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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABREVIATIONS

ABA : American Bar Association
AFP : Australian Federal Police
ANZPAA : Australian New Zealand Police Advisory Agency
CCPC : China Criminal Police College
CJS : Criminal Justice System
CPU : Central; Police University
GDS : General Directorate of Security
HRD : Human Resource Development
IPCC : Independent Police Complaints Commission
IPID : Independent Police Investigative Directorate
IPLDP : Initial Police Learning and Development Programme
ISS : Institute for Security Studies
MoU : Memorandum of Understanding
NMMU : Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
NPC : National Planning Commission
NSW : New South Wales
NYPD : New York Police Department
PERF : Police Executive Research Forum
PPB : Portland Police Bureau
PRC : People's Republic of China
SAPS : South African Police Service
SSSBC : Safety and Security Sectoral Bargaining Council
TNP : Turkish National Police
TNPA : Turkish National Police Academy
TPC : Taiwan Police College
UK : United Kingdom
UNISA : University of South Africa
UP : University of Pretoria
USA : United States of America
USCCR : United States Commission on Civil Rights

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CHAPTER 1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Members of the South African Police Service (SAPS) perform their duties in an occupational environment that is characterised by the need to comply with constitutional and other legislative obligations in the execution of their duties. SAPS members are also expected to understand the social, cultural, historical and political realities under which they perform their duties. They are further looked upon to duly exercise the discretionary powers which are bestowed upon them in a manner that inspires public confidence in and reinforces the legitimacy of the institution they represent. Given the complex nature of policing as well as the potential conflicts and demands inherent in police work, police officials may find themselves unable to cope with the unrelenting pressure that is exerted upon them by the occupational environment in which they operate. Some of these police officials may opt to pursue postgraduate studies for various reasons, including the hope that the attainment of such qualifications would equip them with the knowledge and skills essential for coping with the occupational environment, or for the purpose of appropriate placement within the organisation.

It is against this background that this study explored the relevance of an academic doctorate degree in the occupational environment, as personally experienced by serving and former members of the SAPS who held such degrees.

1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The first step of a research process is to formulate a theoretical research problem (Bernard, 2013: 62). A researcher chooses a research problem based on what he or she has perceived (Black, 1993: 5). The researcher's interest in the research problem may therefore arise, for instance, from a personal experience or interaction with others, or even through the media (Hesser-Biberg & Leavy, 2011: 40-41; Thomas, 2013: 6). According to Bouma and Ling (2004: 9), a research problem must be focused and narrow, thereby explicitly identifying the phenomenon to be studied. From the writings of the abovementioned authors, the researcher formulated the research problem described below.

The value of tertiary or higher education to policing has been the focus of numerous research studies and commissions of enquiry in different parts of the world (Decker & Huckabee, 2002; Jones, Jones & Prenzler, 2005; Lee & Punch, 2004; Scaramella, Cox & McCamey, 2011).

Commissions of enquiry such as the Wickersham and the President's Commissions in the United States of America (USA), as well as the Fitzgerald Commission in Australia, have all recommended that the entry-level educational requirement for prospective police officials be raised to a college degree in order to improve professionalism (Jones et al., 2005: 53; Paynich, 2009: 5; Roberg & Bonn, 2004: 471). The Fitzgerald Commission further found a correlation between ineffective policing and inadequate education (Jones et al., 2005: 53). The Royal Commission on the Police in Britain led to the establishment of a partnership between the police and higher education institutions in the development of educational programmes (Stanislas, 2014: 63). The view that tertiary education is essential to police officials and police organisations has received increased support over the past decades, despite reservations expressed by "some researchers and police practitioners" (Jones et al., 2005: 51; Palombo, 1995: 16; Trofymowych, 2008).

The literature on the value of higher education is contradictory on whether the attainment of such qualifications leads to an improvement in performance (Cordner, 2014; Hoover, in Decker & Hubackee, 2002; Jones et al., 2005; Kakar, 1998: 634). According to Jones et al. (2005: 50) as well as Cox and Moore (in Scaramella et al., 2011: 87), the advocates of police professionalism are of the view that tertiary education improves, among others, the management, negotiation and problem-solving skills of police officials. This viewpoint is shared by researchers such as Miller and Fry, as well as Tyre and Braunstein (in Roberg & Bonn, 2004: 474), Trofymowych (2008: 420), Palombo (1995: 215) and Paynich (2009: 10), who maintain that police officials who have received a college education display more professionalism in their attitude and behave more ethically, as well as being less authoritative than police officials without higher education. In her study conducted in Massachusetts, USA, Paynich (2009: 11) refers to these attributes as "behavioural measures".

Further benefits associated with tertiary education among police officials are high self-esteem, fewer complaints against the police, improved decision-making, and improved appreciation of the role and functions of the police (Carter & Sapp, in Sherwood, 2000: 210; Dappeler, Sapp & Carter, in Decker & Huckabee, 2002: 793; Manis, Archbold & Hassell, 2008: 516; Scaramella et al., 2011: 95; Sterling, in Carter, Sapp & Stephens, 1989: 10). Rydberg and Terrill (2010: 92) as well as Kakar (1998: 639) found that college education "significantly" reduced the "likelihood" of the use of force in police encounters with members of the community. According to Roberg and Bonn (2004), Kakar (1998: 633), Sherwood (2000: 210)

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and Palombo (1995: 41), higher education is associated with characteristics such as the ability to relate to the social, political and historical realities of everyday life. Palmiotto (1999: 73) and Stanislas (2014: 60) regard higher education as critical for shaping police officers' appreciation of the socioeconomic and cultural diversity of their clientele. According to Trojanowicz and Nicholson (in Balci, 2011: 300), as well as Sherwood (2000: 196), police officials with tertiary education prefer autonomy and jobs that are more challenging. Goldstein (in Kakar, 1998: 635) maintains that the two variables with the most influence on the success or failure of police officials are the level of education and the level of training. Jaschke (2010: 302) and Scaramella et al. (2011: 94) are of the opinion that policing has become more complex, with the resultant need to move away from the traditional experience-based training and education to a policing style that relies on science and research. The evolving nature of policing requires police officers with a broader knowledge of the policing needs of citizens, not just physical ability and common sense (Kakar, 1998: 634; Task Force Report, in Dantzker, 2003: 297-298).

However, political heads are opposed to the academically inclined manner of policing out of fear of diminished control over policing (Jaschke, 2010: 308). There are also researchers who are critical of the value of tertiary education to police officials and to policing (Carlan, 2007: 609; Smith, in Palombo, 1995: 11). Niederhoffer (in Palombo, 1995: 11) maintains that critics of higher education argue that hiring college graduates is an expensive luxury which does not translate into an efficient general performance, and that junior police officers with higher qualifications are cynical of efforts to professionalise police agencies. It is argued that college education, and particularly criminal justice education, has failed to adequately prepare students for the real world of policing (Carlan, 2007: 609; Smith, in Palombo, 1995: 16).

Some managers and supervisors in police agencies regard higher education as irrelevant to policing (Buracker, in Carlan, 2007: 609; Palombo, 1995: 39; Worden, in Chappell, 2014: 276). The American Bar Association (ABA, in Palombo, 1995: 39) reports that some police managers even go to the extent of harassing and restraining police officers who make efforts to apply their acquired skills in their dealings with the community. According to Hawley (1998: 47) and Breci (in Bromley, 1999: 80), police officers view their agencies as unwilling to support their efforts to attain higher qualifications. O'Rourke (in Carter et al., 1989: 18) is of the viewpoint that it is not feasible to rely on universities to supply recruits, and that college-educated graduates get bored and frustrated by irregular working hours, routine work, low

salaries, and the autocratic manner in which the police agencies are managed. Furthermore, O'Rourke (in Carter et al., 1989: 19) is concerned that police officers with higher qualifications will expect to be treated in a special manner and that they "cause animosity within the ranks".

According to Owen and Wagner (in Paterson, 2011: 289), criminal justice graduates in the USA were found to be more authoritarian than other graduates. Furthermore, Worden (in Chappell, 2014: 276) regards higher education as having little impact or a negative impact on policing. Police officers with higher degrees were found to resist authority and to be more prone to resign from their positions within a few years of their employment compared to their colleagues with no college education (Wilson, in Bromley, 1999: 78).

According to Worden (in Decker & Huckabee, 2002: 793), there are no significant differences between the attitudes of police officers who graduated from college before joining the police and police officers who are less educated. Some researchers, such as Lewis and Livermor (in Bromley, 1999: 78), have also questioned the value of higher education and the relevance of the courses offered. Those opposed to higher education in policing regard higher education institutions as being more interested in generating income than improving the standard of education (Flagran, in Paterson, 2011: 288). The mere possession of a degree does not necessarily mean that the holder is educated, because curricula differ (Decker & Huckabee, 2002: 793). White and Heslop (2012: 343) describe the lack of appreciation for higher education when they maintain that, unlike teachers and nurses, police officers are appointed as constables even after failing or not completing a foundation degree in art.

Higher education is associated with negative attitudes such as job dissatisfaction and a high turnover of personnel. Police officials who have tertiary qualifications were found to be three times more likely to resign from the police agencies than their colleagues without a higher qualification, as they were regarded as having more job opportunities (Weirman, in Jones et al., 2005: 52). Higher education tends to bring high expectations on employees that, if not met, could lead to frustration and dissatisfaction, which may result in turnover (Balci, 2011: 302; Kakar, 1998: 634). However, studies of the Queensland Police Service in Australia, the Turkish National Police (TNP) in Turkey and the Minnesota Police Department in the USA showed that police officers with degrees were generally satisfied with their salaries as opposed to their colleagues who did not possess degrees (Balci, 2011; Hilal & Erickson, 2010: 19; Jones et al., 2005: 59).

According to Jones et al. (2005: 50) as well as Hunt and McCadden (in Tankebe, 2010: 76), pursuing tertiary education is sometimes regarded as a sign of disloyalty, while police officers who are already graduates are seen as “lacking long-term commitment” to the police agencies. Bragg (in Jones et al., 2005: 52) found that “low job satisfaction” on the part of college-educated police officers can have a significantly negative impact on their commitment. Vodicka (in Decker & Huckabee, 2002: 792) warns that a lack of challenge may result in police officers being frustrated and thus resigning in high numbers. Police officers in India who had tertiary education were found to be rigid in their attitude, not interested in enforcing the rights of the clientele and not confining themselves within the legal limits (Paterson, 2011: 291). From the above discussion, it can be deduced that the attainment of or pursuance of higher education is perceived as undesirable to policing.

In the light of recommendations and research outcomes advocating the introduction of a four-year college degree as minimum educational requirement for people aspiring to become police officers, police agencies went about the implementation of the said recommendation inconsistently (Palmiotto, 1999: 73). According to Green and Woolston (2014: 43) the New South Wales (NSW) Police Force in Australia embraced the idea of raising the academic qualifications of its recruits in partnership with the Charles Sturt University, by offering a diploma in policing practice. The diploma in policing is a prerequisite for elevation to the rank of Senior Constable (Green & Woolston, 2014: 43). An average of 37 percent of police agencies in the USA recruit college graduates (Langworthy, Hughes & Sanders, in Dantzker, 2003: 283). This is supported by Hoover (2005: 14), who found that an increasing number of police agencies in the USA were slowly implementing the requirement for a bachelor’s degree to become a minimum educational prerequisite for employment in the police. Dallas and Austin Police Departments in Texas, USA, even approach higher education institutions outside of their jurisdictions to recruit graduates (Dantzker, 2003: 283).

Hanak and Hofinger as well as Brodeur (in Paterson, 2011: 290) note that police agencies in countries such as the Czech Republic, Greece, France and Italy have already achieved the status of universities. The German Police University in Germany offers a master’s degree for senior police officers and 17 other police academies offer bachelor’s degrees for middle managers (Jaschke, 2010: 305). In Hungary, higher education, which is only offered by the National University of Public Service, is a requirement for becoming a Commissioned Officer (Sandor, 2014: 182-183). The relevant ministries and the National Development and Reform

Commission in China made a proposal to focus on recruiting college graduates into the police (Tingyou, 2014: 203). The Chinese People's Public Security University in China is dedicated to the improvement of higher education in the police (Tingyou, 2014: 203). Canadian police agencies prefer recruits to have any degree or diploma, but do not prescribe either as a pre-employment requirement (Wyatt & Bell, 2014: 74).

According to a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) entered into between the University of South Africa (UNISA) and the SAPS, UNISA undertakes to assist the SAPS Academy to obtain accreditation as a provider of higher education (SAPS & University of South Africa, 2013: 7). In a media statement dated 30 January 2014 (SAPS, 2014: 1), the SAPS alluded to the fact that it had entered into a partnership with UNISA, whereby the first group of learners were scheduled to commence their studies towards a Bachelor of Arts in Police Practice degree at the SAPS Academy, Paarl, in the 2014 academic year. The SAPS internal communication dated 25 March 2015 (SAPS, 2015a: 2) further invited qualifying and interested members of the police to apply for admission for studies at the Academy in the second semester of the academic year 2015. According to the said internal communication, only non-commissioned members who met the admission requirements for studying at UNISA were eligible to apply for admission to study at the SAPS Academy, Paarl (SAPS, 2015a). Furthermore, preference was given to police officers who performed operational duties (SAPS, 2015a).

One of the priorities set for the SAPS by the National Planning Commission (NPC) (2011) in relation to police professionalism is the recruitment of competent, highly-trained and skilled police officers, and the establishment of a statutory body which will oversee police compliance with stipulated standards. The SAPS has made noticeable efforts in the professionalisation of the police service in line with the priorities set for it by the NPC. The SAPS entered into an agreement with UNISA in order to improve the educational level of members of the police service. The SAPS Academy, Paarl, strives for the establishment of a police university and offers a Bachelor of Police Science degree to members of the police service (SAPS & University of South Africa, 2013). However, the agreement between UNISA and the SAPS was ended in 2016. Similarly, a partnership was entered into between the SAPS, Belgian Government and University of Pretoria (UP), in terms of which police officers were awarded scholarships to study a public management development programme (SAPS, Belgian Technical Cooperation & University of Pretoria, 2014: 1). Another endeavour to professionalise the SAPS through education is evident in the signing of a scholarship agreement

by the Belgian Government and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU), which afforded members of the SAPS an opportunity to study an "Improve Strategic Management Service Delivery Course" at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (Belgian Technical Cooperation & Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, 2012: 1).

The SAPS has a code of ethics, which requires police officials to execute their duties with integrity, to obey the law and to respect the diverse nature of the citizens of the country (SAPS, 2015b). The code of ethics also places an obligation on members of the SAPS to provide excellent service that meets with the public approval of their clientele (SAPS, 2015b: 1). The existence of a code of ethics in the SAPS is an indication of the preparedness of the SAPS to comply with the recommendation made by the NPC. From the brief discussion above, it can be deduced that the SAPS is making efforts to professionalise the police service.

A survey conducted in Minnesota, USA, in 2008 revealed that fewer officers were in favour of the introduction of a four-year degree as a minimum prerequisite for obtaining a licence required to practise as a police officer (Hilal & Erickson, 2010: 19). However, more officers were of the view that a bachelor's degree or higher qualification should be a requirement for supervisors (Hilal & Erickson, 2010: 20). Woods (in Palombo, 1995: 39) maintains that the majority of police managers have long been in favour of the introduction of an advanced degree as a requirement for higher-ranking officers and a college degree for recruits. Interestingly, almost 50 percent of Minnesota police officers were found to possess a bachelor's degree or higher and to be more educated than the community which they served (Hilal & Erickson, 2010: 19). The New York Police Department (NYPD) and the Portland Police Bureau (PPB) in the USA have waived the higher education requirement in order to have sufficient applicants and to avoid allegations of discrimination against minority groups (Dantzker, 2003: 299). New Jersey State Police in the USA made efforts to recruit a sufficient number of recruits from minority groups in order to implement the higher education requirement (Dantzker, 2003: 299).

