan on-the-job training. Though very little research having been done to find out its impact on bottom line results in companies, an empirical study by Rothwell and Kazanas (1990) discovered that better results are compromised if structured on-the-job training is not implemented in operations.

2.7   Off-the Job Training Methods

As stated before, there is no superior training method than the other. Each method would be suitable depending on the task, learners, and the learning need identified in an organization. Off-the-job training methods allow trainers to process many trainees at a time.

Yelon (1992) in Stolovitch & Keeps call Off-the-job Training 'classroom instruction' and deem it to have two attributes. First it involves a group of trainees and secondly, it requires the physical separation of the classroom from the workplace. Rothwell & Kazanas (1994, p 104) state that

"off-the-job training is usually designed to meet the shared learning needs of a group rather than a particular individual's needs"

The most important thing to consider when using any group of training methods is the question of how well the transfer of training occurs after using that particular method. This question is important for all the role players in the training process. Line Managers play a decisive role in this phase since they are part of the environment in which practice of skills takes place.

Among factors in the workplace that influence the transfer of training is the organizational climate. Perceptions of management support and leadership are some of the issues tested when organizational climate is diagnosed. Organisational climate includes some psychological variables that are relevant to training and development in organizations.

Yamnill and McLean (2001, p 196) in Holton (1996) support this viewpoint. These author s state that there are three primary influences that ensure that training leads to improved individual performance.

These are: *motivation from the learner to learn*, the appropriate *design of learning intervention*, and the *organisational environment* that supports trainees to apply knowledge, skills and attitudes they have learnt.

2.8   The Concept of Organisational Climate

The literature survey shows that this concept originates from the field of industrial and organisational psychology. There is a very thin line between organisational culture and organisational climate. Baird (1992) provides a simple comparison of the two constructs by saying organic climate can be taken as a "shallow" version of organisational culture. Culture is regarded as deep-seated within the minds of employees as opposed to the temporary nature of organisational climate.

Reichers and Schneider (1990, p 10) trace the development of the organisational climate construct. Research done has been covering various industries involving the Banking industry (Agyris, 1958) church organisations, (Schneider & Hall, 1970) research and development agencies (Abbey & Dickson, 1983).

Johnston (1976), Powell & Butterfield (1978) and Joyce & Slocum (1984) are the authors that worked on the notion of group climates and the fact that different climates may exist in an organisation. Other researchers concentrated on testing the validity of the climate construct (Howe, 1977; *Group Climate: An explanatory analysis of construct validity*; Woodman T King, 1978: *Organisational climate: Science or Folklore)*

Nasser (1975, p 48) states that organisational climate may have been taken as an attribute of an organisation or an organisational unit in the same way as variables of the physical world amount to climate. Employees, as organisational elements, would then "feel or sense" climate fluctuations as analogous to the physical climate conditions.

Formal definitions of organisational climate also concur to the fact that it is a phenomenon experienced by individuals:

Organisational climate is *"a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organisation, that:*

    (a)   *is experienced by its members,*

    (b)   *influences their behaviour and*

    (c)   *can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of attributes of the organisation"* (Tagiuri & Litwin, 1968, p 27) or,

a set of expectancies and incentives and represents a property of environments that is perceived directly or indirectly by the individuals in the environment (Litwin and Stringer, 1968, p 29).

Likert and Likert (1968) identified six dimensions of organisational climate and developed a diagnostic standard questionnaire to measure this phenomenon. The dimensions are: communication flow, decision-making practices, concern for persons, influence on department, technological adequacy, and motivation. The questions on the instrument were adapted to suite the Station Commissioners and trainees and the needs of the organisation.

2.9 Relevant Studies conducted in the SAPS

2.9.1 Learning Needs Analysis for Middle Managers

Occupational Categories of Operational Managers, Middle Managers, Supervisors, and Trainers were studied to determine and analyze their Learning Needs. The study involved focus groups from these categories and covered all nine provinces of the organization. The aim was to develop a *job profile* for each occupational category and to determine a *competency gap*.

Of these occupational categories, Middle Managers consisted of Station Commissioners. One of the recommendations made regarding the training and development of Middle Managers in the SAPS was geared towards empowering them on how to handle Structured On-the-job Training. The study highlighted that for Station Commissioners or a lead worker to play the role of a trainer, they should understand the following:

(i)   that how people learn,

(ii)   what impedes learning and how to overcome such impediments,

(iii)   how to create an environment for learning,

(iv)   how to plan and prepare to run on-the-job training

(v)   how to ensure application of learning on the job,

(vi)   how to assess the competence of staff you train on the job, as well as

making decisions about when is training the right solution to address performance problems.

2.9.2 How Station Commissioners Learn?

A study directed at Station Commissioners specifically covering the question on how they learn or perceive to learn was conducted within a group that attended Management Development and Leadership programmes (Klipin, 2000). A qualitative analysis revealed that the majority of the respondents learnt more from supervisors on the job on an informal basis.

Though this was the case, very few respondents indicated that they were helped by their supervisors to acquire the skills on the job. This indicates the lack of the structured nature of on-the-job training in the SAPS. Experiential learning that took place was on a trial and error basis and not structured or formalized (Klipin, 2000, p 56)

The results of this study showed that Station Commissioners embraced the fact that the application of ideas picked up from training depends on the support afforded by the environment on which one operates. This study has probed ideas from Station Commissioners and trainees about practical steps that can be taken to ensure that the transfer of training occurred.

2.9.3 Service Delivery Improvement Project (SDIP) Survey

The Institute for Security Studies (ISS) commissioned a research project to find out how the SAPS was performing in rendering services to the community using the strategy of Community Policing (ISS Report, February 2001).

Community Policing is a philosophy of policing that was introduced after 1994 in line with the new democratic South Africa. It is one of the challenges facing Station Commissioners in the SAPS.

The study was conducted at designated stations called Presidential Priority Stations found in all provinces. Station Commissioners are expected, as a matter of policy, to implement at their stations the Service Delivery Improvement Programme (SDIP) with an aim of providing better service to the community.

Various projects are used to achieve service delivery at stations. The study found that of all strategies used, 40% were in the form of training or workshops (ISS Report, 2001, p 6). This shows the reliance on training for individual and organizational performance improvement.

When respondents (police members at the station) were asked who was implementing SDIP at station level, only 21% identified the person to be the Station Commissioner and 59% identified the appointed SDIP co-coordinator. This meant that the Station Commissioners played a minimal role in training projects at their stations.

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Each of the studies mentioned in the last chapter that were conducted was either considering the problem of service delivery or the training needs of supervisors and managers in the SAPS. There has been very little research conducted on the training methods in the SAPS. The researcher then felt it would be appropriate to conduct exploratory research in this area.

The first dilemma was the size of the SAPS. The organisation has about 120 000 members within nine provinces. The idea of a quantitative survey on, say 10 % of such population size would involve at least 1 200 individuals. These, having been drawn from each of the provinces that are vastly spread out from each other, would amount to a large-scale undertaking. The researcher then focused on a narrow scale due to these constraints.

Secondly, while size and distance were restrictive factors to obtain an ideal sample, serious considerations had to be taken such that the area covered was representative of all the profiles of managers and kinds of stations found within the SAPS. Area Pretoria seemed to be a logical choice. It was nearer to the researcher, with a manageable number of stations and representative of all kinds of stations.

3.1. Research Design

The study took form of a cross-sectional survey. It was exploratory in nature and also quantitative while it aimed at getting views from the respondents for discussion and analysis. It was focussed on what station commissioners and trainee's views were on that particular time, and not monitored over a long time to find out if they still held their views or they changed with time.

A self-administered survey questionnaire was used. There was no interaction between the researcher and the respondents regarding the items except during times of reminding them over the telephone to submit the questionnaires.

3.2   Sampling

The sample had a fixed size that was determined geographically. The SAPS consists of one thousand one hundred and eighteen (1118) police stations countrywide as per statistics issued by Efficiency Services on 2001-06-01. Within the Gauteng Province, there are 124 police stations of which 28 make up the Pretoria Area. The fixed sample of station commissioners came from this grouping.

The Pretoria Area covers the Townships, the City of Pretoria, small towns and farm areas. As a result the sample consisted of Station Commissioners serving different kinds of communities within the whole spectrum of communities found in the South African population. The responses of the respondents would thus be informed by experiences from all backgrounds and not biased to experiences from one specific community.

3.2.1 Information about the Sample

Station Commissioners do not hold the same rank. The rank attained by a Station Commissioner depends on the size of the station in terms of the span of control and population density that is being serviced by the station.