There are disagreements about the type of degree that is most suitable for and beneficial to policing (Hawley, 1998: 46; Scaramella et al., 2011: 82). Bromley (1999: 78) questions the vagueness with which the endorsement of a college degree as a prerequisite for recruitment is approached. Some use terms such as "some college, two years of college or a four-year degree" in reference to the minimum educational prerequisite for enrolment into police agency (Bromley, 1999: 79). Bromley (1999: 79) is of the opinion that, for higher education to be endorsed as a prerequisite for becoming a police officer, concerns relating to the curriculum

should be discussed and agreed upon. According to Carter et al. (1989: 78) as well as Shernock (in Hawley, 1998: 51), most police administrators were found to prefer a degree in liberal arts for “its emphasis on social issues”, despite their recognition of the contribution a criminal justice degree makes in introducing the students to policing. Police officers who possessed a degree in criminal justice were found to believe that it had significantly improved their “understanding of the law and of the criminal justice system”, as well as their administrative, communication and analysis skills (Carlan, 2007: 612).

Hoover (2005: 15) is opposed to the idea of equating the value of a criminal justice degree with a degree in arts in preparing a police officer for his/her policing role. Hawley (1998: 51) found that 56 percent of police officers in Minnesota, USA, studied for degrees related to the Criminal Justice System (CJS), while 32 percent obtained liberal arts degrees and 13 percent opted for degrees in different disciplines. According to Carter et al. (1989: 72), 48,8 per cent of police agencies in the USA indicated their preference for criminal justice qualifications, while about 46,1 percent indicated that they did not have a preference for any degree or subject. A liberal arts degree was found to be particularly suitable for preparing police officers for making ethically sound decisions (Decker & Huckabee, 2002: 792). According to Carlan (2007: 609), the integrity of the criminal justice degree was perceived to have been compromised in favour of acceptance of “the law enforcement community”. However, Farrell and Kosh (in Carlan, 2007: 611) found that criminal justice graduates maintained that the degree was applicable to real-life situations. Roberg (in Paterson, 2011: 288) views that it is the university experience rather than the specific programme or subject which brings out attitudes that are more positive. From the reviewed literature above, it could be deduced that the criminal justice degree is the most favoured qualification among police officers.

The approach to the issue of higher education in South Africa is similar to most countries in the world. Enrolment in the SAPS, as advertised in electronic media, indicates that the minimum academic requirement for enrolment in the SAPS is a Grade 12 certificate or equivalent qualification (SAPS, 2015c). Applicants who have additional qualifications are furthermore required to submit such qualifications when applying for enrolment (SAPS, 2015c).

1.3 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study had the following limitation:

1.3.1 Geographical limitation

This study was limited to serving and former SAPS members in South Africa who held an academic doctorate degree. This study thus excluded serving and former SAPS members who held professional doctorate degrees, such as forensic scientists and psychiatrists. This study included those serving and former SAPS members who were appointed according to the provisions of the South African Police Service Act, 68 of 1995 (South Africa, 1995), as well as administrative and support personnel who were appointed in terms of the Public Service Act, 103 of 1994 (South Africa, 1994). As a result, a first-hand understanding was obtained of the relevance of an academic doctorate degree that these SAPS members and former members attached to such degree in their internal and external occupational environment, such as management, communication, negotiations, problem solving and decision-making.

1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Research studies are conducted in order to achieve specific aims. Black (1993: 5) regards the primary purpose of a research study as expanding knowledge and understanding. The different aims of research are exploration, description, explanation and application (Hesser-Biberg & Leavy, 2011: 10). According to Maxfield and Babbie (2001: 18), exploratory studies are more suitable when studying a phenomenon "about which little is known" or when policy changes are considered. This view is shared by King and Wincup (2008), who state that exploratory studies are the only sensible way of studying little-known situations.

Another general aim of research studies is to provide explanations about things (Maxfield & Babbie, 2001: 19). Explanatory studies are best suited to explain the relationship between things, for example, why some people have a positive view of the police while others do not (Maxfield & Babbie, 2001: 19). The fourth general aim of research has to do with application. According to Maxfield and Babbie (2001: 20), applied research is useful in the formulation of policies because it provides "specific facts and findings".

The aim of this study was to explore the relevance that serving and former SAPS members who held an academic doctorate degree attached to such a degree in the SAPS occupational environment.

The objectives of research serve as a guide to a research study, and are intended to describe what is taking place as opposed to providing an explanation of a particular occurrence (Bouma & Ling, 2004). Research objectives are used to demarcate the focus area of a study, getting rid of aspects that do not form part of the phenomenon to be observed (Bouma & Ling, 2004: 36-37).

This research study sought to achieve the following objectives:

- To explore, identify and describe the relevance of an academic doctorate degree as experienced by serving and former SAPS members in their occupational environment.
- To explore, identify and describe the value that SAPS doctorate graduates add to the SAPS.
- To make recommendations regarding the optimal, efficient and effective utilisation of SAPS doctorate graduates in the occupational environment of the SAPS.

The study aim and objectives stated above served as measures to guide this research study.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTION

A research question can stem from anywhere, whether from curiosity or a problem (Bouma & Ling, 2004: 18; Thomas, 2013: 16). Research questions provide guidance on the manner in which the research study should be conducted (Maxwell, as cited in McCaig, 2010: 34). Withrow (2014: 27) regards research questions as "interrogative" in nature, which means that they are real questions, which need to be answered. Bouma and Ling (2004: 15) maintain that researchable questions should be narrow and of a limited scope, confined in terms of time and environment. According to Thomas (2013: 13), research questions which are either too broad or narrow are nearly "impossible to answer". Furthermore, Bryman (in Lewis, 2003: 48) states that research questions should comply with certain requirements. They should, among others, be clear, unambiguous and researchable (Lewis, 2003: 48). Lastly, research questions in a qualitative research study are formulated to start with words such as "how, why or what" (Hesser-Biberg & Leavy, 2011: 3).

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This study sought to provide an answer to the following research question:

What is the relevance that serving and former SAPS members who hold an academic doctorate degree attach to such a degree in the SAPS occupational environment?

1.6 THE VALUE OF THE STUDY

Maxfield and Babbie (2001: 11) mention that social science can bring about a better understanding of any given phenomenon. The value of this study to the SAPS, UNISA and other academic institutions, and the community is described below.

1.6.1 The value of the research to South African Police Service

This study primarily sought to provide an understanding of the relevance of holding an academic doctorate degree in the occupational environment as explained by doctorate graduates employed by SAPS, as well as doctorate graduates formerly employed by SAPS. This study yielded new information that could lead to an improvement in the efficiency and effectiveness of the SAPS by identifying gaps in job placement of graduates. This study makes recommendations aimed at the placement of personnel according to their knowledge, skills and expertise, in order to improve service delivery and job satisfaction.

1.6.2 The value of the research to University of South Africa and other academic institutions

This study contributes to the body of knowledge relevant to policing through an in-depth and subjective explanation of the relevance of a doctorate degree from the viewpoint of graduates. The research findings provide a basis for academic institutions to identify gaps relating to the extent to which this phenomenon needs to be researched further. The identification of these shortcomings may inform future research considerations, which may lead to improvement in job performance, thereby maximising the provision of service delivery to the clientele. This study furthermore generated new knowledge on the understanding of the relevance of a doctorate degree to police officials in their internal occupational environment, and thus potentially contributes to policy matters relating to the placement of such graduates.

1.6.3 The value of the research to the community

This study yielded data that could be used in decision-making processes relating to job placement of graduates in the SAPS. It is envisaged that a proper understanding of the relevance of a doctorate degree obtained by SAPS members would lead to the maximum utilisation of the knowledge, skills and expertise possessed by the graduates to the benefit of the community in terms of improved service delivery.

1.7 KEY CONCEPTS

The following concepts are fundamental to this study and warrant clarification:

1.7.1 Academic doctorate degree

The Free Dictionary (2015) defines a "doctorate degree" (also called doctor's degree) as the highest academic degree in any field of knowledge as conferred by a university. In the context of this study, a doctorate degree refers to an academic doctorate degree, excluding professional doctorate degrees, in any field of knowledge, obtained by serving and former SAPS members who held an academic doctorate degree while employed by SAPS. An academic doctorate degree is not an inherent requirement for occupation in the SAPS.

1.7.2 Job placement

According to the Dictionary of Business (2015), "job placement" is the placement of individuals in jobs matching their abilities. Personnel offices interview and test applicants to achieve suitable job placements with a good match between management needs and employee qualifications. This concept refers to the appointment of an employee in a particular division or department for the purpose of efficiently executing duties and responsibilities related thereto in line with the resultant job description.

1.7.3 Occupational environment

The Law Dictionary (2015) defines "occupational environment" as the workplace surroundings that encompasses the physical and social environment. For the purpose of this study, the occupational environment is divided into the internal and external occupational environment.

The internal occupational environment refers to "the sum total of all the organisational and administrative processes directed towards the realisation of the delegated institutional goal"

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(Van Heerden, 1982: 105). According to De Beer (1999: 18), the internal police environment refers to internal working matters within the SAPS as an organisation and relations among police officials themselves that are often not visible to the community and individuals who are not employed by the SAPS.

The external police environment relates to the interaction, contact and relationship that the SAPS and police officials have with citizens and the general public, and the service that the police render to individuals and the community (De Beer, 1999: 18).

1.8 THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVIST PHILOSOPHICAL WORLDVIEW

After studying the literature on the philosophical worldview, the researcher identified the social constructivist worldview as the worldview suitable for this study. According to Guba (in Creswell, 2014: 6), a worldview means "a basic set of beliefs that guide action". Social constructivists are of the view that human beings make an effort to understand their social world (Creswell, 2014:8). They attach subjective interpretations to the manner in which they perceive their world (Creswell, 2014:8). Qualitative researchers therefore rely more on the subjective meaning which the participants attach to the phenomenon being studied, hence their use of open-ended types of questions (Creswell, 2014: 8). Social constructivists are thus focused on "the experienced world" in line with realism, which refers to the consciousness with which people understand and interpret the social world in which they live (May, 2011: 13). The social constructivist philosophical worldview is suitable for this study because it aimed at eliciting the subjective views of the participants in relation to the phenomenon being studied.

1.9 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Denicolo and Becker (2012: 127) define research methodology as the theoretical and philosophical case for the choice of research approach, design and techniques, including data analysis techniques as well as data collection tools. O'Reilly and Kiyimba (2015: 3) describe methodology as the particular research approach grounded in a particular school of thought. The researcher followed the research methodology described below.

1.9.1 The qualitative research approach

Brown (2014: 37) describes qualitative research as research methods that deeply study the "experiences, social processes and subcultures". Creswell (1998: 15) defines qualitative

research as “an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of enquiry that explore a social or human problem”. Qualitative research is not based on a single unified theoretical and methodological concept, but rather on a variety of approaches and methods (Flick, 2006: 17). Brown (2014: 38) concurs with both Creswell (1998) and Flick (2014) by defining qualitative research as “methodological traditions and methods with diverse aims, data collection techniques and analysis techniques”. The qualitative research methods collectively recognise the unique situation of every individual and the diverse nature of cultures and subcultures, as well as their effect on individuals (Brown, 2014: 37). Qualitative researchers believe that a person’s experiences, perceptions and interaction with the social world can only be understood through the participant’s account of how he or she perceives the social world (Munhall, in Brown, 2014: 37). In qualitative research, the subjective viewpoints of the participants become the starting point (Flick, 2014: 17).

The social context plays an important role in qualitative research for understanding the social world (Neuman, 1997: 331). Qualitative researchers therefore believe that the same events can be interpreted differently in different social settings (Neuman, 1997: 331). According to Flick (2014: 16), qualitative researchers appreciate these different perspectives of the participants and the diverse nature of their social world. Brown (2014: 42) contends that qualitative studies produce findings that are sometimes “useful in their own right” and do not require further studies to ascertain their worth. Qualitative research accommodates the use of a variety of approaches and methods and it regards the subjective viewpoints of the participants as points of departure (Brinkmann, 2013: 23; Flick, 2014: 17).

Qualitative research seeks to discover new things to be learnt about a particular phenomenon, thereby providing an understanding of the phenomenon from the viewpoints of the subjects (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994: 43). Qualitative research data is collected in a natural environment in order to capture the context in which the participants perceive the phenomenon being studied (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994: 45). Therefore, qualitative research emphasises the importance of the human factor as the instrument of data collection and data interpretation, although other formalised instruments such as questionnaires may be used (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994: 46). Brinkmann (2013: 53) defines induction as “the process of recording a number of individual instances in order to say something general about a given class of instances”.

A qualitative research approach was considered appropriate for this study since it provided the researcher with insight into the lived world of participants by obtaining rich descriptions of how these participants experience the relevance of holding an academic doctorate degree in their occupational environment.

1.9.2 Phenomenological design of inquiry

Phenomenological research is a design of inquiry in which the researcher describes the lived experiences of individuals about a phenomenon as described by participants. This description culminates in the essence of the experiences for several individuals who have all experienced the phenomenon (Creswell, 2014: 14). O'Reilly and Kiyimba (2015: 14) similarly explain phenomenology as a way of thinking that emphasises the need for researchers to achieve an understanding of their participants' worlds from the participants' point of view and the ways in which those participants make sense of the world around them. The researcher was interested in the lived experiences of how serving and former SAPS members who held an academic doctorate degree valued the attainment of such degree in their occupational environment. As a result, the researcher followed a phenomenological research design in this study.

In support of Creswell (2014) as well as O'Reilly and Kiyimba (2015), Gray (2014: 24) is of the view that phenomenology holds that any attempt to understand social reality has to be grounded in people's experiences of that social reality. Hence, phenomenology insists that one must lay aside one's prevailing understanding of phenomena and revisit one's immediate experience of them in order that new meanings may emerge. Gray (2014: 24) therefore suggests that current understandings have to be "bracketed" to the best of the researcher's ability to allow phenomena to "speak for themselves", unadulterated by one's preconceptions. The result will be new meaning, fuller meaning or renewed meaning. Moustakas (as cited in Creswell, 2013: 80) similarly recommends that investigators set aside their experiences as much as possible to gain a fresh perspective towards the phenomenon under examination.

The researcher is a serving member of the SAPS, and bracketed any experience of the phenomenon and possible preconceived understanding that participants could ascribe to the relevance of a doctorate degree to them in their occupational environment. The researcher thus totally focused on participants' worlds from their point of view and the ways in which those participants made sense of the world around them.

1.10 DATA COLLECTION

Data in a qualitative study is contained in words and deeds (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). There are three main categories of techniques that could be applied in the gathering of data when undertaking a qualitative research study, namely, observations, interviews and document analysis (Layder, 1993: 116; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994:46). Interviews involve asking questions in order to elicit information relating to the "experiences, feelings and opinions" of participants in order to understand their "behaviour and motivations" (Corbetta, 2003: 234).

In this study, the researcher utilised interviews as primary data gathering technique. Interviews were chosen, firstly, because they gave the researcher the opportunity to obtain as much information from the participants as possible and secondly, because they afforded the participants the freedom to describe the phenomenon being studied in their own words (Kalof, Dan & Dietz, 2008: 129). The researcher used unstructured in-depth phenomenological interviews to interview the participants. The interviews were recorded using an audio recorder.

1.10.1 Phenomenological interviews

Interviews are conducted in order to generate knowledge by giving the interviewee an opportunity to describe his or her experience of the phenomenon (Brinkmann, 2013: 125). Therefore, qualitative interviews seek to understand how participants interpret the meaning of their life world (Brinkmann, 2013: 25). The researcher conducted phenomenological interviews (unstructured in-depth interviews) to capture the lived experiences of participants. Gray (2014: 30) argues that phenomenology is a theoretical perspective that uses relatively unstructured methods of data collection. According to Gray (2014), one of the advantages of phenomenology is that, because of its emphasis on the inductive collection of large amounts of data, it is more likely to pick up factors that were not part of the original research focus. Phenomenological research is thus about producing "thick descriptions" of people's experiences and perspectives within their natural settings.

Liamputtong (2013: 28) recommends that, when research is based on a phenomenological framework, the method of data collection should be in-depth interviewing, since this will allow participants to relate their lived experiences in detail. Kumar (2011: 145) explains that the strength of unstructured interviews is the almost complete freedom they provide in terms of contents and structure. One has complete freedom in terms of the wording used and the way in which questions are explained to respondents. During unstructured interviews, one may

formulate questions and raise issues spontaneously, depending on what occurs in the context of the discussion.

Marshall and Rossman (2011: 148) are of the view that phenomenological interviewing is a specific type of in-depth interviewing grounded in the philosophical tradition of phenomenology, which is the study of lived experiences and the ways one understands those experiences. The purpose of this type of interviewing is to describe the meaning of a concept or phenomenon shared by several individuals. Marshall and Rossman (2011) view that the primary advantage of phenomenological interviewing is that it permits an explicit focus on the personal experience of participants. It focuses on the deep, lived meanings that events have for individuals. O'Leary (2014: 139) is of the opinion that the key outcome of phenomenological studies is rich phenomenological descriptions, with the goal to produce descriptions full of lush imagery to allow others to share in how a particular phenomenon is experienced. The goal of the interviews, most often conducted as a "conversation", is to draw out rich descriptions of lived experiences. In other words, the researcher wants respondents to tell what a phenomenon feels like, what it reminds them of, and how they would describe it.

The unstructured in-depth interviews thus explored and described the relevance that SAPS members (and former SAPS members) denoted to holding an academic doctorate degree in their internal occupational environment.

However, critics of qualitative interviewing argue that qualitative interviews are subjective, thereby lacking in "objective knowledge" and that they are devoid of reliability as a scientific method because of their reliance on human judgement (Brinkmann, 2013: 142). In response to this criticism, Brinkmann (2013: 142) maintains that interviews are in a unique position to capture aspects such as the description of previous experiences and a personal understanding of the phenomenon. Brinkmann (2013: 143) argues further that, if it is relevant, a high level of reliability can be achieved by assigning independent coders to work on the same material. A further concern raised against qualitative interviews is the fact that they cannot be generalised because they are focused on a limited number of cases (Brinkmann, 2013: 144). According to Brinkmann (2013: 144), generalisation is mainly dependent on a theoretical knowledge of the subject being studied. Therefore, the envisaged outcome is an in-depth understanding as approached from the viewpoint of the subjects (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994: 44). The researcher recorded the interviews electronically for transcription purposes.

1.11 POPULATION AND SAMPLING STRATEGY

According to Ritchie, Lewis, Elam, Tennant and Rahim (in Ritchie, Lewis, McNaughton & Ormston, 2014: 120), two decisions have to be made early on that are important to the sample design. First, who or what is the study population from which the sample will be drawn? Second, what is the appropriate information source, or sample frame, from which they are to be selected? A population is the total membership of a defined class of people, objects or events (O'Leary, 2014: 182). O'Leary (2014) explains that the ideal in population research is to be able to ask everyone – in other words, to gather data from every element within a population. However, with the exception of a few studies, the goal of asking everyone is just not practical.

Due to the fragmented nature of SAPS members who hold academic doctorate degrees, as well as the limited number of such members in the organisation, the researcher included SAPS members across all divisions in South Africa who held an academic doctorate degree, as well as former SAPS members who held doctorate degrees while they were employed in SAPS, as the target population. The researcher obtained a list of names from SAPS containing the details of SAPS members nationally who held a doctorate degree, including professional doctorate degrees. However, this list was outdated and did not include the latest information of those members who held an academic doctorate degree suitable for use in this study. As a result, the researcher made use of both purposive and snowball sampling. Consequently, the lived experiences of participants currently serving in the SAPS as well as those participants previously employed by the SAPS who held an academic doctorate degree were obtained.

Phenomenological research has a tendency to involve purposively selected individuals who tend to share common experiences so that detailed patterns of meaning and relationship can be identified (Moustakas, in Gray, 2014: 208). O'Leary (2014: 139) states that the process of generating phenomenological descriptions generally involves sourcing people who have experienced a particular phenomenon and conducting one or more interviews with each participant. According to O'Leary, the number of respondents can vary, but given that there is likely to be more than one way to experience any particular phenomenon, one generally needs to conduct a sufficient number of interviews to draw out variation. Gray (2014: 25) suggests between five and 15 participants are sufficient in phenomenological research. In agreement with Gray (2014), O'Leary and Kumar, Liamputtong (2013: 28) agrees that the phenomenological framework does not require a large number of participants, but they must have had the experience to tell – they must be able to articulate what they have lived through,

or describe their embodied experiences. Because of the limited number of serving and former SAPS members who hold academic doctorate degrees, 19 participants were interviewed.

Marshall and Rossman (2011: 111) explain snowball sampling as the identification of cases of interest from people who know others with relevant information. The researcher obtained particulars of those participants unknown to the researcher from participants and others.

The researcher conducted interviews up to the point when additional interviews no longer added new perspectives. Kumar (2011: 213) points to the fact that, in qualitative research, data is usually collected to a point where one is getting no new information or it is negligible – the data saturation point. This stage determines the sample size.

1.12 DATA ANALYSIS

Liamputtong (2013: 28) argues that, when following a phenomenological framework, the data should be analysed thematically since the researcher needs to examine important themes that may emerge from the data. Phenomenology does not dictate that researchers should have preconceived themes before data collection. The researcher followed a phenomenological data analysis process in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the intricacies of the phenomenon as experienced by the participants.

Usher and Jackson (in Mills & Burks, 2014: 190) explain that the first step of phenomenological data analysis is usually the process of reading and rereading. In this way, the experiences of the participant become the focus for the researcher. Following the reading process, the researcher begins an initial note-taking process; a detailed and time-consuming task where the researcher notes everything of interest while maintaining an open mind. The next process involves isolation of meaning units that are then selected as emergent themes considered to be central to the experience. Here, the researcher attempts to reduce the detail while maintaining the complexity in terms of relationships, connections, patterns and notes. Finally, the researcher identifies the explicative themes and sub-themes, or those that appear to have referential characteristics, while bracketing his or her own thoughts and biases about the topic. Following the reductive and intuiting processes comes the phase of description – identifying the essential structure of the experience. Both Grbich and Liamputtong (in Mills & Burks, 2014: 190) emphasise that the complexity and intricacies of the phenomenon need to be captured and reported in ways which others can engage with and understand.

Following the guidelines of Liamputtong (2013) as well as those of Usher and Jackson above, the researcher followed the phenomenological data analysis process of reading and rereading, followed by note-taking that ultimately resulted in developing emergent themes and sub-themes central to participants' experiences. In addition, the researcher made use of an independent coder to validate the researcher's identification of the themes and sub-themes, after which a consensus discussion was held. As a result, the trustworthiness of this study was enhanced.

1.13 STRATEGIES TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

Lincoln and Guba (in Liamputtong, 2013: 25) propose criteria that qualitative researchers can use to ensure the rigour or trustworthiness of their research. Lincoln and Guba have developed four innovative and challenging criteria as a translation of the more traditional terms associated with quantitative research: internal validity to *credibility*, external validity to *transferability*, reliability to *dependability* and objectivity to *confirmability*.

1.13.1 Credibility

According to Chilisa (in Liamputtong, 2013: 25), credibility is comparable to internal validity. Liamputtong argues that a term that is linked to credibility is authenticity, and both are used to determine "whether the research is genuine, reliable, or authorative". In other words, credibility and authenticity testify that the research findings can be trusted. Credibility is achieved when the multiple realities held by the participants are represented as accurately and adequately as possible. According to Sandelowski as well as Johnson and Waterfield (in Liamputtong, 2013: 25), the representation is accurate and adequate when the participants are immediately able to recognise the description and interpretation made by the researcher. Credibility of qualitative research can be checked in several ways, including prolonged engagement and fieldwork, interpretation and evidence, triangulation, member checking, and peer review.

1.13.1.1 Prolonged engagement and fieldwork

Prolonged engagement and fieldwork will allow a trusting relationship to develop between the researcher and participants (Liamputtong, 2013: 28). The researcher spent sufficient time in the field through conducting the unstructured in-depth interviews with participants. This enabled the researcher to experience the environment and lived experiences of participants,

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which in turn provided an opportunity to gain an improved understanding of the participants' environment and lived experiences.

1.13.1.2 Interpretation and evidence

According to Liamputtong (2013: 29), in presenting the findings, qualitative researchers need to provide some evidence to support their interpretation. Often, verbatim quotations of the participants provided after discussion of the findings support the researcher's interpretation. According to Baxter and Eyles (in Liamputtong, 2013: 29), verbatim quotations are essential "for revealing how meanings are expressed in the respondents' own words rather than the words of the researcher". However, Carpenter and Suto (in Liamputtong, 2013: 29) emphasise that the readers are "required to judge whether the verbatim quotations provided inform and support the researchers' interpretations and represent the thematic findings".

In order to enhance the credibility of the study, the researcher included verbatim quotations of the participants in the discussion of the findings. These verbatim quotations position the readers to judge whether the researcher's interpretation of the findings is credible.

1.13.1.3 Triangulation

Liamputtong (2013: 30) is of the opinion that the most powerful means for strengthening credibility in qualitative research is triangulation. Through triangulation (the combining of multiple sources), the research contains richness, depth, breadth, complexity and rigour (Denzin & Lincoln, in Liamputtong, 2013: 30). Seale (in Liamputtong, 2013: 30) writes that, if triangulation is used well, it "can enhance the credibility of a research account by providing an additional way of generating evidence in support of key claims".

The researcher consulted and included a comprehensive review of the literature by combining multiple sources. This extensive reference to sources enhanced the richness and rigour of the study.

1.13.1.4 Member checking

Lincoln and Guba (in Liamputtong, 2013: 32) view member checking as "the single most crucial technique for establishing credibility". Carpenter and Suto (in Liamputtong, 2013: 32) explain member checking as "participant validation", a process during which the researcher seeks clarification from the research participants. The "collected data is 'played back' to the

participant to check for perceived accuracy and reactions", and this occurs throughout the enquiry.

Participants were invited to review the transcripts generated from the interviews and were given the opportunity to delete information that they did not wish the researcher to include in the analysis. Participants were also given the opportunity to provide further comments that would make an additional contribution or strengthen accuracy. During the analysis stage, the participants were invited to review preliminary themes and sub-themes that the researcher had developed prior to final implementation.

1.13.1.5 Peer review

This strategy is also referred to as "peer or expert checking" (Liamputtong, 2013: 33). The researcher used the services of an experienced qualitative co-coder to review the transcripts and validate or question the findings and links between the data, categories and emerging themes at which the researcher had arrived.

1.13.2 Transferability

Holloway and Wheeler (in Liamputtong, 2013: 29) view a rich or thick description as crucial in the presentation of qualitative research. When the researcher writes in detail about the research settings, the participants, and the methods and processes of undertaking his or her research, readers are enabled to make decisions about transferability. Johnson and Waterfield (in Liamputtong, 2013: 29) are of the opinion that, with rich description, readers can "gauge both the reliability of the data and the extent to which findings can be generalised to other settings".

The researcher provided a detailed description of the sampling selection and the methods that were applied to conduct the research. These detailed descriptions allowed readers to measure the reliability of the study and the degree to which the findings can be generalised.

1.13.3 Dependability

According to Chilisa (in Liamputtong, 2013: 26), dependability can be compared to reliability in quantitative research. Carpenter and Suto (in Liamputtong, 2013: 26) describe dependability as asking whether the research findings "fit" the data from which they have been derived. Researchers have the responsibility of ensuring that "the process of research is logical,

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traceable and clearly documented" (Tobin & Begley, in Liamputtong, 2013: 26). Chilisa (in Liamputtong, 2013: 26) is of the opinion that dependability can be achieved by providing rich descriptions of methods used, triangulation of methods and peer review. The researcher abided by these strategies as discussed in section 1.13.1.

1.13.4 Confirmability

Confirmability, according to Lincoln and Guba (in Liamputtong, 2013: 26), is seen as "the degree to which findings are determined by the respondents and conditions of the inquiry and not by the biases, motivations, interests or perspectives of the inquirer". It can be enhanced by reflexivity, triangulation (as described in section 1.13.1) and auditing (Chilisa, in Liamputtong, 2013: 27). Lincoln and Guba (in Liamputtong, 2013: 34) propose an audit trail as one of the important strategies for establishing the confirmability of findings in qualitative research. An audit trail requires researchers to provide detailed clarification of their reasons for theoretical, methodological and analytical choices that will allow readers to see how such decisions were made and the reasons for making them. The researcher kept a thorough record of the research process as described in the methodological section of Chapter 1. Transcribed interviews were also stored for record purposes.

1.14 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF THE STUDY

Researchers should be mindful of ethical considerations when conducting a research study. Ethical decisions concern themselves with moral issues relating to what may be considered right or wrong (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008: 52-53; May, 2011: 61). Ethics in research serves the interests of the research project, its funders, employees and participants. It is dependent upon the integrity of the researcher, and unethical conduct is highly opposed by the research community (Neuman, 1997: 443-444). Ethical principles relate to, but are not limited to, obtaining informed consent from the participants of the research study, inflicting no harm in collecting data, maintaining confidentiality and being fair to the participants when analysing data (Farrimond, 2013:26-30; Flick, 2014: 50-51; Maxfield & Babbie, 2008: 445-453). The researcher requested permission from the gatekeepers in the SAPS to access its records and its personnel on matters relating to this research study as required by the National Instruction 1/2006: Research in the Service (SAPS, 2006: 4). The researcher was also guided by the guidelines of the Policy on Research Ethics of the University of South Africa (UNISA, 2007:

7) to conduct ethical research as per Annexure B of this study. The researcher abided by the following ethical principles:

1.14.1 Informed consent

One of the ethical considerations to be kept in mind is informed consent. Informed consent means that research participants should freely agree to be part of the research study (May, 2011: 62; Thomas, 2013: 48). Informed consent hinges on a research participant taking an independent decision to participate in the research (Farrimond, 2013: 109). According to Farrimond (2013: 109), informed consent is based on three aspects, namely, “information, comprehension and voluntariness”. This means that participants must be provided with sufficient information regarding what they consent to and should participate in the research study out of their own free will and volition (Farrimond, 2013: 109).

In addition to obtaining permission from the gatekeepers, the researcher compiled a consent form which contained detailed and accessible information about the study, the participants’ actual role and involvement in the study, time commitment, type of activities, topics that were covered, and all potential physical and emotional risks involved. Participants were thus allowed to make an informed decision regarding whether to partake in the study or not. Participants were informed that participation was voluntary, there would be no penalty or loss of benefit for non-participation, and they could have withdrawn any time without obligation to explain.

1.14.2 Avoiding harm to participants

Research participants should not be exposed to any harm because of their participation in a research study. The harm referred to is not confined to physical harm but extends to psychological, emotional, reputational and even economic harm (Farrimond, 2013: 144). According to Farrimond, the risk of emotional harm is probably most common in social research. Interviews, for example, may invoke emotions relating to past events even though the topic is not sensitive (Farrimond, 2013; Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). Maxfield and Babbie (2008) contend that the ethical principle of protecting participants from harm is easier to deal with in theory than in practice, but that the experience and sensitivity of the researcher could be useful in maintaining a proper balance. Gray (2014: 74) cautions that workplace research often requires respondents to express their views and opinions on work-related issues, some of which might include criticisms of the organisation and its management. If individuals can be

identified, then in extreme cases this could cause not just embarrassment, but even discipline or dismissal.

Though this research expected participants to express their experiences on work-related issues, the researcher did not cause harm to participants in this study. In order to protect participants from physical or emotional harm, the researcher preserved the anonymity of participants. No names or other identifiable information was made available that could pose a risk to the anonymity of participants. The researcher further took caution not to cause participants to be embarrassed, ridiculed, belittled or generally subject to mental distress (Sudman, in Gray, 2014: 74), or produce research that caused anxiety or stress to participants or produced negative emotional reactions (Gray, 2014: 74).

1.14.3 Confidentiality and anonymity

Researchers have an ethical obligation to protect the confidentiality and anonymity of research respondents. Confidentiality and anonymity are the two techniques that researchers use to preserve the identity of the research respondents (Babbie, 2014: 68; Farrimond, 2013: 30). Anonymity refers to the withholding or disguising of the identity of the respondent, whereas confidentiality relates to the protection of the information against disclosure or the sharing of the collected information within the agreed terms (Ellis et al., 2010: 360; Farrimond, 2013: 28; Maxfield & Babbie, 2008: 58). Anonymity therefore serves the purpose of maintaining the participants' confidentiality (Farrimond, 2013:133). Researchers must take the necessary precautions to ensure that the identity of the participants and the data they provide are kept confidential at all times, unless the respondents have given consent for disclosure (Kalof et al., 2008: 49, 50; Smith, 2010:53; Westmarland, 2011: 144).