The job profile of a Station Commissioner shows that a Station Commissioner manages all administrative processes, human, material and financial resources, implement plans and entrench a culture of community policing at the station (Functional Profile Guide at Station Level, 2002).

Regarding the management of human resources, training and development or planning for training, such activities are the responsibility of the Station Commissioner. The competency profile developed during the Learning Needs Analysis (LNA) study for Middle Managers shows 67% of the job is office-bound and 33% field-bound (LNA Report, 2001, p 2).

Some of the requirements associated with the Station Commissioner's job are the following: *information processing, decision/judgment making, planning, problem solving, taking initiative, adapting to change, having psychological "stamina", and people management.*

Regarding the environment where Station Commissioners, work one has to look at how the station is organized. Police stations have Community Service Centers (CSC) where members receive complaints from the public work. The CSC consists of places like storerooms with equipment and property that is used by police officers in the station.

There are also specialized units based at police stations that have commanders (unit or team leaders) but report to the Station Commissioner. Crime Prevention, Detective Branch, Victim Empowerment Unit are examples of units one can be found at a police station over and above a CSC.

Since the SAPS is constituted as a National Agency, structurally, above a Station Commissioner is an Area Commissioner and Area Heads of the specialized units functioning on a bigger geographical sphere. In turn several Areas form a Province, with nine provinces that eventually make up the National Police Service.

3.2.2 The Sub-sample: Trainees

Station Commissioner's sub-ordinates were targeted to form a sub-sample for the study. The reason for forming a sub-sample was to validate the source of viewpoints by Station Commissioners towards the training methods under scrutiny.

If views of Station Commissioners and Trainees about the type training methods used were negative, this would indicate that it is not just an attitude by Station Commissioners towards these methods because their views would have been confirmed by another group.

It is helpful to have a group of respondents that are involved in off- and on-the-job training. They will respond to questions about these methods with insight. They would thus form a "control group" for what Station Commissioners will be giving as views.

A member from each station formed the sub-sample. This member would have attended one of the in-service training courses provided by SAPS in the last twelve months. This would ensure some insight in the respondent on training and development within the SAPS.

Each of the sub-sample members would be under the command or leadership of one of the respondents in the main sample. The sampling method used in forming the sub-sample was a random sampling method since the respondents were not associated to any particular rank or some designation that would pre-select them to participate in the study. The sub-sample size would end up being the same size as the population i.e. N=28.

3.2.3 Data Collection

A structured questionnaire was administered on the sample and sub-sample described above. There was no pre-testing of data collection instruments. The only thing that was done before data collection was its submission to the Section: Efficiency Services for approval.

The departmental research officer scrutinized the research proposal and the questionnaire to see if such a study had not been conducted before in the SAPS.

The next step was to seek permission from top management to conduct the study after the departmental research officer gave a go ahead. A letter was written to the Provincial Commissioner of Gauteng Province who agreed and referred the matter to the Commissioner of the Pretoria Area. The Area Commissioner agreed and addressed all Station Commissioners regarding the study in a letter that was attached to the questionnaire.

The researcher prepared 28 envelopes with two differently marked questionnaires in each. One was meant for the Station Commissioner and the other for any member working in the CSC that had been to a workshop for the past twelve months. The packages were collected and returned to office of the researcher in the Training Division. A return envelope was included in each package.

3.3. Research Hypotheses

Since the study was exploratory, no specific research hypotheses were tested. The purpose of the study was mainly centered around viewpoints held by Station Commissioners and beneficiaries of training on the methods used in the SAPS. It explored the extent to which these two groups regarded off- and on-the-job training as being effective in promoting service delivery.

Instead of just collecting view points from the 28 Station Commissioners and summarize those into a report, the researcher tested these viewpoints against the organizational climate felt by the Station Commissioners and trainees. This was conducted to assess whether or not the organizational climate would be supportive for particular types of training. Clearly, if perceptions of organizational climate were poor, off-the-job training might be preferable to on-the-job training.

3.4. Measuring Instruments

For this survey, a self-administered questionnaire was designed that contained various instruments. The questionnaire included the biographical data questions, the Organisational Climate (ORGCLIM) instrument adapted from Likert and Likert (1976), and open-ended questions on off- the-job training (Off JT) and structured on-the-job training (SOJT).

The researcher formulated items for the Off JT and SOJT after consulting various literature sources on the subjects of off- and on-the-job training. Respondents were supposed to support all their choices when completing the two instruments as well as the ORGCLIM instrument.

In order to put each respondent to the same understanding of terms used in the questionnaire like off-the-job and structured on-the-job training, a brief definition of each concept was given at the start of each section. The elements of the Off JT and the SOJT instruments are summarised below:

Table 4: Off- and On-the-job Training statements on the Instrument

1.	… is the best suitable training strategy for the SAPS.
2.	… is costly in terms of time and money
3.	Trainees forget easily what they have learnt during …
4.	Off-the-job training is too theoretical and occurs in a non-realistic environment. Structured OJT is practical and relevant to each situation.
5.	… leads to unproductivity because the trainee and the trainer stop doing the job.
6.	Members are motivated to learn when … is used
7.	… should mainly be for the unskilled members in the SAPS.
8.	… contributes less to Service Delivery at the station

The above elements were used for both off- and structured on-the-job training instruments and were put in no particular order on the questionnaire. They rotated around the usefulness, cost, and circumstances suiting each method.

The measurement scale used was ordinal ranging from 1–5, where 1 implied the respondent Strongly Agreed, 2 = Agree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Disagree, and 5 = Strongly Disagree. This scale was used for all three instruments of Off JT, SOJT, and ORGCLIM.

The ORGCLIM instrument used in this study is a modified version of the Likert & Likert (1976) scale. The statements were worded so that they relate to the environment of the respondents. The instrument contained eighteen (18) statements as given in the table below:

Table 5: Statements on the ORGCLIM Instrument

1	Confidence and trust is generally shown by management towards their subordinates	10	Management is generally unaware of the problems faced by sub-ordinates.
2	People feel free to talk to management about problems in their jobs.	11	Decisions at this station are mostly made at the top.
3	Subordinate's ideas are encouraged and used constructively by management	12	Subordinates are much involved in decisions concerning their work
4	Fear threats and punishment I mainly used by management to get subordinates to do their work.	13	The way decisions are made here decreases member's motivation
5	In our station, encouragement and material rewards are used to get members to work well.	14	In general, organizational goals and objectives are established by participation between management and subordinates
6	All members feel a sense of responsibility here for achieving organizational goals.	15	Resistance to organizational policies from certain elements of the workforce is common in this station
7	A strong sense of co-operative teamwork exists in this station	16	Responsibility is widely delegated among members in this station.
8	There is poor upward communication in this station	17	Formal control of management is undermined by people without formal authority
9	Sub-ordinates usually accept communications from management trustingly.	18	Budget setting, performance appraisal and other methods of control are generally used for policing and punishment rather than guidance and reward in this situation

3.5   Methods of Analyzing Data

The approach used in analyzing data from a qualitative research does not lean towards quantitative measures according to Kies (1989). The study was explanatory and probed viewpoints. This made the results dependent on what Station Commissioners and Trainees felt about off and on-the-job training. There was no pre-determined response that one can check if those of Station Commissioners and trainees center on it.

Opinions of Station Commissioners and Trainees were obtained using ordinal scales. Frequencies and simple percentages will be appropriate to indicate the proportion of respondents giving a particular response to each question. Graphs and cross-tables have been used to depict responses and relate certain variables to others.

3.6 Limitations of the Study

It very difficult to attribute performance of individuals to Training and Development because of other influences that play a role in determining individual performance. Respondents might have felt that when they support the idea of structured On-the-job Training, they would be supporting a process of enriching their job requirements. This could have been a source of fear that would cause the respondents to be biased in their views.

The language barriers would exist when respondents put their views forward since they may not be first language speakers of English. The questionnaire required brief discussions on each choice given against a question. Some respondents expressed their views in Afrikaans. The researcher had not allowed respondents to use any language of their choice and questions were posed to them only in English.

The respondents may also not fully criticize the present training programmes because the researcher comes from the Training Division. Ideas given by Station Commissioners and trainees' views may not be generalized as views of all SAPS managers and trainees. This is because the samples do not cover all provinces of the SAPS and each was fairly small in number.

Since the research was conducted during office hours, the Provincial and Area Commissioners gave permission for completion of questionnaires. This rendered the whole exercise too "official" and respondents would think that their superiors might read what they wrote.

It was also easy to locate where the researcher came from. This being research on training methods, respondents would not divorce the survey easily from the returns demanded by the training division on a regular basis. The collection and delivery point for the questionnaires was an office in the Training Division.

CHAPTER 4   FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1   Introduction

In the previous chapter there was a discussion of the research design, samples, and methodology used in gathering data. This chapter deals with how this data was analyzed to produce useful information in order to realize the aims of the research study. The analysis of the results should therefore focus much on what is being said by the respondents to each question posed.

Kies (1989, p 123) also states that inferences to a population cannot be easily made from a sample that is not randomly made and containing characteristics of the population. The sample size and nature in this study made it difficult to generalize findings. All findings would hold only for the Pretoria Area and should be taken as a possible indicator of what could be found in a bigger representative random sample of Station Commissioners and trainees in the SAPS.

In the analysis of biographical data characteristics of the sample and sub-sample emerged. The characteristics in question include the rank, race, gender, age group, highest qualification, and involvement in training. There was information gathered on the sizes of stations that were involved in the study. The number of members found in that station determined the size of the station.

4.2   Questionnaire Returns

Out of the 28 questionnaires distributed, 21 were returned from both the sample and the sub-sample. This represents a return rate of 75% from each group. It must also be said that on considering the size of the samples, each of these rates should have been 100%.

When Station Commissioners were asked for the returns, they always promised but never returned the questionnaires. A suspicion grew that some of the questionnaires may have been misplaced or not completed at all. It would also not be proper to coerce individuals to complete the questionnaires.

Of the 21 Station Commissioners, one completed only the first page with biographical details and the information about the station and the rest were not attempted. This was discarded and eventually 20 questionnaires analyzed.

Within the Trainees sample, one respondent marked off option "agree" until the last item of the questionnaire except with the biographical data and the information about the station. This was also discarded and 20 questionnaires were analyzed from the sample of Trainees.

Some respondents did not support their choices after each statement. Two Station Commissioners and five Trainees did not complete this part but ticked for their opinions.

The reasons for this tendency may be attributed to many factors, one of them being the English language proficiency of the respondents. The responses were given in Afrikaans in some instances. None of the other nine official languages in this country were used. The researcher approached Afrikaans-speaking colleagues to translate the responses into English.

4.3 Biographical Data

The majority of Station Commissioners were at the rank of Superintendent (50%) while on the Trainees group 70% were at the rank of Inspector. The ranks of Captain and up are regarded as management ranks in the SAPS. Most of the Station Commissioners would be expected to be in the ranks and the group of trainees to have the opposite. The rank distributions were as follows:
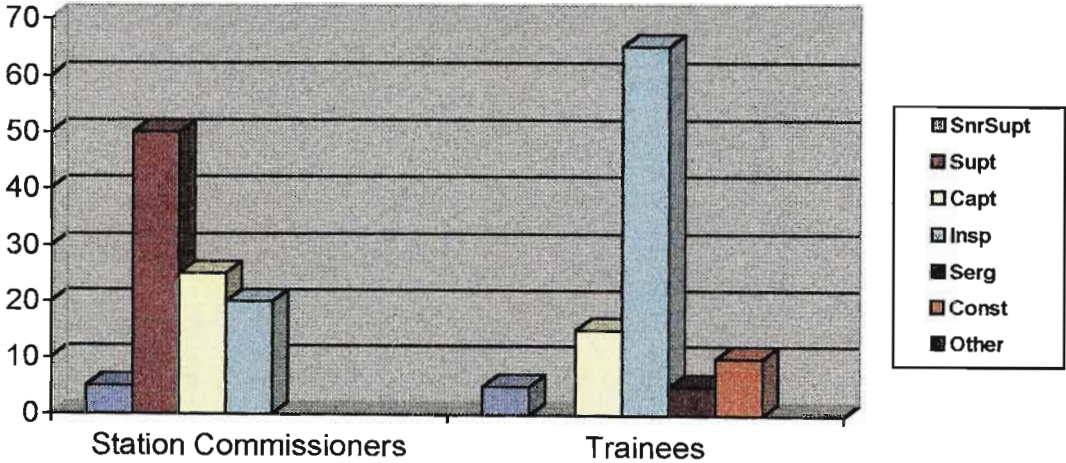
Figure 1: Rank Distribution of Station Commissioners and Trainees

All races were at least represented by each individual on the Station Commissioner's group while the Trainees group did not have Coloured and Indians. Blacks and Whites almost shared equal number on both groups. Eight (8) Africans against ten (10) Whites in the Station Commissioner's group and eleven (11) Africans against nine (9) Whites in the Trainees group. The gender distribution was the same for both groups with 14 males and 6 females.
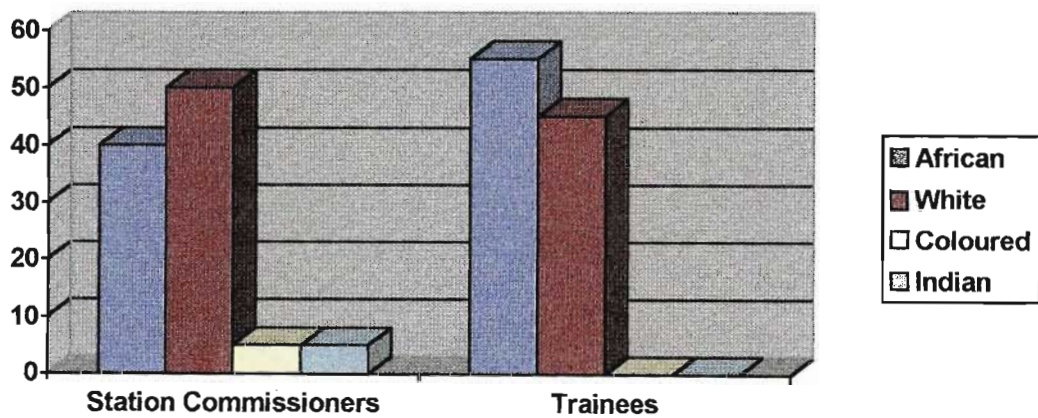
Figure 2: Race Distribution of Station Commissioners and Trainees

The dominant age group in both samples was between the ranges of 31-40 years of age. The Trainees group had 6 respondents in the range of 20-30 years against just one (1) Station Commissioner in that range. No respondents were above 60 years of age. Two (2) Station Commissioners and one (1) trainee were between 51-60 years.

The highest educational qualification was an Honours Degree from the Station Commissioners group with three (3) individuals having Matric. A substantial number of the trainees, eight (8) had Matric. Most had a National Diploma and this was the highest qualification in the trainee group.

4.4 Information About The Station

Four questions were asked from respondents in this regard. One was the size of the station, which was determined by the number of members working in the station. Station size was felt to have a possible effect on the views of both the Station Commissioners and the Trainees. Specifically it was felt that smaller stations would agree that off-the-job training is inappropriate because Trainees and the Trainer stop doing the job.

The data collected from this item was suspect. A Station Commissioner and a Trainee from the same station often gave different figures. The researcher therefore decided to disregard this data for further analysis.

The second question was on the number of Field Training Officers found in the station. The number of Field Training Officers would stimulate Station Commissioner to prefer Structured On-the-Job Training since Field Training Officers are responsible for On-the-Job Training.

A nominal scale of Yes or No was adopted when the data was coded. Many stations ranged from having 1 to 4 Field Training Officers or none. What mattered to the researcher at this stage was whether the Field Training Officers was present or not at a station.

If there was One, Two or more Field Training Officers in a station, then "Yes" was marked on the scale. If there was no Field Training Officers at a station, then "No" was marked on the scale. Sixty five percent (65 %) of the stations had Field Training Officers while thirty five percent (35 %) had none. This may have biased the perceptions of trainees and Station Commissioners regarding the preference of on- vis a vis off-the-job training.

The last question posed was whether the respondent was ever involved as a Trainer. It was considered important to obtain some idea of the proportions of the Station Commissioners and Trainee respondents who had/ had not been involved as trainers themselves.