When reporting on the interviews, the researcher did not divulge participants' place of employment or position within the SAPS in order to prevent individuals being traced. All identifying data remained solely with the researcher, and involved secure storage of data, restricted access to the data and the eventual destruction of the data. Data is not traceable to any particular participant.

1.15 SUMMARY

SAPS members perform their duties in compliance with the constitution and other applicable legislation. The members perform their duties in diverse and complex occupational environments which require members to possess certain traits and skills that are arguably achievable from the attainment of higher educational qualifications. Some of the police officers therefore opt to study further in the hope of enhancing their performance or for them to cope better with the pressure associated with the performance of their duties. This study explores the relevance of an academic doctorate degree in the occupational environment of the SAPS from the personal experience of serving and former members of the SAPS who hold such a degree.

CHAPTER 2 AN OVERVIEW OF TERTIARY EDUCATION RECOGNITION IN POLICE ORGANISATIONS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Police organisations around the world approach the significance of tertiary education differently within their ranks. Various police organisations seem to hold the view that tertiary education is not relevant to the police. Therefore, this chapter examines the recognition of tertiary education in police organisations. This chapter also provides an overview of the relevance that a tertiary qualification holds for serving members of police organisations in their internal and external occupational environments. Furthermore, this chapter explores the support structures, if any, that are in place to enable serving police members to improve their academic qualifications.

2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF TERTIARY EDUCATION IN INTERNATIONAL POLICE ORGANISATIONS

International police organisations have different policies which regulate their recruitment and promotion strategies. According to Punch (in Chen, 2015: 6), some police agencies regard academic qualifications as "irrelevant and dysfunctional", and are of the view that policing requires knowledge that is based on practice and common sense. On the other hand, other police agencies have entered into partnerships with tertiary institutions with the aim of offering higher education degrees to police officials (Cordner & Shain, 2011: 281; Macvean & Cox, 2012: 19; Prenzler, Martin & Sarre, 1990: 3; Terra, 2009: 13). In Australia, for example, the Western Australia Police and the NSW Police Service formed partnerships with universities to offer associate degrees to prospective recruits (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 117-119). Furthermore, a number of police organisations require their police officials to have higher academic degrees in order for them to be considered for promotion to higher ranks (Buker, 2010: 63; Cao, Huang & Sun, 2015: 7). Several police organisations even provide funding to employees who wish to improve their educational qualifications (Carter & Sapp, 1990: 59; Sandor, 2014: 184; Terra, 2009: 13).

2.2.1 The role of tertiary education in the recruitment of police officials

In this section, the role of tertiary education in the recruitment of police officials in various countries is discussed.

2.2.1.1 The Australian perspective

Tertiary education is regarded as a condition without which quality police work cannot be achieved (Dennis, in Feltes, 2002: 55; Prenzler et al., 2010: 3). Australia had several commissions of inquiry over the period 1987 to 2004 in response to concerns relating to police corruption and police inefficiency, and to restore police legitimacy (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 119). For example, the Fitzgerald Inquiry, which was established in the period 1987 to 1992 to investigate corrupt practices within the Queensland Police Department, recommended, in relation to the education of police officials, that the police department recruit more graduates (Fitzgerald, in Prenzler et al., 2009: 3). According to Prenzler et al. (2009: 3), Commissioner Fitzgerald found a correlation between police maladministration and corruption, and a lack of tertiary education.

Almost a decade later, another commission of inquiry into the NSW Police Service, the Royal Commission, was established in the period 1994 to 1997 to probe corruption and other criminal activities within the police service (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 118). The Royal Commission (in Longbottom & Van Kernbeek, 1999: 278), like the Fitzgerald Inquiry, also recommended that a full university degree or diploma be the minimum educational requirement for recruitment into the police service as a proactive measure in dealing with the challenges faced by the police service. This commission specifically recommended that recruits with qualifications higher than a high school diploma be given preference during the recruitment process (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 118). However, Kennedy (in Green & Gates, 2014: 80) is of the view that the recruitment policy of the Western Australian police would, for example, favour an 18-year-old good swimmer with good eyesight over a university graduate who has excellent life experience. According to Kennedy (in Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 118), the Royal Commission maintains that tertiary education has the long-term benefit of improving the quality of services that are delivered by the police, and that it has the potential to confront corruption and criminality within the service.

Following the recommendations of the various commissions of inquiry in Australia, police departments began to find ways of implementing the said recommendations. The NSW Police Service and the Western Australia Police formed partnerships with local universities to offer a two-year Associate Degree in Policing Practice and an Associate Degree in Social Science (Political Studies) to students respectively (Green & Woolston, 2014: 44; Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 117, 118-119). The Associate Degree in Policing Practice is provided through a joint

partnership entered into around 1998 between the NSW Police Service and Charles Stuart University, whereby the institutional phase of the programme is presented at the academy of the NSW Police Service (Green & Woolston, 2014: 44). Currently, the joint partnership between the two institutions has been extended to offer a Diploma in Policing Practice (Green & Woolston, 2014: 43).

The specific focus of the associate degrees is on the needs of the police (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 119). The implementation of an associate degree constitutes a shift from the accredited four-year degree recommended by the commissions of inquiry (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 117). The focal point of an associate degree thus offered is in line with the "professional policing model of education" as opposed to the "liberal educational model" that was recommended by the Fitzgerald Commission of Inquiry (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 117). The professional policing model is opposed to the recruitment of "generalist graduates" who are regarded as not being suited to bring about desired reform in police organisations (Bradley in Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 117). The proponents of the liberal model of education are in favour of the adoption of a full graduate entry into the police with a generalist curriculum which comprises courses relevant to police studies (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 117).

The discrepancy in the implementation of the recommendations of the commissions of inquiry is attributed to the fact that the commissions were less specific on how the educational reforms were to be achieved (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 119). Tertiary education is also met with a strong conviction that it will phase out common sense while bringing in impracticalities (Longbottom & Van Kernbeek, 1999: 280). According to Pater (in Longbottom & Van Kernbeek, 1999: 280), operational police officials are critical and contemptuous of "university officers with shallow policing experience". This attitude towards tertiary education is also found in police journals that advocate the argument that the best place to learn policing is on the job (Bult, Ireland, Jacobson, Madden & West, in Longbottom & Van Kernbeek, 1999: 280).

In the NSW Police Service, students who are registered for the associate degree and who do not get recruited into the police service at the end of the first year are obliged to switch to a justice studies degree, which is a broader qualification (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 119). This means that the students are appointed as probationary constables at the end of their first year of study (Green & Woolston, 2014: 44).

In Queensland, the Criminal Justice Commission, which was established in response to the Fitzgerald Commission of Inquiry to oversee reform in the Queensland Police Service, moved the training of recruits from the police academy to a university (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 112). This move resulted in Griffith University offering a "baccalaureate degree in criminology and criminal justice" (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 112). The first year of the degree was dedicated to police recruits and culminated in the issuing of an "Advanced Certificate in Policing" (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 112). According to Wimhurst and Ransley (2007: 112), the "Advance Certificate in Policing" was to become the entry-level qualification for Australian police. However, this qualification was discontinued after a short period of three years, by which time 1 040 recruits had already graduated from the programme (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 112).

During the period 1988 to 1989, 11 percent of applicants who were interested in joining the Australian Federal Police (AFP) had tertiary qualifications (Berzins, 2005: 200). During this period, the AFP had the express intention of encouraging undergraduates and graduates to apply for enlistment in the police (Berzins, 2005: 200). In the period 1991 to 1992, the AFP outsourced a significant amount of education of its members to tertiary institutions (Berzins, 2005: 198). According to Berzins (2005: 198), the AFP offered an Associate Diploma in Applied Science (Fingerprint Investigation) in partnership with the Canberra Institute of Technology.

Berzins (2005: 201) maintains that the AFP had a policy of recruiting 70 percent graduates and 30 percent of recruits with life and workplace experience by 2010. The 70 percent minimum graduate policy suddenly almost became 100 percent in the late 1980 and mid-1990s, making it almost impossible for recruits without a tertiary education to become police officials (Berzins, 2005: 201). This was contrary to the express intention that 30 percent of applicants be drawn from a pool of those who had life experience which would be regarded as equivalent to tertiary education (Berzins, 2005: 201). Over 75 percent of police recruits within the AFP have tertiary qualifications, with some 30 percent of the 75 percent being post-graduates (Berzins, 2005: 202). However, not everyone supports the introduction of tertiary education as a prerequisite for enlistment in the Australian police. According to Wimhurst and Ransley (2007: 114), police supervisors are opposed to the academic arrangement as they regard the recruits as not being "street wise" and also perceive the qualification as being "bookish and theoretical".

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Police practitioners are also suspicious of the involvement of universities in the education of the police (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 114). They claim that the sole intention of the universities is to take control of police education (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 114). According to the Public Sector Management Commission (in Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 115), higher education is perceived as being biased against the serving experienced members, as it is regarded as being too focused on the education of recruits.

2.2.1.2 The United States of America perspective

In the USA, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice was established in 1967 and subsequently recommended that the educational requirements for police recruits be raised (Carter & Sapp, 1990: 60; Michelson, 2002: 10). According to Michelson (2002: 10) and Carter and Sapp (1990: 60), the ultimate aim of the recommendation was to implement the requirement that a baccalaureate degree become a minimum educational standard for enlistment. Carter, Sapp and Stephens (in Michelson, 2002: 9) argue that a former Commissioner of the New York City Police Department summed up the work of the President's Commission when he said that police officers have far-reaching authority and discretionary powers vested upon them, and that they execute duties that are otherwise the domain of different professions, which collectively necessitates better education among them. The ABA also stressed the need for police organisations to recruit police officers with improved educational qualifications (Palombo, in Michelson, 2002: 10). The main rational behind the call to increase the educational qualifications of the police was to rid it of the "stupid cop" image and of the perception that becoming a cop is an option taken by those who cannot take an effort of "becoming something worthwhile" (Bittner, in Shernock, 1992: 72).

In 1993, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals set 1982 as the due date for the implementation of a higher educational prerequisite (Carter & Sapp, 1990: 60; Michelson, 2002: 10). The commission also commented that obtaining a high school diploma was no longer "a significant educational achievement" and further cautioned that to continue to recruit at the level of high school is to invite mediocrity (Telep, 2011: 394). In 2000, the United States Commission on Civil Rights (USCCR) observed that the endorsement of a college degree prerequisite would help in restoring the public's confidence in the police (Chapman, 2012: 423).

However, in 1978, the National Advisory Commission on Higher Education of Police Officers found serious shortcomings relating to education in law enforcement environment (Carter & Sapp, 1990: 61). The National Advisory Commission thus recommended a shift from "educating the recruited to recruiting the educated", hence the call to endorse a bachelor's degree as a minimum prerequisite for joining the police (Telep, 2011: 394). Furthermore, another commission, the Commission on Accreditation of Law Enforcement Agencies, notes that the recruitment process is a proactive activity which is aimed at the identification of the "best possible candidate", and not a mere process of eliminating the candidates with the least qualifications (Michelson, 2002: 26). According to Mayo and Murphy (in Michelson, 2002: 12), the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) and the International Association of Directors of Law Enforcement Standards and Training supported the call for police officers with college education, with PERF further calling for the implementation of a four-year degree requirement by the year 2003. The reasoning behind recommending the bachelor's degree requirement for the police is based on the perceived skills and attitudes associated with the attainment of such degrees (Carter & Sapp, in Paoline, Terrill & Rossler, 2015: 52).

The implementation of the higher degree education requirement is fulfilled by few police departments in the USA, despite the recommendations of the commissions of inquiry and other authorities. Gardiner (2015: 654) found that 82 percent of police departments in California still required a high school diploma as a minimum educational prerequisite for enlistment, while 14,6 percent and 2,5 percent required some college and an associate degree respectively. According to Hickman Reeves (in Telep, 2011: 394) and Bruns (2010: 88), a high school diploma is still the minimum pre-requisite for employment in most police departments in the USA.

The reluctance of the police administrators to implement the higher education requirement is evident in that only one percent of police departments require a four-year degree as a prerequisite for enlisting in the police (Bureau of Justice Statistics, in Baro & Burlingame, 1999: 57, 59; Hickman & Reeves in Bruns, 2010: 88). PERF (in Bruns, 2010: 90) found that only four police departments out of 100 serving the largest cities in the USA required a four-year degree. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (in Shjarback & White, 2015: 8), 16 percent of police departments stipulated "some college credit" as a pre-employment requirement. Terra (2009: 12) maintains that large departments requiring "some type of

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college" and those requiring a two-year degree increased from 19 percent to 37 percent and from six percent to 14 percent respectively around the year 2000.

Several reasons are advanced for the inconsistent implementation of the recommendations of the commissions that a four-year degree be the minimum requirement for employment in the police organisations in the USA. The reasons are many and varied, but the main reason offered is that the implementation of such a requirement would discriminate against minorities and result in lawsuits (Carter & Sapp, 1990: 67; Michelson, 2002: 19). Carter et al. (in Michelson, 2002: 23) found that police salaries and benefits were not attractive enough in comparison to other occupations, and that few graduates were willing to enlist in a law enforcement environment. Those critical of college-educated police officers argue that such officers are prone to frustration with their work given the rigid rules and limited opportunities for growth (Worden, in Bruns, 2010: 93; Terra, 2009: 13). Many police administrators are concerned that educational opportunities increase the likelihood of officer turnover due to increased job mobility associated with education (Terra, 2009: 13). The respondents in a study by Bruns and Magnan (2014: 37) opined that mandating tertiary education had the potential to shrink the pool of applicants.

Tertiary education is resisted because it favours lateral entry into the police and threatens support for the maintenance of secrets within police organisations (Shernock, 1992: 71). It is also resisted against because it may lead to increased tensions between operational members and managers in police departments that do not subscribe to formal education and academic research (Hays, Regoli & Hewitt, 2007: 16). The respondents in a study by Bruns and Magnan (2014: 34) shared their views on mandating a four-year degree for the police, and one respondent mentioned that college graduates were regarded as "book smart" but yet were unable to function in the field. Another respondent maintained that common sense was a prerequisite for making it in the police, not "20 doctorates" (Bruns & Magnan, 2014: 35). Baro and Burlingame (1999: 57) argue that police organisations and the nature of police work have not evolved to such an extent as to require a four-year degree.

Conversely, Baro and Burlingame (1999: 58) also regard the absence of tertiary education among police personnel who are engaged in specialised areas of policing as a problem, and propose an integration of education and police training as a solution. A perceived lack of scientific evidence relating to the benefits of tertiary education could also be a contributing factor to inhibiting the roll-out of tertiary education (Paoline et al., 2015: 50).

Regarding the concern that implementing the tertiary education requirement would be discriminatory towards minorities, Carter and Sapp (1990: 59) found that minorities have educational standards that are competitive to those of whites and are thus recruited without hindrance. The recruitment of women is also not affected by the tertiary educational requirement as they were found to possess qualifications higher than those of men (Carter & Sapp, 1990: 59). In fact, Carter et al. (in Michelson, 2002: 24) found that a significant number of students at tertiary institutions were studying social sciences majoring in criminal justice subjects and that their wish was to pursue a career in law enforcement.

Carter et al. (in Michelson, 2002: 23) found that the entry-level salaries and benefits in the police were comparable to, if not higher than, those of other professions requiring a social science degree which, unlike the police, "typically did not pay overtime". The authors also refute the assertion that requiring a four-year degree will be met with a declined pool of applicants in general by pointing out that a significant number of students in colleges are interested in working for the police, particularly as patrol officers. The authors therefore regard the perceived barriers mentioned above as myths. From the discussion above, it can be deduced that the implementation of a mandatory four-year degree requirement for enlistment in police departments in the USA is embraced with some caution.