There were more members from each group that had not been involved as Trainers. Fifty five percent (55%) of Station Commissioners and sixty percent (60%) of the Trainees had not been involved as trainers themselves. So, comments about the preference of on-the-job training over off-the-job training would need to be considered against a backdrop of relative inexperience.
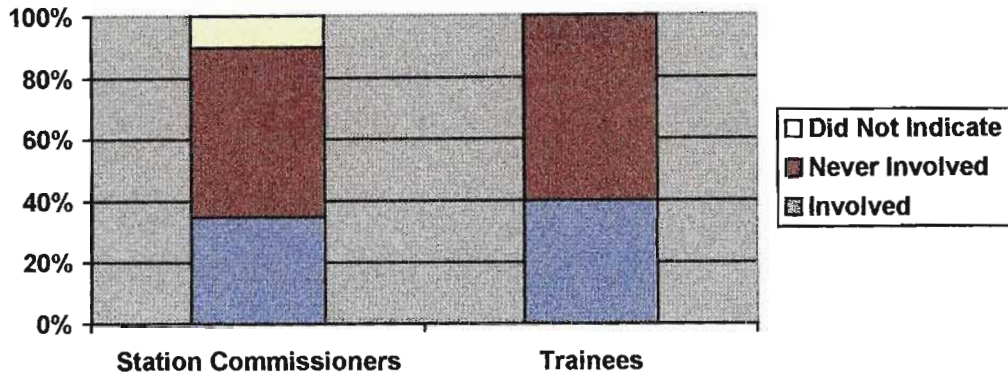
Figure 3: Involvement in Training for Station Commissioners and Trainees

Fourthly, an estimate of how much of the training received was off-the-job training at the station in the past year was posed in the questionnaire. Most respondents did not apply their minds on the question or the question was not properly phrased. This is seen from the fact that 25 % of the stations did not respond to this question. The extent of 'away training' was either high or very low.

The situation was balanced because 25 % of the stations had 80% or more and 35 % of the stations had less than 10 % of off-the-job training as shown on the Table below.

Table 6: A Comparison of the Extent of Off-the-Job Training per Station

Extent of Off-the-Job Training at a Station	Number of Stations (n=20)	Percentage
80 % and up	5	25
40-79 %	3	15
<10 %	7	35
No Response	5	25

Does the presence of Field Training Officers in a station show less off-the-job training or not? The answer to this question was uncovered when a cross-tabulation of the variables " FTO" and " Extent of Off-the-job Training" was done. The relationship was such that stations that used off-the-job training a lot had fewer Field Training Officers and vice versa. At the same time those stations, with less than 10 % of Off-the-job Training, had the most number of Field Training Officers.

Table 7: Cross-tabulation of the percentage of Off-the-job training by Station Size and presence of Field Training Officers

FTO, SIZESTN * OFFJT Cross-tabulation				
	n=20			
OFFJT	**<10 %**	**40-79 %**	**80+ %**	**Missing**
SIZESTN				
150-199	1	1	0	1
100-149	1	0	1	2
50-99	5	2	2	2
20-49	0	0	2	0
FTO				
No	1	0	3	3
Yes	6	3	2	2

Responses to the ten (10) items regarding biographical details and information about the station have all been collected using nominal scales are summarized in the frequency tables in Annexure C.

4.5 Off- and On-the-job Training

The instruments of both Off- and On-the-job training showed a poor reliability coefficient values on the two groups of station commissioners and trainees. These were 0,43 and 0,16 respectively. This could be attributed to the small sample sizes of 20 each.

From the <u>OFFJT</u> and the <u>SOJT</u> instruments the following items were regarded as statements that do not probe whether the respondent favours off-the-job training or not.

(i)   Off-the-job training is costly in terms of time and money

(ii)   Trainees forget easily what they have learnt during Off-the-Job Training

The analysis of the above items presented a picture represented in the Chart below regarding perceptions about Off-the-Job training within the Pretoria Area.
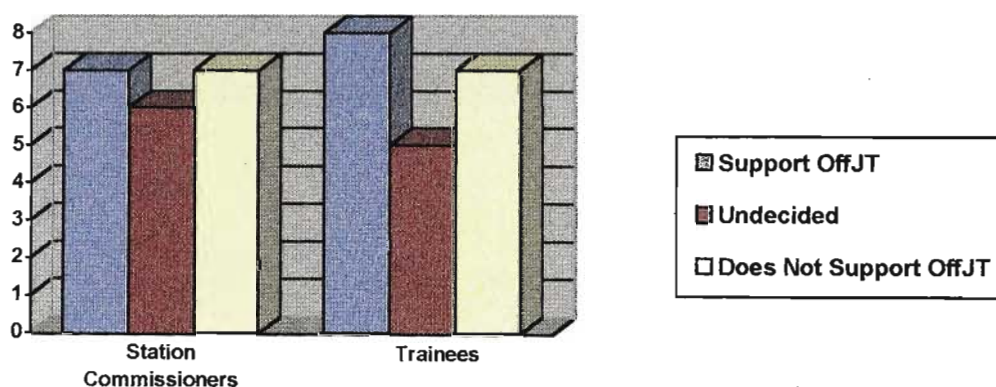
Figure 4: Off-the-job Training viewpoints for Station Commissioners and Trainees

A total of 70 % of Station Commissioners agreed that " *Off-the-job training is costly in terms of time and money"* When the same question was asked about structured on-the-job training, 80 % of the Station commissioners said SOJT is **not** costly.

This could be taken to mean that Station Commissioners are in favour of structured on-the-job training. Most of them when they gave reasons for their responses they mentioned transport costs, subsistence, and the time taken during traveling to venues. They mentioned that these are not applicable to structured on-the-job training.

On the item of motivation, 65 % agree that members are motivated when off-the-job training is used. When the same question is raised focusing on structured on-the-job training, 60 % of them also agree. Reasons that were cited for this include the fact that trainees get certificates after the training and that they are in a remote environment.

About the question whether unskilled members are only suited to off-the-job training, the feeling was that this was not the case. In the explanatory section respondents argued that all members require training. Those that are unskilled and those that are skilled. A total of 60 % disagreed with the statement.

From the SOJT instrument three more items were rated highly by the Station Commissioners. These were:

(i)   structured on-the-job training is practical and relevant to each situation

(ii)   structured on-the-job training leads to improved service delivery

(iii)   trainees forget easily what they have learnt during structured on-the-job training

An overwhelming number (85 %) of Station Commissioners felt that Structured On-the-Job Training was practical and a relevant method. Other respondents expressed some reservations about the truth of the statement. They concurred to a large extent but not always.

Trainees responded similarly to the Station Commissioners. The majority (80 %) of them agreed that Structured On-the-Job Training is practical and relevant. One trainee wrote, " all the *hulpmiddels* are available" – where hulpmiddles is an Afrikaans word that refers to *tools/aids*. They said when training on the job you cannot train a person on irrelevant things. Others were non-committal. They said it depends on the learning matter.

On the question of improved service delivery due to structured on-the job training, 75 % of the Station Commissioners agreed with the statement citing that more knowledge and skills should lead to better service delivery. Others disagreed that when on-the job methods are used, there is less service delivered to the public since things get done slowly.

Trainees agreed entirely that structured on-the-job training leads to improved service delivery. A total of 95 % of the trainees agreed with the statement citing reasons being the fact that you learn while you work. Others said you learn more service skills. One respondent that gave a neutral response said it was not always the case. The respondent said sometimes the method *"irritates when the public is around"*. This meant the method would not be appropriate at certain times for each individual being trained.

The last question that showed significant responses is the one that deals with the issue of forgetting easily what has been learnt when using structured on-the job training. A total of 85 % of the Station Commissioners said they disagreed. A corresponding 75 % from the trainees also concurred with Station Commissioners.
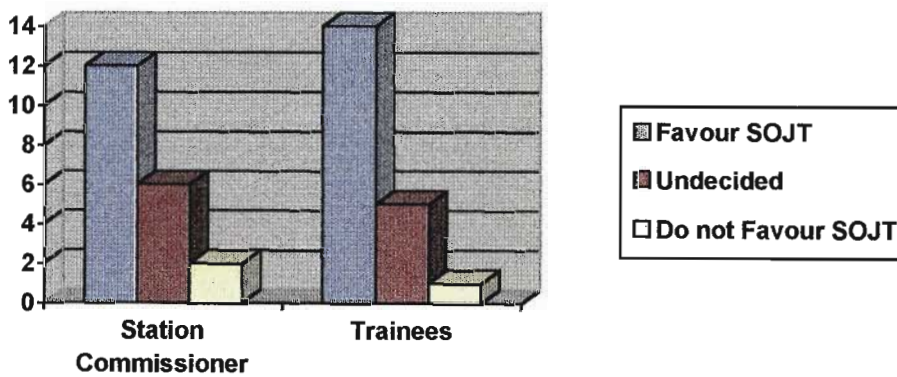
Figure 5: Structured on-the-job Training viewpoints for Station Commissioners and Trainees

The viewpoints of both Station Commissioners and trainees are clear in the case of Structured on-the-job training unlike in the case of Off-the-job training where there was indecisiveness evident from both groups.

4.6 Organizational Climate

The organizational climate instrument was divided into five dimensions as indicated below:

Table 8: Instrument with Dimensions of Organizational Climate

LEADERSHIP	27 Confidence and trust is generally shown by management towards their subordinates
	42 Responsibility is widely delegated among members in this station
	43 Formal control of management is undermined by people without formal authority
	44 Budget setting, performance appraisal and other methods of control are generally used for policing and punishment rather than guidance and reward in this situation
	36 Management is generally unaware of the problems faced by sub-ordinates.
	30 Fear, threats and punishment are mainly used by management to get subordinates to do their work.
DECISION MAKING	29 Subordinate's ideas are encouraged and used constructively by management
	37 Decisions at this station are mostly made at the top
	38 Subordinates are much involved in decisions concerning their work
GOAL SETTING	31 In our station, encouragement and material rewards are used to get members to work well.
	32 All members feel a sense of responsibility here for achieving organizational goals.
	40 In general, organizational goals and objectives are established by participation between management and subordinates
MOTIVATION	39 The way decisions are made here decreases member's motivation
	41 Resistance to organizational policies from certain elements of the workforce is common in this station
	33 A strong sense of co-operative teamwork exists in this station
COMMUNICATION	34 There is poor upward communication in this station
	35 Sub-ordinates usually accept communications from management trustingly
	28 People feel free to talk to management about problems in their jobs

4.6.1 Leadership

Both Station Commissioners and trainees agreed on most statements in this dimension. The statements were probing confidence and trust between the two groups in the stations. Interestingly, 60 % of the Station Commissioners said they were generally unaware of problems experienced by their members. When looking at the statements, one finds that most Station Commissioners say subordinates do not come forward with their problems to management.

On the question of threats being used by management, 45 % denied this and 35 % agreed that threats were being used sometimes but they would be used only in extremely special cases. The overall impression is that there is no effective leadership at all these stations when it comes to delegation and trust.
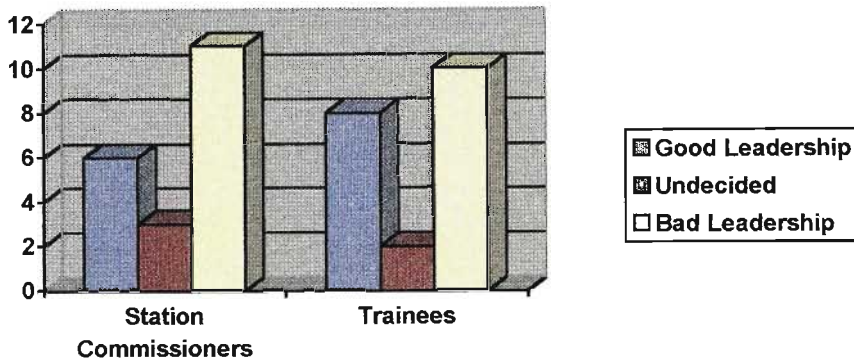
Figure 6: Leadership viewpoints by Station Commissioners and Trainees

4.6.2 Decision Making

Participation by subordinates in bringing new ideas seems to be encouraged by management. Also decision-making powers were generally perceived positively. The overall impression was again positive regarding decision-making at the stations.
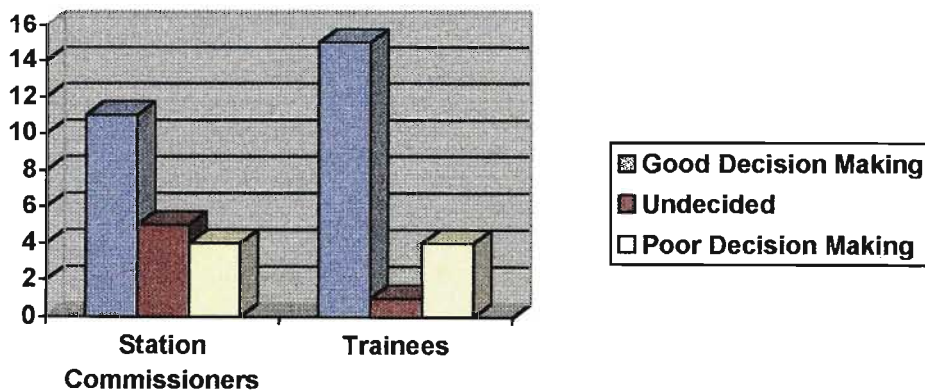
Figure 7: Decision-Making viewpoints by Station Commissioners and Trainees

4.6.3　Goal Setting

The goal-setting atmosphere was impressive as well. Responses from both groups indicated that there is sense of tackling organizational goals at station level. Sixty percent (60%) of trainees agreed that they participate in setting station goals. Most respondents from the stations spoke of material rewards that were sponsored by external groups like Business Against Crime and Community Policing Forums.
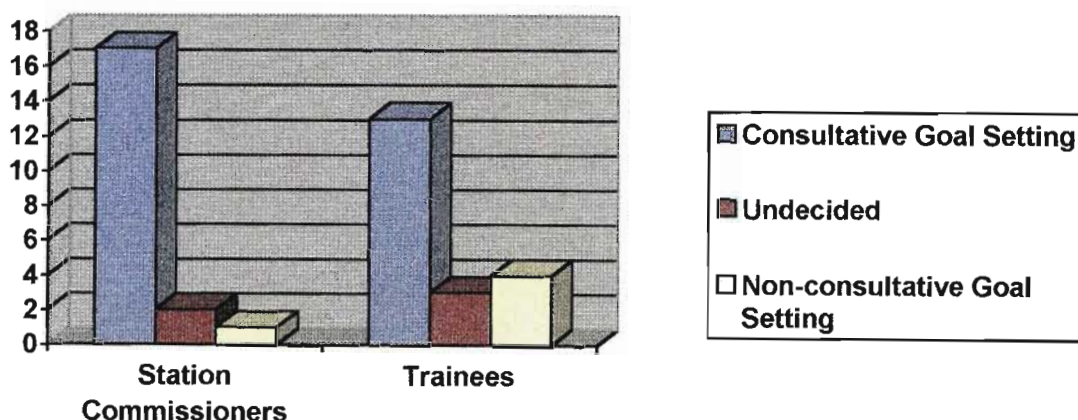
Figure 8: Goal setting viewpoints by Station Commissioners and Trainees

4.6.4　Motivation

The feelings about motivation from the group of trainees are mixed. On the extent to which decision-making motivates members, 40 % of the respondents regarded the decision-making process as demotivating. This was supported by 50 % of the Station Commissioners. Responses to the two other statements were positive from both groups. One may conclude that motivation was not high but acceptable.
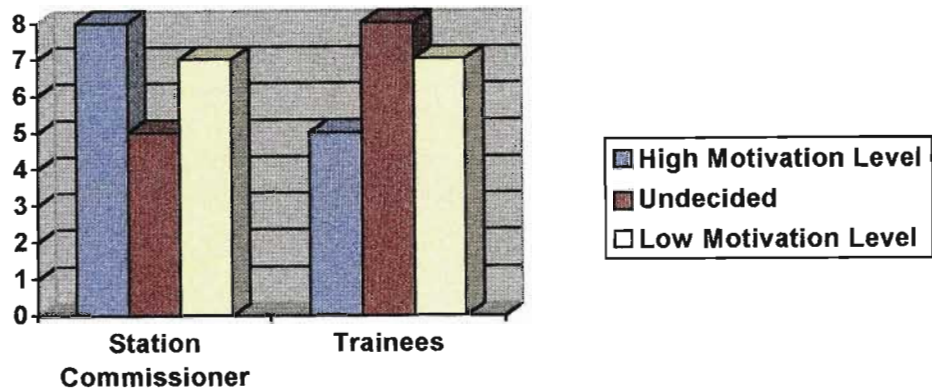
Figure 9: Motivation viewpoints by Station Commissioners and Trainees

4.6.5 Communication

The last dimension of organizational climate tested between the two groups was communication. Both Station Commissioners and trainees felt there was poor upward communication in the stations.
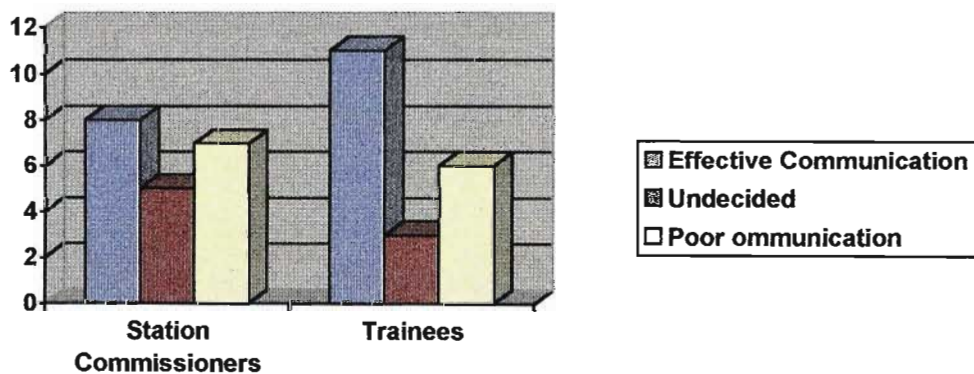
Figure 10: Communication viewpoints by Station Commissioners and Trainees

Only forty (40%) of the trainees agreed with the statement that they accepted communication from management trustingly whereas sixty percent (65%) of the Station Commissioners did.