2.2.1.3 The Chinese and Taiwanese perspectives

As early as the 1980s, the People's Republic of China (PRC) introduced higher recruitment and educational standards for its police recruits (Wang, 2002: 1). The police education system in China has three levels, namely, municipal, provincial and national (Wang, 2002: 1). Each level of the police education system is confined to a two-, three- and four-year qualification respectively (Wang, 2002: 1). The four-year qualification is offered at police universities or colleges (Wang, 2002: 1).

As Wang (2002:1) notes, there is intense competition for enrolment in police schools, colleges and universities around the PRC due to guaranteed employment upon graduation, unlike graduates from other disciplines who must seek employment upon completion of their studies. The educational background of police officers in the PRC is high, to such an extent that 57, 3 percent of them have an associate degree or higher (Liu, in Chen, 2015: 6). This position is different to other countries, where policing has been found to be unattractive to people with tertiary education and where some police departments "impose obstacles" in the recruitment of

college graduates (Cockcroft, in Chen, 2015: 6). The police education system in China is also unique in that the students are provided with police uniforms while still studying (Wang, 2002: 1).

All police schools in the PRC are part of the national education system. Police education is regarded as a "branch of natural science", which includes the study of physics, chemistry and mathematics among other subjects (Wang, 2002: 1). On the national level of the educational system, the PRC has two universities that are dedicated to police education and that offer a four-year degree in the field of policing (Wang, 2002: 1). The two universities are the China Criminal Police College (CCPC), which is located in Shenyang province, and the Public Security University, which is situated in Beijing (Wang, 2002: 1). The teaching divisions of the CCPC are organised into basic service, social science, professional teaching and police physical training (Wang, 2002: 2). According to Wang (2002: 2), the professional teaching division is divided into the criminal investigation, forensic investigation, forensic science and technology, as well as forensic medicine departments.

The basic courses department offers fundamental and elective courses such as English at various levels ranging from basic to specialised English, mathematics, and legal subjects (Wang, 2002: 2). The police physical training department offers training in "General Physical Education, Wrestling, Shooting and Defensive Vehicle Driving", and the students are required to take these courses for the duration of their four-year study at the college (Wang, 2002: 2). According to Wang (2002: 2), the CCPC has, since 1999, been approved to offer master's degrees in "the science of procedural law, the science of criminal law, forensic medicine and analytical chemistry" (Wang, 2002: 2-3). The CCPC employs two unique approaches in that its students undergo an internship for a semester at a police department, and are required to successfully conduct a research project independently and defend it before a panel of faculty personnel (Wang, 2002: 3). The strong and healthy partnership between the police and the university is evident in the fact that most police departments allow students to engage in practical "criminal investigations or forensic examinations in crime labs" under the supervision of mentors (Wang, 2002: 3). The probation is used to make a determination about the placement of the students upon completion of their studies (Wang, 2002: 3). The students are, for this purpose, encouraged to identify a pragmatic problem which they have experienced during their tour of study, and to resolve it intelligently, skilfully and professionally (Wang, 2002: 3). Figueirido (as cited in Wang, 2002: 3) comments that the complex nature of societies requires

"police officers to respond intelligently and not mechanically" when confronted by conflict circumstances.

Taiwan, being a post-Confucian nation, believes in the attainment of tertiary educational qualifications by all its public servants, including the police, through a "competitive examinations" system similar to the Chinese system (Cao et al., 2015: 2-3). This system ensures that all citizens are afforded an equal opportunity for growth within the social structure founded on "merit alone" (Cao et al., 2015: 3). Therefore, all police officials undergo the stipulated examinations to become police officers (Cao et al., 2015: 3). There is a two-tier system based on educational achievement, which ultimately determines the level of appointment of individual police officers (Cao et al., 2015: 3).

The educational achievement of individual police officers is therefore used as a criterion for their appointment as either a street or management level officer (Cao et al., 2015: 3). The Taiwan Police College (TPC) educates lower-ranking police officers, while the Central Police University (CPU) deals with the education of police managers (Cao et al., 2015: 1). Graduates from the TPC are subsequently recruited into the police at the level of Police Officer Rank Two, and the entry level of CPU graduates is Police Inspector Rank Four (Cao et al., 2015: 3).

The rank structure of the Taiwan Police consists of four groups, namely, officer, inspector and superintendent (Cao et al., 2015: 3). Each group has four ranks, with an additional special level of Police Superintendent General (Cao et al., 2015: 2, 3). Police Officer Rank Three and Rank Four became obsolete when the TPC was relocated to the National Police Agency in 1986 (Cao et al., 2015: 5). These ranks were filled by recruits from high school, a practice which has since been stopped (Cao et al., 2015: 5). According to Cao et al. (2015: 5), graduating from the TPC does not guarantee automatic entry into the police because graduates are further required to write and pass the competitive "national civil service examinations". Failure of the compulsory examination will result in graduates not being appointed as a police officer, regardless of the fact that the graduate would be in possession of a two-year associate degree (Cao et al., 2015: 5).

Another way of enrolling in the TPC is to pass the compulsory "national civil service examinations" before admittance into the TPC (Cao et al., 2015: 5). Students who are studying at the TPC receive a scholarship and stipend (Cao et al., 2015: 5). In addition to meeting other requirements for enlistment into the police, all applicants must also be in possession of a high

school diploma (Cao et al., 2015: 5). High school graduates can enrol directly in the CPU upon passing the stipulated entrance examination and are awarded a BA degree upon graduating. The graduates would then have to pass the “national civil service examination” before being appointment at the level of Inspector Rank Four (Cao et al., 2015: 6). The CPU also offers masters and doctoral programmes in the field of policing (Cao et al., 2015: 7).

The prevailing police education system in Taiwan is not without critics. The critics of this system argue that police recruits enjoy more benefits in comparison to the military and that the real cost associated with their education is kept secret (Cao et al., 2015: 8). The system is also criticised for the separate education of street-level officers and administrators, which has been called a “questionable practice of the past” (Cao et al., 2015: 8). According to Cao et al. (2015: 8), the exclusive education of police officers is criticised, and questions are being asked about the fairness of this privilege which is extended only to the police. The authoritarian and bureaucratic nature of the TPC and CPU is perceived as inhibitive to the creativity of the students due to too much control being exercised over them (Cao et al., 2015: 8).

Critics of this system argue that innovation can only be realised in an environment which is characterised by “individual autonomy”, wherein the students are given the freedom to express their views without being censored (Cao et al., 2015: 9). The curriculum at the exclusive police university is regarded as being confined to courses dealing with the “structures and functions of the criminal justice system or with operational needs”, rather than preparing the students to appreciate the complex nature of social problems (Sherman, in Cao et al., 2015: 8; Williams & Robinson, in Cao et al., 2015: 8). The continued existence of the TPC and CPU is dependent on funding allocated to it from the administrative budget rather than the educational budget, a practice which hinders academic activities such as the timely purchase of academic books (Cao et al., 2015: 8). The main criticism against the current practice is the fact that police education is directly controlled by the Ministry of the Interior rather than the Ministry of Education (Cao et al., 2015: 8). Notwithstanding the criticisms directed against the education of police officers at exclusive police tertiary institutions, China and Taiwan are at the forefront of improving the educational qualifications of police officials.

2.2.1.4 The Turkish Police perspective

The Turkish Police, like many other police organisations around the world, requires its recruits to possess certain academic qualifications in addition to other requirements (Caglar, 2004: 353-

356). The police education system in Turkey is classified into three categories that serve as the sources of recruitment for the Turkish Police (Caglar, 2004: 350). These three main categories are the “police school, police high school and police academy” (Caglar, 2004: 350). According to Caglar (2004: 350), each category of the education system has different responsibilities as far the target groups are concerned.

Consequently, the police schools are responsible for the education of “ordinary police officers”, while the police high schools are mandated to educate students in preparation for their enrolment at the only police academy in Turkey (Caglar, 2004: 350). Ultimately, the police academy is responsible for the education and training of middle- and senior-ranking police officers as well as police administrators (Caglar, 2004: 350). Therefore, the two-year educational qualification, which is obtainable from the 25 police schools situated across Turkey, is the minimum educational requirement for enlistment into the Turkish Police (Caglar, 2004: 351). The students at police high schools are graduates from primary schools, and the four-year duration of the study at these schools prepares them for further studies at the police academy (Caglar, 2004: 351).

The police academy has status equivalent to a university, and the duration of study is four years (Caglar, 2004: 353). It is for this purpose that the Education Department determines the educational programmes of the police academy (Buker, 2010: 61; Caglar, 2004: 353). According to Caglar (2004: 353), the curriculum covers subjects ranging from sociology and law to human rights and forensic sciences. According to Buker (2010: 63), the Turkish National Police Academy (TNPA) offers degrees up to doctoral level. From the discussion above, it is apparent that the TNPA and the police academy referred to by Caglar and Buker above are the same institution. According to Caglar (2004: 351), there were five police high schools in Turkey in 1992 that were reduced to one in 1996. Although the majority of the students studying at the police academy are graduates from the police high school, some are graduates from other high schools (Caglar, 2004: 352). The costs of studying at these institutions are covered by the General Directorate of Security (GDS), which is the police organisation, and entail a contractual undertaking that the students will work for the police organisation upon graduation (Caglar, 2004: 352).

However, it should be noted that enrolment in the police academy is not automatic upon graduating from the police high school. The graduates from the police high school are required to successfully complete the “Police Academy Entrance Examination” before their admission

into the police academy (Caglar, 2004: 352). The students who fail this entrance examination are offered four options (Caglar, 2004: 352). They may re-write the entrance examination for a maximum of three attempts, once a year, or they may go their own way after repaying all the expenses incurred on their behalf (Caglar, 2004: 352). A third option is to study further at another university that is recommended by the GDS, but they must pass the entrance examination of the recommended university, in which case the GDS will continue financing their studies (Caglar, 2004: 352). The fourth option is to join the police as ordinary police officers (Caglar, 2004: 352). The graduates from the police academy and other universities are appointed to administrative posts which require a four-year degree (Caglar, 2004: 354). These graduates are, by virtue of their academic achievements, appointed to these supervisory ranks laterally without operational experience (Buker, 2010: 61).

According to Caglar (2004: 358), senior police officers maintain that the Turkish Police recruits its members by using merit as the sole criterion, thereby giving effect to its policy of recruiting the best qualified candidates. This claim is contradicted by fact that children of “martyrs” are exempted from all recruitment requirements, including the academic qualification requirement (Caglar, 2004: 361). Caglar (2004: 361) asserts that this exemption is contained in legislative provisions, the primary purpose of which is to look after the interests of the children of public servants, particularly police officers, who were killed in the line of duty.

2.2.1.5 The England and Wales perspectives

The England and Wales police services do not prescribe any academic qualification for enlistment (Macvean & Cox, 2012: 20). According to the Police Federation of England and Wales (in Macvean & Cox, 2012: 20), probation officers join the police with different levels of academic qualifications. Some of the probation officers have no formal qualifications while others have graduate and post-graduate degrees (Macvean & Cox, 2012: 20).

Conversely, Lee and Punch (2004: 241) claim that the management of Essex Police in the United Kingdom (UK) has, as early as the 1960s, been opposed to the lateral entry of police officials at senior levels based on educational qualifications attained, and embraced the notion of sending police officers to study at universities instead. According to Haynes (in Green & Gates, 2014: 80), a police inspector in the South Wales, for example, argued that the police must be representative of the community they serve and that mandating a tertiary education as a minimum pre-requisite for joining the police would exclude people from his community. In

England and Wales, the Initial Police Learning and Development Programme (IPLDP) was introduced as a new model for the training of recruits and serving members of the police (Macvean & Cox, 2012: 19). The IPLDP envisages the formation of partnerships between the police and universities, which will be aimed at exposing the recruits to the higher education environment (Macvean & Cox, 2012: 19). The partnership with tertiary institutions led to the development of training programmes, which are broadly categorised into "pre-join" and "post-join" programmes (Macvean & Cox, 2012: 19).

According to Macvean and Cox (2012: 19), the target group for the pre-join programme is students who have an interest in becoming police officials. These students study for a foundation degree programme and become Special Constables during this phase of their studies (Macvean & Cox, 2012: 17). The post-join programme is meant for students who undergo a "probationary process" following their acceptance to join the police service (Macvean & Cox, 2012: 20). The students who successfully complete the "pre-join programme" receive a "formal academic qualification" from the relevant university (Heslop, 2011: 302; Macvean & Cox, 2012: 20). The duration of the foundation degree is two years (Heslop, 2011: 302). One of the main characteristics of the foundation degree is its integration of academic and workplace learning (Heslop, 2011: 302).

According to Macvean and Cox (2012: 21), the introduction of the IPLDP resulted in recruits being divided into two groups – one with no formal academic qualifications and another with tertiary qualifications (Macvean & Cox, 2012: 21). The drawback of this model of education is that those without exposure to the academic life felt that they were not ready to study at university level, whereas graduates perceived the programme as being lower than their level of education, and therefore undemanding and unchallenging (Macvean & Cox, 2012: 21).

2.2.1.6 The practice in Sweden

In Sweden, the minimum educational requirement for becoming a police officer is a police education diploma (Sundstrom & Wolming, 2014: 36). The police diploma is offered in three locations, namely, Umea, Vaxjo and Stockholm (Sundstrom & Wolming, 2014: 36). According to Sundstrom and Wolming (2014: 35), Umea and Vaxjo operate within the premises of universities, while Stockholm is not aligned with any university. The duration of the qualification is five semesters (Sundtsrom & Wolming, 2014: 37). Of the five semesters, the police academies are responsible for the four semesters of the curriculum, while the police

organisation is responsible for the one semester of field training (Sundtsrom & Wolming, 2014: 37). According to Karp and Sternmark (in Sundtsrom & Wolming, 2014: 37), students only become eligible to join the police upon the successful completion of the entire five semesters of the training programme.

2.2.1.7 The Croatian perspective

In Croatia, the education and training of police officials is provided by the police school and the police college (Veic & Mraovic, 2004: 138, 140). According to Veic and Mraovic (2004: 138), the police school provides basic education and training to aspirant police officials over 18 months, including six months of practical training, whereas the police college educates serving members of the police. The minimum educational requirement for studying at the police school is secondary school certificate (Veic & Mraovic, 2004: 138).

However, the police school also provides six months of basic training to serving members of the police, who must have a degree as a prerequisite for admittance to the police school (Veic & Mraovic, 2004: 138). The police college offers three different graduate programmes in the criminalistics field, namely, the specialist graduate, which is offered over five semesters, and the specialist graduate study and the university study, both of which take eight semesters to complete (Veic & Mraovic, 2004: 140-141). The police college forms part of the Ministry of Interior, while also being regulated by the High Education Law (Veic & Mraovic, 2004: 141).

2.2.1.8 The Brazilian perspective

In Brazil, the responsibility for the education and training of police officials is discharged by each of the 25 police educational agencies in a non-uniform manner (Lino, 2004: 125). Each police education institution sets its own curriculum differently from the others in order to cater for the diverse nature of the Brazilian communities (Lino, 2004: 127). Law enforcement agencies in Brazil are divided into federal, state and municipal levels (Lino, 2004: 127). Although no partnerships exist between the police agencies and universities, the federal agency and the majority of state police organisations require a four-year degree for enlistment as a police official (Lino, 2004: 129). The State Military Police agencies have adopted the practice of recruiting law graduates and appointing them at the rank of Captain (Lino, 2004: 129). However, the appointment of the law graduates to the rank of Captain is conditional, as the graduates must first successfully complete six months of training at the police academy.

Of concern is the fact that universities do not offer a degree programme which includes a public safety major, thereby resulting in students studying law over five years (Lino, 2004: 130). Moreover, the law degree is regarded as not providing the technical training needed to equip police officials to deal with the diversity of problems encountered in their daily routine (Lino, 2004: 130). There are calls for the establishment of a common training curriculum for the Brazilian police educational institutions, and for police-university partnerships to enhance police education in order that police agencies may provide a safe environment to their clientele (Lino, 2004: 125, 131).