4.7 Conclusion

It is clear that the approach taken to analyze data captured from the two groups is quantitative. There was also no attempt to scale down items on the instrument when the reliability coefficients were small. This was not done, so as not to compromise the descriptions and opinions given by respondents. All the numerical values were computed using the SPSS computer software together with MSOffice 2000 applications software database.

Though the views towards off-the-job training were ambivalent for the two groups, there was more support for structured on the job training by the Station commissioners and trainees. Although perceptions of organizational climate were generally favourable in the two groups, leadership seemed to be a problem and, to a lesser extent, communication and motivation.

CHAPTER 5   CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter concludes all the activities of the study and puts forward suggestions regarding the research topic. The aim of the project was to obtain views of the Station Commissioners on the current training methods and to hear their views regarding structured on-the-job training in the Area Pretoria.

The management problem was the transfer of training. Organizational climate was tested in this regard so as to find out where the problem actually was. Given that, on-the-job training was preferred by both groups, the organizational climate problems of leadership and to a lesser extent motivation and communication need to be addressed as a matter of urgency.

A closer look at the education, training and development strategy of the SAPS needs to be done. Police officials are always in suspense about what could happen in their work environment by nature. They are expected to act with speed. Planned events like off-the-job training are affected by these phenomena.

So one should acknowledge the turbulent environment within which Station Commissioners operate and provide support for them to manage people effectively. This study was a solution seeking exercise on a very small scale within the SAPS. Station Commissioners have put their views forward about what could be done to make off- and on-the-job training a success.

The SAPS human resource management strategy should also be taken into consideration to see if the training methods are supported at that level. On many occasions promotions and transfer of members or even labor turnover erode training investments.

The following literature review may be helpful in charting the way for checking whether other processes are compatible with the training strategy. It might also help us check how the training strategy of SAPS is located within the entire Human Resource Development policy and the National Skills Development Strategy of South African government.

5.1 Police Training and Adult Education

Sims (1981) conducted a literature survey on the debate of Police and Adult Education in the United States. Police Administrators favoured higher education programmes that prepared police officers to operate in their jobs effectively in the present while Police Educators preferred the education of a police officer. The latter would not concentrated on the narrow technical aspects of the job but on broader, curriculum and higher order skills that are necessary to empower an officer to exercise his/her duties.

The debate centered around the question whether criminal justice practitioners needed higher education from universities or colleges as opposed to training at police academies (Sims, 1981, p2). Sherman (1980) in Sims (1981) suggested three models in the American Criminal Justice education. First was a "paraprofessional" model, which leaned towards vocational and applied technical programmes. In this model cognitive and conceptual tasks in programmes would be lacking.

Second was the "professional" model that would include four-year university and college programmes in criminal justice education. These programmes would prepare future police officers and less emphasis would be placed on technical skills of police work.

Third was a "liberal arts" model whose programmes would be at research level and offered by major research universities. The programmes would prepare students for serious shorlarly work in the field of policing. Sherman's three models produced a continuum for all police training programmes in the United States. On one end there was the *"applied"* methods and on the other end the *"pure"* theory.

Jack Seitzinger in Sims (1981) was a proponent of the applied end. His view was that police training should remain in the hands of police administrators and instructors but conceded that it took longer to raise the standard of instructors at police academies to be deemed professional.

The article by Sims (1981) also highlights and inherent problem in the training and education of police officials. Police practitioners spend much time in doing their work and thus gaining experience. They also do not have time to acquire the academic skills by attending university classes. This situation eventually gives rise to a group of educators with no policing experience driving the training of police officials.

Though this was debated within the United States, most police agencies all over the world face a similar situation. On the right one finds a camp of traditionalists, people that speak of training, use of vocational courses, people concerned with productivity, efficiency, enforcement and educating those that have been recruited. To the left one gets a camp of reformers, people who talk of education, role defining, changing policing, talking of service and recruiting the educated.

5.2   SAPS Challenges

The process of transformation from a military to a civilian structure requires police officials to be service oriented. In terms of the continuum given by Sims (1981) above the organization should move towards the left side of the continuum. At present everybody speaks of <u>Basic</u> Training and In-service and Specialized Training in the SAPS.

Basic Training is given to all those that are recruited (See curriculum in Annexure D). There are several In-service Training Colleges that offer off-the-job training to serving members. The SAPS has a catalogue for these off-site training interventions called Table-19 (the name of the table was automatically generated by the computer database system and is widely known as such in the organization). Certificates for course attendees are generated internally on the basis of information and codes from this Table. There are at least 43 trainers that organize the delivery of training programmes from Table 19 at provincial level.

This set up clearly indicates that the organization is rooted at the extreme left side of the continuum regarding the education and training of its employees. It is not only the quest of transformation that necessitates a transition from the left to the right of this continuum, but the new legislation of the country.

The National Skills Development Act (No 97 of 1998), the South African Qualifications Act (No 58 of 1995) and all other Regulations call for quality workplace learning. Employers are encouraged to expose their workers to accredited providers of education and training. Learnerships will have to be implemented where managers will manage the learning process. Managers and trainers with expert knowledge in the field of policing will need the skills of facilitation, assessing, and curriculum design as they carry out their tasks.

The SAPS will be compelled to move from the left towards the right by the fact that emphasis on narrow technical skills of a job is being done away with through the emphasis of units standards. The new system brings to the fore the principle of integration of the "classroom" and "practice". Education and training need to be integrated during learning. This is embedded on the Unit Standards of learning

5.3   Conclusions from the Study

It has emerged from the results of this study that **both off- and structured on-the-job training methods are necessary**. At the moment if on-the-job training takes place, it is not structured. For structured on-the-job training to be institutionalized, there are many actions that need to be taken.

Firstly, managers or lead workers need to be trained in handling workplace learning and assessment. Secondly, the curriculum needs to be developed or training programmes redesigned to suite this method. It may also take time to communicate a message to all layers of the organization in this regard. So, a marketing drive should be started to achieve the necessary awareness.

Concerning off-the-job training, one of the perceptions was that it **is too costly in terms of time and money** to use this method. One of the ways of shortening distances is to develop what Rothwell & Kazanas (1994) call vestibule training or Near-the-job training (NJT). This kind of training occurs in an environment that resembles the actual work area but just next to it.

The other problems mentioned were the upward communication from members to management, leadership, and motivation. Organizational Development interventions should be implemented to rectify these problems since their existence will not support training.

Communication is important in on-the-job training because Lawson (1997) states that when structured on-the job- training is used, the company culture gets propagated from one generation to the next. The climate within the organization gets improved if structured on-the-job training is used. In case of poor communication, it may not be possible to reinforce the climate or culture of the organization.

The study also revealed a process that needs to be reinforced at station level. **Leadership is not effective**. This should be enhanced by means of the performance enhancement process and incentives that will encourage groups and individuals to cooperate at all times. Transformational leadership programmes given at middle and senior management level may also be a solution

Participative management and the decision making process were detected to be well accepted by both parties. Managers need to empower their members to contribute at meetings and all other decision-making processes. Most respondents cited cases where members would not talk at meetings. The tendency may be due to past experiences where some members were not allowed to challenge their superiors.

It has also been clearly stated that both **skilled and unskilled members** need both methods of training. This actually acknowledges the fact that not only low-level skills training need these methods but all occupational levels should be involved.

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Table 1: Biographical Data Obtained from Twenty Stations: Station Commissioners and Trainees

Station	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Tot	%
Variable																						
Rank (Sta Comm)																						
Snr/Supt						●															1	5
Supt	●				●			●			●	●	●		●	●	●			●	10	50
Capt							●		●					●				●	●		5	25
Insp		●	●	●						●											4	20
Serg																						
Const																						
Other																						
Rank (Trainees)																						
Snr/Supt											●										1	5
Supt																						
Capt		●			●				●												3	15
Insp	●		●	●		●	●	●				●	●	●	●	●	●	●			13	65
Serg										●											1	5
Const																			●	●	2	10
Other																						
Race(Stat Comm)																						
African		●		●	●	●				●	●	●				●					8	40
White	●						●	●	●				●		●		●	●	●	●	10	50
Coloured			●																		1	5
Indian														●							1	5
Race(Trainees)																						
African	●	●		●	●	●	●			●	●			●		●			●		11	55
White			●					●	●			●	●		●		●	●		●	9	45
Coloured																						
Indian																						

Table 1: Biographical Data Obtained from Twenty Stations: Station Commissioners and Trainees (Continued)

Station	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Tot	%
Variable																						
Gender(StatCom)																						
Male	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	•			•	•	•		•		•	14	70
Female				•			•					•	•				•		•		6	30
Gender (Trainees)																						
Male	•	•		•	•		•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•				14	70
Female			•			•		•										•	•	•	6	30
Age (Stat Comm)																						
20-30 yrs				•																	1	5
31-40 yrs	•	•	•				•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•			•		13	65
41-50 yrs						•							•					•		•	4	20
51-60 yrs					•												•				2	10
Age (Trainnes)																						
20-30 yrs			•					•	•	•				•			•				6	30
31-40 yrs	•	•		•	•	•	•				•	•	•		•	•		•	•		13	65
41-50 yrs																						
51-60 yrs																				•	1	5
Involment Training (Stat Comm																						
Yes					•			•		•		•	•				•	•			7	35
No	•	•		•		•	•		•		•			•	•				•	•	11	55
Missing			•													•					2	10
Involment Training (Trainees)																						
Yes	•	•		•								•			•	•		•	•		8	40
No			•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•			•			•	12	60
Missing																						

Table 1: Biographical Data Obtained from Twenty Stations: Station Commissioners and Trainees (Continued)

Station / Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Tot	%
Qualf. (Stat Com)																						
Matric			●							●								●			3	15
certifict							●														1	5
Nat Dipl				●	●	●		●	●		●	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	14	70
H Dipl		●																			1	5
Bach Degr																						
Hons	●																				1	5
Master																						
Other																						
Qualf. (Trainees)																						
Matric	●		●				●			●		●		●					●	●	8	40
certifict				●				●													2	10
Nat Dipl		●			●	●			●				●		●	●	●	●			9	45
H Dipl											●										1	5
Bach Degr																						
Hons																						
Master																						
Other																						

Table 2: Size, Field Training Officers, and Percentage of Off-the Job Training from the Twenty Stations

Station	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Tot	%
Variable																						
Size of Station																						
1-19																						
20-49									●					●							2	**10**
50-99	●		●		●		●	●				●	●			●		●	●	●	11	**55**
100-149		●									●				●		●				4	**20**
150-199				●		●				●											3	**15**
200+																						
FTO present																						
Yes	●	●	●	●	●	●		●		●		●	●			●			●	●	13	**65**
No							●		●		●			●	●		●	●			7	**35**
OffJT as %																						
80 and up					●				●				●	●	●						5	**25**
40-79	●					●										●					3	**15**
<10		●	●					●		●		●						●	●		7	**35**
No Response				●			●				●						●			●	5	**25**

Table 3: Frequency Table on views of Station Commissioners and Trainees towards Off-the-Job Training

Off-the-Job Instrument	Station Commissioners n=20						Trainees n=20					
	Strongly Agree	*Agree*	*N/ Agree Nor Disagree*	*Disagree*	*Strongly Disagree*	Missing	*Strongly Agree*	*Agree*	*N/ Agree Nor Disagree*	*Disagree*	*Strongly Disagree*	Missing
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
11. Off-Job Training is the best suitable training strategy for the SAPS.	10	45	20	20	5		25	25	5	40		5
12. Off-the-Job Training is costly in terms of time and money	20	50	10	10	10		5	35	25	20	10	5
13. Trainees forget easily what they have learnt during Off-the-Job Training	10	20	20	40	10			15	25	45	10	5
14. Off-the-Job Training is too theoretical and occurs in a non-realistic environment	10	20	30	40			10	20	35	30		5
15. Off-the-Job Training leads to unproductivity because the trainee and the trainer stop doing the job	10	20	40	30			5	20	15	50	5	5
16. Members are motivated to learn when Off-the-Job Training is used	20	45	15	20			10	45	15	25		5
17. Off-the-Job Training should mainly be for the unskilled members in the SAPS	20	5	15	45	15		5	20	25	35	10	5
18. Off-the-Job Training contributes less to Service Delivery at the station	15	25	10	35	15		5	10	25	45	10	5

Table 4: Frequency Table on views of Station Commissioners and Trainees towards Structured On-the-Job Training

Structured On-the-Job Instrument	Station Commissioners n=20						Trainees n=20					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	N/Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Missing	Strongly Agree	Agree	N/Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Missing
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
19. Structured On-the-Job Training is the best suitable training strategy for SAPS	15	35	25	20	5		10	45	35	5		5
20. Structured On-the-Job Training is costly in terms of time and money		20		60	20		5	15	30	40	10	
21. Trainees forget easily what they have learnt during Structured On-the-Job Training		5	10	70	15				25	60	15	
22. Structured On-the-Job Training is practical and relevant to each situation	30	55	5	5	5		15	65	10	10		
23. Structured On-the-Job Training leads to unproductivity because the trainee and the trainer stop doing their jobs.	15	10	20	40	15		5	5	20	60	10	
24. Members are motivated to learn when Structured On-the-Job Training is used	25	35	25	15			5	45	45			5
25. Structured On-the-Job Training should mainly be for the unskilled members in the SAPS.		25		45	30			20	20	45	15	
26. Structured On-the-Job Training leads to improved Service delivery at the station.	15	60	15	5	5		35	60	5			

Table 5: Frequency Table on Organisational Climate by Station Commissioners and Trainees

Organisational Climate Instrument	Station Commissioners n=20						Trainees n=20					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	N/Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Missing	Strongly Agree	Agree	N/Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Missing
27. Confidence and trust is generally shown by management towards their subordinates	5	60	15	15	5		5	40	30	5	20	
28. People feel free to talk to management about problems in their jobs.	20	15	25	35	5		5	45	30	5	15	
29. Subordinate's ideas are encouraged and used constructively by management	5	45	15	30	5		15	35	20	5	20	5
30. Fear threats and punishment I mainly used by management to get subordinates to do their work.	10	25	15	35	10	5	5	20	25	40	10	
31. In our station, encouragement and material rewards are used to get members to work well.	20	50	25	5			15	30	25	20	5	5
32. All members feel a sense of responsibility here for achieving organisational goals.	5	60	25	5	5		10	30	30	25		5
33. A strong sense of co-operative teamwork exists in this station	5	65	10	15	5		15	35	15	30	5	
34. There is poor upward communication in this station		5	25	60	10		5	20	30	30	15	
35. Sub-ordinates usually accept communications from management trustingly.	5	60	25	10			5	35	45	10		5

Table 5: Frequency Table on Organisational Climate by Station Commissioners and Trainees (continued)

Organisational Climate Instrument	Station Commissioners n=20						Trainees n=20					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	N/ Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Missing	Strongly Agree	Agree	N/ Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Missing
36. Management is generally unaware of the problems faced by sub-ordinates.	5	20	15	50	10		10	30	20	30	10	
37. Decisions at this station are mostly made at the top.	10	15	25	45	5		10	40		40	5	5
38. Subordinates are much involved in decisions concerning their work	5	55	25	15				50	25	25		
39. The way decisions are made here decreases member's motivation		15	35	45	5			20	35	35	10	
40. In general, organisational goals and objectives are established by participation between management and subordinates	15	50	20	15			15	45	20	15	5	
41. Resistance to organisational policies from certain elements of the workforce is common in this station	5	25	30	30	5	5	10	40	20	20	5	
42. Responsibility is widely delegated among members in this station.	10	70	15	5			15	60	10	10	5	
43. Formal control of management is undermined by people without formal authority	10	25	35	30			10	15	45	30		
44. Budget setting, performance appraisal and other methods of control are generally used for policing and punishment rather than guidance and reward in this situation		20	50	25		5	5	25	35	25	10	

Off and On-the-Job Training and Organisational Climate Questionnaire

> *Please ensure that you do not identify yourself in any way. Do not write your station name. Use X to complete the section on each item*

SECTION 1: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Rank	Asst Comm.	Dir	Snr/Supt	Supt	Capt	Insp.	Ser
2. Race		African		White		Indian	Coloured
3. Gender		Male		Female			
4. Age Group		20-30		31-40	41-50	51-60	60+

5. Highest Educational Qualification	Matric	Nat Cert	Nat Dip	Higher Dip	Masters Dip
	Bach Degree	Hons Degree	Masters Degree	Doctorate	Other

6. Are you involved in Training	Yes	No	7. If yes, then in what capacity	

SECTION 2: ABOUT THE STATION

8. Number of members in the Station	1-19	20-49	50-99	100-149	150-199	200+
9. Number of Field Training Officers	None	One		Two	Other............	