2.2.2 The relevance of tertiary education in the recruitment of police officials in Africa

The discussion below relates to the relevance of tertiary education in the recruitment of police officials in Africa has limitations. The limitations are a consequence of a limited availability of credible literature on the subject. According to the SAPS [s.a.]: 1), the minimum educational requirement for enlistment in the SAPS is a grade 12 certificate or equivalent qualification. However, prospective recruits who have tertiary qualifications are encouraged to apply for enlistment (SAPS, [s.a]: 3). Lateral appointment of graduates is also possible as evidenced, for example, by external advertisement inviting graduates from tertiary institutions who are not necessarily employees of the police service to apply for the advertised commissioned officers' positions (The Editor, 2016: 19; SAPS, 2016c: 1).

Ikuteyijo and Rotimi (2014: 228) indicate that the Nigeria Police has three different entry levels, each with its own specific minimum educational requirements. The levels are categorised into the junior, middle and senior levels (Ikuteyijo & Rotimi, 2014: 228). Although they omit to specify the stipulated educational requirements for any of the levels, they comment that the requirements need to be reviewed in order to reflect the "modern day realities" with which police are confronted (Ikuteyijo & Rotimi, 2014: 228). This implies that the minimum educational prerequisite for enlistment in the Nigeria Police does not compare favourably with international practice. Ojo (2014: 93) maintains that the manner in which members of the Nigeria Police are recruited and promoted is questionable in many respects. According to Ikuteyijo and Rotimi (2014: 233), the Nigeria Police has a reputation of being difficult to research, given the bureaucratic red tape which researchers have to deal with prior to obtaining permission to conduct any study of the police agency.

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2.3 THE RELEVANCE OF ACADEMIC DEGREES FOR POLICE OFFICIALS IN THEIR INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL OCCUPATIONAL ENVIRONMENTS

The evolving and sophisticated nature of crime in the global sphere has brought new dynamics to policing. The expectations and perceptions of society in relation to policing have also ushered in enormous demands for accountability with regard to how policing responsibilities are discharged. The Office of Police Integrity (in Cox, 2011: 15) indicates that policing is undergoing massive reform and is becoming more sophisticated. The complex nature of policing requires police to possess "technical expertise and specialist knowledge" to overcome the challenges posed by criminality (Cox, 2011: 15). Police officials are therefore expected to effectively and professionally discharge their mandated responsibilities.

In this context, police officials are naturally expected to improve their educational achievements. The ABA (in Kakar, 1998: 633) agrees with this assertion and alludes to the fact that the phenomenal complex nature inherent in police work worldwide calls for "intellectual curiosity, analytical ability and capacity" to interpret socio-political and historical events and everyday occurrences, a skill which is arguably best derived from higher education.

Fitzgerald (in Vickers, 2000: 508) also argues that "police need a deeper appreciation of social, psychological and legal issues, they may need better preparation to cope with the traumas of police work, they may also need to be better educated to encourage more tolerance and less authoritarianism". Higher education contributes to professional, accountable and legitimate policing (Cordner & Shain, 2011: 283).

The decision to pursue higher education is, however, an individual one. The critical questions to be posed are:

- Given the stressful nature of police work, what motivates individual police officials to use their own free time and scarce resources to pursue higher education?
- What is the value of academic degrees to the occupational environment of policing?

The discussion below revolves around the value, if any, of academic degrees in the internal and external occupational environments of policing.

2.3.1 The value of academic degrees for police officials in the internal occupational environment

There are disagreements among researchers and police practitioners about the value of higher education to police (Worden, in Hays et al., 2007: 7). Therefore, the discussion below is about the benefits, or lack thereof, inherent in higher education.

According to Wimhurst and Ransley (2007: 108), higher education is regarded as a vehicle to reform police organisations. Higher education is also seen as a means to improve the recruitment, operational efficiency and personal well-being of police officials (Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 108). There are various factors which motivate police officials to use their own free time and scarce financial resources to pursue the achievement of higher education. Jones (2016: 5) has identified four main reasons which motivate police officials to study further. Jones (2016: 5) found that the central motivating factors were a desire to "remedy personal regrets" for not studying first before joining the police, to become a "well-rounded police officer", to improve opportunities for promotion and career development, as well as to prepare for a second career after retiring from active service. Buckley, McGinnis and Petrunik (in Paynich, 2009: 17) also found that the primary motivation for undertaking higher education was promotion.

Higher education improves the overall performance of police officials in the workplace. According to Paynich (2009: 11) and Telep (2011: 394), it is assumed that higher education improves the job performance of police officials in many ways. Higher education is assumed to improve the problem-solving skills of police officials and to provide alternative solutions to problems without the need to invoke legal sanctions (Bruns, 2010: 99; Carter & Sapp, 1990: 62; Gardiner, 2015: 655; Paynich, 2009: 11). Kakar (1998: 639) found that police members who had higher education "rated themselves significantly higher on several performance categories".

Police officials who possessed higher education were found to be better at writing reports and using technology efficiently (Gardiner, 2015: 655; Kakar, 1998: 639; Lee & Punch, 2004: 244). Report writing is important, and is pertinent to criminal procedural matters and prosecution (Gardiner, 2015: 655). According to Carter and Sapp (1990: 62), higher education equips police officials with the skills to perform tasks better and to make continuous decisions related to policing without supervision or with minimal supervision. Bostrom (2005: 7) found that police

officials with higher education are "excellent employees who use less sick time, are involved in fewer traffic collisions, are disciplined less often, and receive more commendations". However, Kakar (1998: 642) found that the educational levels of police officers had no significant impact on the commendations or reprimands of officers. Police officials with higher education adapt to changes more readily (Kakar, 1998: 634).

Higher education equips police officials with critical thinking skills which are imperative for the performance of their duties. According to Vickers (2000: 512) as well as Lee and Punch (2004: 245), critical thinking skills afford police officials the opportunity to, among others, identify and challenge untested assumptions, as well as to develop strategies and means to solve problems faced by communities. It provides the foundation for "critical, enquiring and challenging minds", fulfilling the needs associated with policing (Lee & Punch, 2004: 248). It also affords recipients a better grasp of the rationale behind "police policy and strategy" (Jones, 2016: 6).

Tertiary education increases the possibilities of promotion within the police hierarchy. Kordaczuk-Was and Sosnowski (2011: 319), who studied the role of self-education in Poland police agencies, found that self-education was characterised by high levels of determination and effort, the acquisition of which led to improved professional qualification and the performance of higher levels of duties. Consequently, this had the potential to influence the achievement of an elevated position within the police rank structure (Kordaczuk-Was & Sosnowski, 2011: 319). Police supervisors and commanding officers carry the costs of tuition in order to improve their eligibility for promotion within their agencies, or to become more competitive when contesting for police executive positions (Cordner & Shain, 2011: 282). According to Buker (2010: 61), the promotion policy of the TNP makes provision for the recognition of higher education through the appointment of people with such qualifications to supervisory positions without having any experience as operational police officers.

In South Africa, the requisites for promotion in the police service are either a degree or diploma coupled with "two years' uninterrupted service" at the preceding rank or "at least a minimum of four years uninterrupted service" at the preceding rank or level (Safety and Security Sectoral Bargaining Council [SSSBC], 2011: 5-8). However, the grade progression of police officers to the ranks of non-commissioned officers and commissioned officers in the SAPS also requires "seven years uninterrupted service" and "seven years uninterrupted service and grade 12 or equivalent" respectively (SSSBC, 2011: 4). The promotion and grade progression policy of the

SAPS finds expression in internal advertisements such as those posted by the SAPS (2016a: 1; 2016b: 1). Higher education is not necessarily a guarantee for promotion (Paynich, 2009: 17). Penegor and Peak (in Paynich, 2009: 17) found that higher education played a greater role when police chiefs were recruited externally as opposed to when they were being considered by their own departments. Polk and Armstrong (in Paynich, 2009: 18) found a positive correlation between higher education and promotion to “supervisory and administrative” positions.

However, it is worth noting that researchers such as Bourne (in Vickers, 2000: 509) rank practical skills as superior to higher education. Improved training has the potential to produce the same benefits related to job performance as those associated with higher education (Baro & Burlingame, 1999: 63). According to Longbottom and Van Kernbeek (1999: 280), higher education is perceived as breeding out “practical common sense”. Furthermore, it is believed that “academics”, referring to police officers with higher education, seem ill-prepared for the police job. On the other hand, Jones (2016: 2) refers to the “antagonistic” relationship between higher education and policing in reference to the perceived value of higher education in a policing environment. Hays et al. (2007: 16) are of the view that the tension between graduate line officers and managers may be more prevalent in traditional police departments that do not subscribe to the notion of “formal education, membership in professional organisations and academic research”. Bruns and Magnan (2014: 42) also maintain that higher education is not an overall important factor in the educational background of a police officer.

According to Carter and Sapp (1990: 71), only 4,7 percent of police agencies in the USA have formal policies that set out higher education as a requirement for promotion. However, researchers such as Cascio (in Paynich, 2009: 17) as well as Kordaczuk-Was and Sosnowski (2011: 320) believe that higher education leads to improved job satisfaction. Austin and Bannon (in Paynich, 2009: 17), for example, found tertiary education to be linked to higher levels of job satisfaction in one department while such a correlation was not found in another department. Officers with higher education are inclined to be dissatisfied with their jobs, contribute to a high turnover and are hostile to colleagues who are less educated (Bruns & Magnan, 2014: 41; Hays et al., 2007: 7). Higher education is perceived as a means which is used to leave the police service, and is linked to less commitment and the resultant increase in turnover (Chapman, 2012: 423). Kakar (1998: 642) found that police officials with higher education felt that their education was not appreciated, thus resulting in feelings of frustration.

However, Jones et al. (2005: 61) found no correlation between higher education and turnover or job dissatisfaction in their study of this phenomenon in the Queensland Police Service in Australia.

2.3.2 The value of academic degrees for police officials in the external occupational environment

Police officials are individually and collectively responsible for the provision of policing services to the community. The interaction between the police and the external occupational environment in which they function may at times be characterised by conflict and tension, as well as commendations and praise. Higher education is linked to the provision of quality policing services to the clientele (Kakar, 1998: 634). It also leads to the multi-skilling of and more ethical conduct by police officials (Berzins, 2005: 93-94). Jones (2016: 7) maintains that higher education leads to the development of reflexive conduct, which is useful in police-community relations and which is evident in their appreciation of the prevailing socio-political and legislative conditions.

Higher education is a factor in complaints laid against police organisations. Cunning (in Telep, 2011: 399) found that 75 percent of disciplinary matters which emanated from complaints from citizens in Florida involved officers who did not have college degrees. Police officers who had no college degrees had the most sustained formal complaints laid against them (Manis et al., 2008: 516). Australian authorities regard higher education mainly as a means for addressing police "corruption and serious misconduct" (Cox, 2011: 14). Cohen and Chaiken (in Paynich, 2009: 12) also found fewer complaints against educated police officers. Police officers with higher education are involved in fewer avoidable accidents (Cascio, in Gardiner, 2015: 650).

Police officers with higher education are less inclined to use force in the performance of their duties. According to Kakar (1998: 639), college-educated police officers rely more on the power of "mediation and conflict resolution techniques" than on applying force. This view is supported by Rydberg and Terrill (2010: 107) who found that officers who had been exposed to college education were less inclined to use force in comparison to their colleagues who had not received college education. Chapman (2012: 434) found that educated police officials used "less force and lower levels of force" when effecting arrests. However, Wilson (in Paynich, 2009: 12) argues that police officials with higher education are less inclined to protect themselves should they be confronted by danger as compared to their less educated peers,

whereas Shernock (in Kakar, 1998: 635) maintains that this category of police officials are less prone to being victims of assault. Worden (in Telep, 2011: 400) found that college educated police officials were more inclined to show respect for legal restraints relating to the use of force.

Higher education is linked to sensitivity to and tolerance of diversity within communities. Carter and Sapp (1990: 62) found that police officials with higher education were more flexible in addressing complex matters as well as in their interactions with clientele from diverse environments. Higher education is perceived as an instrument for shaping the "behaviour and attitude" of police officials in their interactions with people of other races and minorities.

2.4 ALIGNMENT OF SOUTH AFRICAN PRACTICE WITH INTERNATIONAL PRACTICE

The role of tertiary education within the SAPS compares favourably with international best practices. Although the SAPS does not prescribe tertiary education as a prerequisite for entry-level enlistment, the possession of such a qualification is advantageous for applicants (SAPS, [s.a]: 3). This is also the approach used by Canada (Wyatt & Bell, 2014). Tertiary education is a minimum educational requirement for lateral entry into the SAPS, mostly at supervisory and management levels (SAPS, 2016c: 2; The Editor, 2016: 19). This practice compares favourably with similar practices in countries such as Turkey and Taiwan (Buker 2010: 61; Cao et al., 2015: 6).

The SAPS, like police services in countries such as Australia, PRC, Sweden, Taiwan, England and Wales, has formed partnerships with tertiary institutions like UNISA and UP to provide tertiary education to its employees (Berzins, 2005: 198; Cao et al., 2015: 3; Green & Woolston, 2014: 44; SAPS & University of South Africa, 2013; SAPS et al., 2014: 1; Sundstrom & Wolming, 2014: 35; Wang, 2002: 1; Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007: 117-119). The SAPS provides financial assistance to its employees through bursaries as well as granting study leave to employees who are furthering their studies (SAPS, 2004: 10, 2015d: 1). According to Sandor (2014: 184), Carter and Sapp (1990: 59) and Terra (2009: 13), several international police organisations have a policy of providing financial assistance to and adjustment of working hours conducive for studying for their employees who are furthering their studies. The SAPS has a policy that deals with the "recognition of improved qualifications" which are in line with the scope of work the graduated employee performs and which enhance the performance of the

employee, as well as leading to an improvement on the quality of the service rendered by the graduate employee (SSSBC, 2015: 1 & 4). The policy also provides for a once-off payment of a sum of money to employees who have not received any financial assistance from the SAPS towards the same qualification, upon successful completion of the qualification (SSSBC, 2015: 4 & 5).

2.5 SUMMARY

The role of tertiary education in the recruitment and career development of police officials differs from one police organisation to the next. Some police organisations prescribe tertiary education as the minimum prerequisite for enlistment in the police, while others require applicants to be in possession of a high school certificate. Tertiary education has been found to be beneficial to police officials who possess such qualifications as well as to their agencies and the community they serve. The SAPS compares favourably with international best practices on matters relating to tertiary education and policing. It has entered into partnerships with tertiary institutions with a view to improving the educational qualifications of its employees. It provides financial assistance to its employees and it allows for the lateral entry of prospective employees based on their educational attainment.

CHAPTER 3 CONTEXTUALISING PROFESSIONALISM IN POLICE ORGANISATIONS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Police professionalism is a phenomenon that has been the focal point of a number of research studies. There are opposing viewpoints on whether police organisations worldwide should have professional status bestowed upon them. In other words, there are disagreements about whether policing is or should be regarded as a profession. References to police professionalism around the world inevitably lead to it being compared with established professions such as medicine, law and teaching. The debate around this phenomenon also often leads to comparisons between the regulatory framework which gives right of existence to the police and different professions. The roles and responsibilities of other professions in comparison to policing also come to the fore.

In addition to the issues raised above, the discussion below primarily focuses on the meaning and guiding principles of professionalism in the context of policing.

3.2 AN OVERVIEW OF PROFESSIONALISM IN POLICE ORGANISATIONS

A discussion to contextualise police professionalism necessitates a brief overview of professionalism in relation to other professions. The acquisition of the status of profession is dependent on compliance with a set of stringent and specific applicable requirements. The discussion below revolves around the definitions of professionalism in general and police professionalism in particular. The discussion further touches on the tenets applicable to both categories of professions as well as the alignment of police professionalism with other professions.