10. Of all training received by members from your station in the past 12 months, how much was off-the-job? Estimate ....%

Instructions

> *This questionnaire asks you how you feel about Off and On-the-Job Training as well as the Organisational Climate at your station. Please note that there is no right or wrong answer to these questions. Your answers will be kept confidential and used in a research project for academic purposes. Please state briefly what makes you feel the way you feel in each item.*

SECTION 3: OFF-THE-JOB TRAINING [FOR FUNCTIONAL POLICING SKILLS]

Off-the-Job Training takes place away from the workplace of the trainer, in a specially designed classroom, and involves grouping of trainees.

11. Off-the-Job Training is the best suitable training strategy for the SAPS.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

12. Off-the-Job Training is costly in terms of time and money	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

13. Trainees forget easily what they have learnt during Off-the-Job Training	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

14. Off-the-Job Training is too theoretical and occurs in a non-realistic environment.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

15. Off-the-Job Training leads to unproductivity because the trainee and the trainer stop doing the job.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

16. Members are motivated to learn when Off-the-Job Training is used	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

17. Off-the-Job Training should mainly be for the unskilled members in the SAPS.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

18. Off-the-Job Training contributes less to Service Delivery at the station	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

SECTION 4: STRUCTURED ON-THE-JOB TRAINING
On-the-Job Training takes place on the work area of the trainee, involves an experienced or expert worker showing the trainee how to do the job, and in most instances on a one-to-one basis.

19. Structured On-the-Job Training is the best suitable training strategy for SAPS	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

20. Structured On-the-Job Training is costly in terms of time and money.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

21. Trainees forget easily what they have learnt during Structured On-the-Job Training	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

22. Structured On-the-Job Training is practical and relevant to each situation	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

23. Structured On-the-Job Training leads to unproductivity because the trainee and the trainer stop doing their jobs.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

24. Members are motivated to learn when Structured On-the-Job Training is used	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

25. Structured On-the-Job Training should mainly be for the unskilled members in the SAPS.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

26. Structured On-the-Job Training leads to improved Service delivery at the station.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

SECTION 5: ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

27. Confidence and trust is generally shown by management towards their subordinates	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please tell us why you feel this way?					

28. People feel free to talk to management about problems in their jobs.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

29. Subordinate's ideas are encouraged and used constructively by management.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

30. Fear threats and punishment I mainly used by management to get subordinates to do their work.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

31. In our station, encouragement and material rewards are used to get members to work well.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

32. All members feel a sense of responsibility here for achieving organisational goals.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

33. A strong sense of co-operative teamwork exists in this station.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

34. There is poor upward communication in this station	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

SECTION 5: ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE (continued)

35. Sub-ordinates usually accept communications from management trustingly.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					
36. Management is generally unaware of the problems faced by sub-ordinates.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					
37. Decisions at this station are mostly made at the top.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					
38. Subordinates are much involved in decisions concerning their work	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					
39. The way decisions are made here decreases member's motivation.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					
40. In general, organisational goals and objectives are established by participation between management and subordinates	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					
41. Resistance to organisational policies from certain elements of the workforce is common in this station.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

SECTION 5: ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE (continued)

42. Responsibility is widely delegated among members in this station.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					
43. Formal control of management is undermined by people without formal authority.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					
44. Budget setting, performance appraisal and other methods of control are generally used for policing and punishment rather than guidance and reward in this situation.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Please state why you feel this way?					

Thank you for your time. The information you provided will improve the approach used in Training in our organisation.

SCORING LEGEND

1	2	3	4	5	Q11	OFFJT
1	2	3	4	5	Q12	
1	2	3	4	5	Q13	
5	4	3	2	1	Q14	
5	4	3	2	1	Q15	
1	2	3	4	5	Q16	
5	4	3	2	1	Q17	
5	4	3	2	1	Q18	
1	2	3	4	5	Q19	SOJT
1	2	3	4	5	Q20	
1	2	3	4	5	Q21	
1	2	3	4	5	Q22	
5	4	3	2	1	Q23	
1	2	3	4	5	Q24	
5	4	3	2	1	Q25	
1	2	3	4	5	Q26	
1	2	3	4	5	Q27	LEADERSHIP
1	2	3	4	5	Q30	
5	4	3	2	1	Q36	
5	4	3	2	1	Q42	
5	4	3	2	1	Q43	
5	4	3	2	1	Q44	
1	2	3	4	5	Q29	DECMKNG
5	4	3	2	1	Q37	
1	2	3	4	5	Q38	
1	2	3	4	5	Q31	GOALSTNG
1	2	3	4	5	Q32	
1	2	3	4	5	Q40	
5	4	3	2	1	Q39	MOTVTN
5	4	3	2	1	Q41	
1	2	3	4	5	Q33	
5	4	3	2	1	Q34	COMMTN
1	2	3	4	5	Q35	
1	2	3	4	5	Q28	

SAPS Basic Training Curriculum: Tactical Policing Training

	BASIC TRAINING CURRICULUM TACTICAL POLICING TRAINING		PLACE
PHASE 2	**COURSES**	**PASS MARK (%)**	
Module 15	Fire Arms (Theory and Practice)		Maleoskop College
	Written	50	
	Practical Shooting		
	Pistol	*70*	
	Rifle- (R5)	*50*	
	Shotgun	*100*	
	Safe Handling of Fire Arms	100	
Module 16	Survival during Policing	50	
Module 17	Tactical Policing (Prescribed Procedure)	50	
Module 18	Managing Life-threatening Situations	50	

: SAPS Basic Training Curriculum: Field Training

	BASIC TRAINING CURRICULUM FIELD TRAINING	PLACE
PHASE 3	**COURSES**	
Module 19	Introduction and Orientation Community Service Centre (CSC) and Related Duties	**Police Station**
Module 20	Preliminary Crime Investigation – Attendance to Complaints Patrols, Reaction Unit Duties Investigations and Related Duties	

Adapted from a letter 36/1/4(312/2001)(K) from the Training Division to the Chairperson of the Portfolio Committee for Safety and Security.

SAPS Basic Training Curriculum: Theoretical Training

	BASIC TRAINING CURRICULUM THEORETICAL TRAINING		PLACE
PHASE 1	**COURSES**	**PASS MARK (%)**	
Module 1	Professional Service by Police Official	50	**SAPS Pretoria College & Oudtshoorn**
Module 2	Communication (Verbal & Written)	80	
Module 3	Preventive Policing	50	
Module 4	Reactive Policing	60	
Module 5	Handling of Crime Scenes, Evidence and Victims	60 (Arrest, rights of suspects, use of force = 80)	
Module 6	Common Law and Statutory Crimes	70	
Module 7	Road Traffic Act, Vehicle Collisions and Related Matters	50	
Module 8	Detention and Related Matters	60	
Module 9	Law of Evidence and Related Matters	50	
Module 10	Disability of Police Officials (Physical & Mental)	50	
Module 11	Computer Training	Not Applicable	
Module 12	Weaponry Skills	Not Applicable	
Module 13	Group Activities & Drill	Not Applicable	
Module 14	Physical Education: Fitness, Self-defence, Patrol Operations	Not Applicable	

ANNEXURE C

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS   SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Privaatsak/Private Bag X57 Braamfontein, 2017

Verwysing Reference	25/7/7/1 (535)	
Navrae Enquiries	DEPT.PROV.COMM. V/D. WALT	
Telefoon Telephone	011	407-0132
Faksnommer Fax number	011	407-0133

PROVINSIALE KOMMISSARIS
PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER

GAUTENG

Dir Manana

23 NOVEMBER 2001

The Divisional Commissioner   *Attention: Divisional Commissioner Ferreira*
Training
South African Police Service
Private Bag x 94
PRETORIA 0001

RESEARCH STUDY ON TRAINING METHODS IN THE S.A. POLICE SERVICE:
Your 11/1/1 dated 2001-11-21 refers

1.   *By direction of Provincial Commissioner P. Naidoo I wish to inform you that there is no objection against the academic research study in the Pretoria Area by a member of your Division.*

2.   *The Area Commissioner of Pretoria will be requested to render the necessary assistance in this regard.*

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS
AFDELING: OPLEIDING
Div Com 2001-11-162
2001 -11- 2 6
DIVISION: TRAINING
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER
f/ PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: GAUTENG
B. VAN DER WALT