3.2.1 A brief overview of professionalism in general

Several authors have highlighted the dilemma associated with defining professionalism (Baker, 1995: 5; Carlan & Lewis, 2009: 371; Green & Gates, 2014: 75; Kleinig, 1996: 31; Schneider, 2009: 91-92). Notwithstanding the difficulty in defining this term, Carter and Wilson (2006: 43) maintain that professionalism involves being a member of a profession and conducting oneself in a manner that is in line with the standards of a particular profession. Carter and Wilson (2006: 43) elaborate further and state that "a profession is an occupation that requires

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extensive training and the study and mastery of specialised knowledge". Schneider (2009: 133) concurs with Carter and Wilson in defining a profession as "any occupation, career, vocation, or 'calling' which requires as an added component formal and specialised training, a code of ethics, licensing or certification, and education". Being a professional usually requires accreditation with or licencing from a professional association (Carter & Wilson, 2006: 43). A profession has a specific code of ethics and it holds its members accountable (Carter & Wilson, 2006: 43). Roddenberry (in Faull & Rose, 2012: 2) agrees with Carter by suggesting that a definition of a profession should contain certain elements. The suggested elements are a commitment to serve, education prior to serving, continued personal development, hard work, reward based on merit, protecting the reputation of the profession and constant enforcement of self-discipline (Roddenberry, in Faull & Rose, 2012: 2). Furthermore, Ball (in Schneider, 2009: 13) regards professionalism as being more than appearance, ethical behaviour and adherence to a code of conduct. It demands an uncompromising commitment to the highest standards and values as well as the embracing of continuous self-education (Ball, in Schneider, 2009: 13). According to Hall (in Carlan & Lewis, 2009: 372), professionalism is made up of the following distinct characteristics:

- Referent organisation;
- Belief in public service;
- Belief in self-regulation;
- Sense of calling; and
- Autonomy.

In agreement with Hall and Ball, Walker (2014: 704) maintains that the most important principles of professionalism are "professional knowledge, professional autonomy and the service ideal". From the discussion above, it can be deduced that there are clear prerequisites to be complied with in order for an occupation to be classified as a profession. A brief overview of the principles of professionalism follows hereunder.

3.2.1.1 Education

Education is the first and foremost basic principle of professionalism. According to Millet (in Glenn, Raymond, Barnes-Proby, Williams, Christian, Lewis, Gerwehr & Brannan, 2003: 26) as well as Villiers (1997: 91) and Kleinig (1996: 35), any profession is premised upon formalised education which is based on theory. Dale (1994: 210) maintains that all other

principles of professionalism are secondary to education in that they are there for the maintenance of a body of knowledge and how this knowledge is applied. Walker (2014: 704) uses the phrase "professional knowledge" in his reference to education. He maintains that this knowledge is based on a detailed mastery of the associated principles. Mastery is achievable through an undertaking of prolonged study at a professional educational institution such as a university, as well as through "vocational training and socialization" (Gundhus, 2012: 190; Walker, 2014: 704).

Professional knowledge is used in pragmatic problem-solving situations and the practitioners thereof are afforded the monopoly to solve such problems (Walker, 2014: 704). In agreeing with Walker, Huntington (in Glenn et al., 2003: 28) and Kleinig (1996: 34) argue that a professional person derives his or her expertise only from "prolonged education and experience". In this regard, Schneider (2009: 25) and Hughes (2013: 8) share the same view that a profession is inertly intertwined with "specialised knowledge" achievable through intense education. Therefore, professionals possess specialised knowledge and expertise not ordinarily possessed by others outside the profession (Kleinig, 1996: 34). Dale (1994: 215) argues that an important feature which defines a profession is the "existence of a body of knowledge" which covers a particular aspect of human life. Phillips (1991: 130) regards knowledge and ethics as the two essential principles of any profession. The relevant body of knowledge is derived from a scientific foundation or institutionalised knowledge (Dale, 1994: 210).

Professional organisations selectively admit new members into their organisation (Baker, 1995: 2). The newly-admitted members should, as a prerequisite, have completed their training and internship (Baker, 1995: 2; Villiers, 1997: 94). The training referred to here is usually undertaken at the institutions of higher education (Baker, 1995: 2). Hall (in Carlan & Lewis, 2009: 372) regards professional organisations as referent organisations against which "ideas, standards, and judgements" can be tested. Furthermore, Roddenberry (in Faull & Rose, 2012: 2) and Neyroud (2011:286) opine that continuous self-development should form an integral part of the educational element in defining a profession. This means that education serves as the foundation for any profession.

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3.2.1.2 Code of ethics

Professional organisations are governed by codes of ethics. Ethics and integrity are the core values of professionals (Glenn et al., 2003: 23). Cox, McCamey and Scaramella (2014: 241) describe ethics as “the study of right and wrong, duty, responsibility, and personal character”. To Villiers (1997: 107), a code of ethics is a “publicly expressed set of principles” upon which a professional may rely in deciding on the correct action to be taken in a particular situation. Ethics is thus centred on moral obligation (Cox et al., 2014: 241). Kleinig (1996: 33) regards a code of ethics as a necessary trait of professions because professionals handle confidential interests of people. The “collective adoption” of a code of ethics is a sign of the genuine professionalisation of an occupation (Kleinig, 1996: 33). Phillips (1991: 125, 130, 133) is of the view that professionalism is premised on “ethical standards and knowledge and skills”, and that professionals should be looked upon to conduct themselves in an ethical manner, thus translating into serving the public interest. Ethical codes in all professional organisations entail developing and maintaining expertise as an integral part of ethical commitment by professionals (Colby & Sullivan, 2008: 411). The development and maintenance of professional expertise exert pressure on professionals to stay current in their field of expertise (Colby & Sullivan, 2008: 411).

Codes of ethics are beneficial to both the professionals and the public they serve because they are a guarantee that the service provided will be of a certain standard (Kleinig, 1996: 33). According to Gundhus (2012: 190), professional institutions and associations are responsible for the enforcement of their respective “codes of professional ethics”. These codes provide guidance to professionals on the ethical dimension of discharging their duties (Gundhus, 2012: 190). Dishonesty and a lack of integrity are therefore seriously frowned upon and perceived as being inconsistent with the prescribed professional core values (Stout, 2011: 304). The enforcement of the standards and norms is thus executed by means of formal and informal channels (Walker, 2014: 705). The existence of a code of ethics also means that individual members of the profession risk losing their professional standing should they fail to comply with the established ethical code (Kleinig, 1996: 33). Moreover, Gundhus (2012: 189) argues that professionalism strongly emphasises individual self-regulation in the pursuance of ethical conduct among members of a profession. This means that the existence of and adherence to the ethical code of professional conduct are imperative for the maintenance of the legitimacy of any profession.

3.2.1.3 Autonomy and discretion

Professional institutions are afforded the autonomy and discretionary powers to conduct their own affairs. According to Snizek (in Carlan & Lewis, 2009: 372) as well as Gundhus (2012: 188), autonomy means the freedom to make decisions unhindered by outsiders. Professionals are afforded more autonomous authority because of their understanding of the theoretical principles applicable to the service they provide (Kleinig, 1996: 37). They are "not dictated by a rigid and closely defined set of rules" in the provision of their service (Kleinig, 1996: 37-38).

Therefore, the main reason why discretion is allowed in a professional context is to allow flexibility in solving the complex problems faced by professionals (Hughes, 2013: 9). "Autonomy and discretionary judgement" in dealing with cases of a complex nature are essential in defining professions (Gundhus, 2012: 190). According to Kleinig (1996: 82), a person who displays discretion is one who depicts "good, sound, careful or wise judgement in practical, and particularly interpersonal, affairs". Self-regulation re-enforces the thinking that judgement can only be passed by colleagues who possess an equal measure of the "intellectual tools and expertise" displayed by the individual practitioners (Carlan & Lewis, 2009: 372). In this context, the practitioners enjoy the monopoly to recruit and train new members, to develop and enforce the applicable standards of ethical conduct, as well as to create and disseminate new knowledge (Walker, 2014: 705).

3.2.1.4 Accountability

Professional organisations have a system through which they could hold their members accountable for unbecoming conduct. Accountability refers to an "obligation or willingness to accept responsibility" (Ethics Resource Centre, in Swinney & Elder, 2015: 108). It is essential for professions to have professional bodies to which they account (Phillips, 1991: 131). Glenn et al. (2003: 31) sum this up when they argue that all professions are "answerable to regulation and the rule of law". The legal and medical professions, for example, acknowledge the fact that they account to their clients (Swinney & Elder, 2015: 109). Fyfe (2013: 411) opines, within the context of policing in the USA, that the police could be held to account for their conduct by the local community they serve. To this end, Walker (2001: 7) argues that, theoretically, police officers in a democratic country account to the public and to the law. According to Snyman (2010: 27-28), a lack of professional accountability is confirmed to be at the core of unprofessional behaviour among police officials. In the UK, the Independent Police

Complaints Commission (IPCC) plays an oversight role over the functioning of the police service (Heaton, 2010: 79). Several other countries, such as England, Canada and the USA, have oversight agencies whose mandate is to ensure police accountability (Walker, 2001: 69). In South Africa, this role is the legislated responsibility of the Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID) as provided in the Independent Police Investigative Directorate Act, 1 of 2011 (South Africa, 2011).

3.2.1.5 Self-regulation

Professionals are inclined to regulate themselves in the pursuance of their professional status. Price (1976: 15) defined a professional person, as early as four decades ago, as someone who possesses "specialized knowledge", technical know-how as well as a certain amount of commitment to the profession. Price (1976: 15) further maintains that professionals are intent on regulating themselves rather than being regulated by outsiders. Dale (1994: 212) and Kleinig (1996: 39) agree with Price and opine that the ability of a professional to apply the acquired knowledge correctly cannot be evaluated by any other person who does not possess the same knowledge. Professional organisations monitor and control their professional standing by establishing standards which shape the performance of individuals within the profession and regulate their professional advancement (Baker, 1995: 2). It is for this purpose that professional organisations establish their own "formal disciplinary procedures" (Walker, 2014: 705). Therefore, the claim to self-regulation by professionals is premised on the belief that no person outside the profession possesses the requisite skills to pronounce a judgement, and that such judgements are based on objective rather than subjective factors, thus guaranteeing the passing of neutral judgements (Price, 1976: 15). While self-regulation in other professions may be managed on a national or international basis, the management of this phenomenon in the police is usually limited to the respective policing boundaries (Green & Gates, 2014: 78). Snyman (2010: 25) found that the ability of a person to manage himself or herself and others well constitutes one of the professional traits identified by the police respondents.

3.2.1.6 Accreditation

One of the principles of professionalism is that professionals have a system which requires them to be accredited with a professional body. The accreditation of an organisation as a professional one means that such an organisation has complied with the stipulated standards applicable to the profession and that it is perceived as such by its peers (Baker, 1995: 14).

Professional associations exist in order to maintain a professional culture and training, and to regulate entry into the profession (Hughes, 2013: 9). Phillips (1991: 131), states, with reference to policing, that the training which professionals undergo must be accredited.

Linked to professional accreditation is the concept of certification. Certification refers to a licence to perform functions which are exclusively reserved for a specific profession (Lumb, 1994: 4). In a policing context, certification means the granting of the right perform functions related to the enforcement of the law (Lumb, 1994: 4). Lumb (1994: 12, 15) holds the view that tutors should be subjected to a re-certification process to ensure the enhancement of their skills, knowledge and abilities. The accreditation and licencing of professionals enables their mobility across national jurisdictions, thereby enhancing true professionalism (Stone & Travis, 2013: 29). Therefore, professionals such as engineers, lawyers and doctors can practise their profession across nations (Stone & Travis, 2013: 29).

3.2.1.7 Public service

Professionals are motivated by a desire to serve the best interests of the public. Colby and Sullivan (2008: 405) argue that one of the defining traits of a profession is the commitment to being of service to the wellbeing of society. In agreement with Colby and Sullivan, Glenn et al. (2003: 26) maintain that the provision of service to the public is one of the principles of a profession. For example, traditional professions such as law and medicine provide a service to the public (Kleinig, 1996: 32). Hughes (2013: 7) calls this principle “service orientation”, which manifests itself as a pledge or commitment to provide certain types of service which are ordinarily not provided by any members of society. Glenn et al. (2003: 26) therefore equates public service with a calling to serve. According to Snyman (2010: 37), police officials understand this principle as a reference to one’s willingness to perform duties above expectations and being passionate about one’s work. In their agreement with Colby and Sullivan, as well as Snyman, Swinney and Elder (2015: 122) refer to the professional principle of public service as a “devotion to the public good”. This means that a common thread found in all professional organisations is the desire to serve the public good.

3.2.2 Characteristics of police professionalism

Within the South African context, Snyman (2010: 25-27) found that members of the SAPS regarded the following as the inherent characteristics of police professionalism:

- “Clear sense of purpose”;
- Passion for work ;
- Willingness to go beyond the call of duty;
- Being able “to manage oneself and others well”;
- Being proactive enough to have systems in place;
- Working as a team; and
- Having “a holistic and balanced outlook” on oneself and one’s environment.

According to Schneider (2009: 33), researchers such as Capps as well as Crank, Payn and Jackson are of the view that policing has all the main attributes found in any profession, such as specialised knowledge, accreditation with professional bodies and discretionary decision-making powers. The attributes of a profession with specific reference to policing are discussed hereunder.

3.2.2.1 Education as the cornerstone of professionalism in policing

Education is the cornerstone of professionalism in policing in the same manner as in other professions (Glenn et al., 2003: 26; Schneider, 2009: 32). Cordner (2014: 279) maintains that education and training is the core of the police approach to achieve professional status. The value of college education in policing is premised on the assumption that the skills and knowledge required to function effectively could be learned in a classroom environment rather than through workplace learning (Schneider, 2009: 33). The value of education in policing has been the subject of commissions of enquiry in the USA and Australia, with the resultant recommendation, among others, that tertiary education be the entry-level requirement for enlistment in the police (Rowe, 2009: 2; Schneider, 2009: 34-35).

According to Schneider (2009: 34) and Rowe (2009: 3), this viewpoint is shared by the majority of experts in policing and police administrators. Furthermore, Rowe (2009: 3) alludes to the fact that the recent increase in tertiary education for police recruits was triggered by the growing interest in the police profession and the “broader structural” changes affecting the police forces and tertiary institutions. The need to embrace police professionalism gave rise to increased participation of police services in tertiary education programmes (Rowe, 2009: 4). The proponents of police professionalism opine that improved opportunities available to police officers to access tertiary education enable them to effectively deal with the complicated and exerting challenges prevalent in modern-day society (Rowe, 2009: 5).

However, not everyone agrees with the notion prescribing college education as a requirement for enlistment in the police in the quest to achieve police professionalism. Some, for instance, argue that effective policing skills are learned on the job and not in a classroom environment as opined by proponents of tertiary education (Rowe, 2009: 287; Schneider, 2009: 37). It is hard to evaluate the impact of education on policing because it is not clear whether professionalism is based on the integrity of police officials as individuals or on their performance (Rowe, 2009: 4). Furthermore, it is equally difficult to determine the extent to which tertiary education improves professionalism due to the fact that the meaning of police professionalism is not actually clarified (Rowe, 2009: 4). Gundhus (2012: 183) distinguishes between experience-based professionalism and standardised professionalism when analysing different types of police perceptions of professionalism. Gundhus (2012: 183) maintains, in this regard, that standardised professionalism is based on "formal competence, standards, use of technology, loyalty to truth and science, principles of due process". On the other hand, experience-based professionalism emphasises reliance on "gut feeling, sudden impulses, intuition, loyalty to colleagues, and normative affinity with crime control" (Gundhus, 2012: 183). Carlan and Lewis (2009: 382) argue that the employment of college graduates may not necessarily guarantee professionalism in policing. The discussion above means that education is a condition without which professionalism in policing cannot be realised.

3.2.2.2 Code of ethics promoting police professionalism

Integrity and ethical conduct are the moral pillars of any profession. In this regard, Stout (2011: 304) argues that honesty constitutes the core value of a profession. According to Carter and Wilson (2006: 43), a profession must have a code of ethics and must subsequently hold its members to account. Millet (in Glenn et al., 2003: 27) opines that a "professional status" provides an incentive to its holders to conduct themselves in a manner which is socially acceptable. The acquisition and maintenance of "professional status" by members of a profession is dependent upon their upholding of the prescribed standards by means of self-censoring (Glenn et al., 2003: 27). Police ethics is regarded as the special obligation bestowed upon police officers to comply with their moral duty in the performance of their duties (Schneider, 2009: 29). The police code of ethics and code of conduct are therefore implemented to deal with police corruption and to serve as a guiding light towards fair, just and equitable policing in order to lessen ethical dilemmas which are faced by police officials (Schneider, 2009: 30).

In comparison to other professions in the UK, such as psychology and social work, each of which is regulated by a single code of ethics, Stout (2011: 307) found that the regulation of police ethics was somewhat different. In this context, Stout (2011: 307) found that the police were governed by "the Oath of Office, the Statement of Common Purpose and Values" as well as the "Police Code of Conduct" (Metropolitan Police Authority, in Stout, 2011: 307). The code of ethics in Europe is founded on the "United Nations Declaration of Human Rights, The Council of Europe Convention on Human Rights, The United Nations Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials [and] The Council of Europe Declaration on the Police" (Villiers, 1997: 109). According to the Northern Ireland Policing Board (in Stout, 2011: 307), the police service of Northern Ireland is regulated by its own "Code of Ethics".

In Turkey, the Turkish Police Force has a code of ethics modelled along that of the police in Europe (Cerrah, Cevik, Goksu & Balcioglu, 2009: 4). Cerrah et al. (2009: 7) indicate further that police ethics has formed part of the curriculum of the training programme of the Turkish Police Force from 2005 and that, prior to 2005, training on ethical conduct was in the form of informal advice which experienced members afforded to the recruits. In the USA, the Los Angeles Police Department teaches its recruits about the core values of integrity and respect for the rule of law, among others, in their daily activities (Glenn et al., 2003: 31). In South Africa, the professional conduct of members of the SAPS is regulated within the confines of a regulatory framework which consists of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act [No. 108 of 1996], the Police Act, rules, regulations, national instructions and standing orders, among others (Faull, 2013: 23). In this regard, the SAPS introduced a code of conduct in 1997 to provide guidance to its members on how to fulfil their constitutional obligations in a democratic state (Faull & Rose, 2012: 6).

The very existence of codes of ethics and conduct in police organisations indicates that policing is a profession "which values ethical behaviour on the part of their members and that police officials are expected to meet certain behavioural standards even when they are not engaged in the core business of policing" (Stout, 2011: 307). Secondly, the code of conduct refers, in addition to "honesty and integrity", to due diligence and conscientiousness in the performance of delegated duties (Stout, 2011: 307). The maintenance of integrity by individual police officials impacts positively on the reputational integrity of the police organisations they represent and on the society they serve (Cerrah et al., 2009: 4). This means that ethics are an inherent part of police professionalism.

3.2.2.3 Recruitment and selection as foundation of professionalism in police organisations

Vollmer (in Palombo, 1995: 4) argued almost a century ago that the inferior quality of personnel constituted the weakest link in police organisations across the USA. According to Schneider (2009: 42) and Cox et al. (2014: 67), the recruitment and selection process is the first step in accountability, and the primary object thereof is to identify the best and most suitable candidates, as well as candidates who have the potential to execute the policing role honestly and with integrity. Police agencies are at risk of incurring "vicarious liability" for criminality or libel committed by their members and for "negligent hiring", which renders the recruitment and selection process an even more critical component of professionalism (Bennett & Hess, 2004: 187). Bennett and Hess (2004: 187) explain that "negligent hiring" relates to the hiring of personnel who are neither qualified nor suitable for police work, whereas vicarious liability is about holding the employer responsible for the actions or inactions of its employees.

Police agencies need to recruit candidates who regard policing as a calling, who regard the public as a partner, and who would enforce and not transgress the very law they are entrusted with enforcing (Bennett & Hess, 2004: 186). According to Cox et al. (2014: 67), the police personnel are recruited and selected at entry, supervisory and chief levels. A duly undertaken process of recruitment and selection will lead to the reduction in lawsuits against the police organisations concerned. It can also lead to improved personnel performance and professionalisation (Cox et al., 2014: 186). It could therefore be deduced that the recruitment and selection of police officials constitute a cornerstone of professionalism in police organisations.

3.2.2.4 Training and certification enhancing professional development in police organisations

In addition to education, professionalism is enhanced through training and certification. Funk and Wagalls (in Schneider, 2009: 54) distinguish education from training within the context of policing. Funk and Wagalls (in Schneider, 2009: 54) maintain that the former deals with the academic aspects of policing, whereas the latter relates to the practical part thereof, including in-service and field training of police officials. To Cordner (2014: 9), "training is more concrete and practical, and education more abstract and theoretical". Given the difficult and complex nature of policing, the training to become a police official is also immersed in complexity (Cox et al., 2014: 97). According to Cordner (2014: 278), training constitutes one of the standard

approaches used in organisations such as the police to enhance the professional development of personnel.

Police training entails basic recruit training, field training, in-service training and other types of training (Cox et al., 2014: 97-108). In agreement with Cox et al. as well as Funk and Wagalls, Cordner (2014: 278) states that police organisations put a heavy reliance on all sorts of training, such as basic and advanced training, to keep police officials knowledgeable about their work. Training at a police academy covers a wide range of subjects such as criminal law, professionalism, ethics and the use of force (Schneider, 2009: 57). Bayerl, Horton, Jacobs, Rogiest, Reguli, Gruschinske, Constanzo, Stojanovski, Vonas, Gasco and Elliot (2014: 734) also acknowledge that professional police training requires knowledge of "laws and regulations". According to the School Violence Alert (in Schneider, 2009: 59), specialised training is required for the effective policing of special events or special clientele, such as schools, which are naturally different from the normal policing of streets. There has been a shift on the part of the police towards an "adult learning approach" in the development of police officials who aspire to obtain a professional status (Cordner, 2014: 278). This approach is premised on the principle that it is the responsibility of the student, as opposed to the instructor, to learn (Cordner, 2014: 278). This means that training is one of the key attributes of professionalism in police organisations.

Certification forms a part of police professionalism. According to Schneider (2009: 62), the Municipal Police Officers' Education and Training Commission carries the responsibility of providing certification to all police officials and recruits in Pennsylvania, USA. The Municipal Police Officers' Education and Training Commission is also responsible for the annual updating of in-service training (Schneider, 2009: 62). The certification is renewable every two years on condition that the compulsory in-service stipulations are complied with (Schneider, 2009: 63). In Kentucky, USA, the "Peace Officer Professional Standards Act 1998" provides for the mandatory certification of all police officers, with a few exceptions, under the "Peace Officers Professional Standards" (Cordner, 2014: 280).

In agreement with Cordner, Faull and Rose (2012: 3) argue that a report commissioned by the Home Office in Britain recommended that police officials be registered with a regulatory body and pay an annual fee in order to retain their membership thereof, and thus their licence to perform duties as police officers. The regulatory body would therefore protect the public interests by ensuring that the police perform their duties to the required standards or forfeit

their licences to practice (Faull & Rose, 2012: 3). In Australia, the Police Federation has been arguing for the establishment of the "National Registration Scheme", which would be tasked with setting the national standards for policing (Burgers, in Green & Gates, 2014: 78). It is hoped that the scheme will be beneficial to policing in many respects, such as the improved mobility of officers (Burgers, in Green & Gates, 2014: 78; Neyroud, in Green & Gates 2014: 78). However, the call for the establishment of the national registration body has been met with resistance given the perception that such a regulatory body will undermine "the rights and privileges" of police officers (Rennie, in Green & Gates, 2014: 78-79). In South Africa, in comparison to the USA and UK, police officers are not required to have certification with any regulatory body, nor is there any such body in existence (Faull & Rose, 2012: 3).

3.2.2.5 Autonomy and discretion as attributes to maintain professionalism in police organisations

Professions are known for their autonomous and discretionary powers. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, autonomy is a defining concept in professionalism (Gundhus, 2012: 188). It relates to the freedom to manage one's own internal organisational affairs, including the recruitment and disciplining of members (Gundhus, 2012: 188; Walker, 2014: 705). According to Walker (2014: 705), the professional attribute of autonomy is based on the monopoly on skill which is possessed by those in the profession. This view is supported by Glenn et al. (2003: 25), who maintain that, within the context of policing, the police alone have an exclusive right or mandate to perform policing functions. In agreement with Gundhus as well as Walker, Green and Gates (2014: 78) argue that a profession should be granted the freedom to operate independently. However, the autonomy of the police is regarded as being curtailed to a certain level by influences emanating from outside the police organisations, such as their relationship with their political masters (Green & Gates, 2014: 78; Gundhus, 2012: 188). Gilbert (in Green & Gates, 2014: 78) maintains that, notwithstanding political pressure, the police generally have "operational independence". This means that autonomous decision-making in police organisations is imperative for the maintenance of professionalism in police organisations.

Police officers have a considerable amount of discretionary powers entrusted to them. According to Wylupski and Champion (2013: 311) and Cordner (2014: 31), operational members of the police rely heavily on discretion when attending to requests for police services on a daily basis. To Cox and McCamey (in Cox et al., 2014: 227), police discretion simply refers to "the exercise of individual choice or judgement concerning possible courses of

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action". The existence of police discretionary powers is based on the fact that the law must be interpreted and applied to real-life situations, that the law cannot completely prescribe, and that law enforcement is but one aspect of policing (Miller & Blackler, 2005: 42-43). Discretion is a necessary and normal feature of every aspect of policing (Cox et al., 2014: 228; Rowe, 2007: 280). This view is supported by Cordner (2014: 32) and Miller and Blackler (2005: 42), who argue that the nature of police work entails choosing, from a number of options, the most suitable solution to the problem at hand. The police may, as a consequence of the exercise of discretionary powers bestowed upon them, decide to investigate or decline to investigate a potential crime (Miller & Blackler, 2005: 43). It is for this reason that police officials in the UK generally resent the "positive arrest policy", which compels them to arrest respondents in domestic violence incidents, without exception, in order to increase the conviction rate related thereto and to serve as a deterrent measure (Rowe, 2007: 282-283). The policy is regarded as a slap on the professional competence of police officers to exercise their judgement in situations where no two cases are ever the same (Rowe, 2007: 288). According to Cordner (2014: 32) and Cox (in Cox et al., 2014: 228), the exercise of discretion by the police is influenced by the following factors:

- Legislation;
- The policies of the police department concerned;
- The political climate;
- The situation being dealt with;
- The availability of resources;
- The occupational environment under which they perform their duties; and
- The need to attain and maintain public support for the police and other stakeholders in the CJS.

Discretion is therefore necessitated by the realisation that it is impractical for the police to rigidly enforce every law without exception, or to provide all the services expected from them at the same time (Cox et al., 2014: 228; Kleinig, 1996: 90). However, the exercise of discretion may be controversial should the public view it as discriminatory (Cox et al., 2014: 229; Miller & Blackler, 2005: 59). For instance, the disproportionate number of members of minority groups processed through the CJS is cited as an example of perceived bias in the exercise of discretion (Cox et al., 2014: 229; Rowe, 2007: 280). If applied in an inappropriate manner, discretion could fuel the public perception that the dispensation of justice is reserved

exclusively for the “highest bidder” (More & Miller, 2011: 361). However, if the police were to enforce laws rigidly and not exercise discretion, a heavy burden would be placed on the police resources as well as those of the courts and correctional facilities (Slothower, 2014: 355). From the discussion above, it can therefore be inferred that police discretion is an inseparable feature of policing and subsequently of police professionalism.

3.2.2.6 Calling and service ideal

Professionals are involved in their professions as a calling or out of a desire to serve the public. The work of a professional is similar to a calling (Glenn et al., 2003: 26). A calling demands an undivided dedication to serve the community and a lifelong pledge to uphold the standards to which the profession subscribes (Glenn et al., 2003: 26; Walker, 2014: 705). However, the professional standards maintained by the professionals could, at times, be in conflict with the expectations of the public (Walker, 2014: 705). In the event of a conflict between the performance standards and the public expectations, the service ideal dictates that the response of the professionals should be guided by factors other than self-preservation (Walker, 2014: 705). In this case, Green and Gates (2014: 77) advise that the leaders of police organisations should constantly renegotiate their roles with their clientele for them to enjoy legitimacy in the public eye. Furthermore, Barber (in Green & Gates, 2014: 76) and Higgs, McAllister and Whiteford (in Green & Gates, 2014: 76) also agree that the first prerequisite of a profession is that it should serve “a practical purpose” and be instrumental in providing a service to the public. The police services of democratic countries in the West fulfil the service requirement in that their main “role and function” is the provision of services to the public (Green & Gates, 2014: 76). Interestingly, Glenn et al. (2003: 31) found that not a single one of the police probationers and field trainers interviewed indicated that they had enlisted in the police out of a desire to serve the public. In fact, they indicated that the main attraction for enlistment was pay and finding employment (Glenn et al., 2003: 31). However, Barber (in Green & Gates, 2014: 76) is of the view that the mere fulfilment of the service requirement is not in itself sufficient for the police to be regarded as a profession. This means that police officers should be attracted to their profession by a desire to serve the community.

3.2.2.7 Accountability

Professionals are accountable for the performance of their duties. According to Stone and Travis (2013: 12), police professionalism should be centred on the core values of "accountability, legitimacy and innovation". Following an initial reluctance by police leaders to embrace accountability for their organisations, police accountability is now a common practice (Stone & Travis, 2013: 23). Police chiefs now account for the incidence of crime, the cost of running their organisation and the conduct of police officers who fall under their command (Stone & Travis, 2013: 23-24). Wilson (in Sklansky, 2011: 10) insists that there is a need for the police to account and that every delegated authority should be followed by an equal measure of responsibility. Wilson (in Sklansky, 2011: 10) emphasises further that control mechanisms should be in place to ensure that police officers who exercise authority which is vested in them function in a climate of accountability for the consequences of their conducts.

One way of ensuring police accountability is the establishment of oversight bodies like ombudsmen and police boards (Miller & Blackler, 2005: 37). Miller and Blackler (2005: 37) further argue that the police are also subject to legal scrutiny with the potential for imposition of imprisonment for more serious non-compliance. The primary objectives of civilian oversight over the police is to have a user-friendly system for reporting complaints against the police, to get rid of the "self-protective isolation of the police" and to have complaints dealt with from the perspective of citizens (Walker, 2001: 5). However, those opposed to civilian oversight regard it as an illegitimate violation of the professional standing of the police as a profession (Walker, 2001: 179). All public servants in a democratic society, including the police, are accountable to the public through their political office-bearers (Cox et al., 2014: 247). This view is supported by Walker (2001: 9-10), who maintains that the political system, the courts and the professional police administration are the alternative ways through which police accountability could be achieved. Flanagan (in Green & Gates, 2014: 78) maintains that policing is counted among the most accountable occupations with the highest level of insistence on self-discipline.

According to Walker (2014: 710), there are two aspects to police accountability. Firstly, police organisations account for the services they provide regarding matters such as the maintenance of order, and secondly, police officers have individual accountability in matters relating to how they treat individual members of the community, amongst others. In an effort to enhance their professional status, police organisations have made attempts to be more accountable by

establishing "internal affairs units" and "early intervention programs", as well as improving platforms through which citizens could lay complaints (Cox et al., 2014: 248). The "early intervention programs" are aimed at dealing with police officers who have a tendency of displaying problematic behaviour (Cox et al., 2014: 248). This approach is in line with the expectations that professionals should account to their employers and to the public for the consequences of their conduct or omission. Therefore, the police are the subject of internal and external oversight (Heaton, 2010: 81).

3.3 DETERMINATION OF POLICING AS A PROFESSIONAL PROFESSION

There are disagreements among authorities in the policing environment regarding whether policing is or should be regarded as a professional profession (Carlan & Lewis, 2009: 383; Glenn et al., 2003: 30; Reiss, in Walker, 2014: 706; Rowe, 2009: 4; Walker, 2014: 704). Those who are opposed to the determination of policing as a profession argue that policing has not yet achieved the status of a profession (Dantzker, in Carlan & Lewis, 2009: 383; Lumb, 1994: 1-2).

In arguing against the police becoming professionals, Lumb (1994: 2) opines that it is not possible for the police to meet the professional requirements of self-regulation and autonomy. This is because the police, as "the executive arm of the government", are not afforded the autonomy enjoyed by other professions and are not free from political control (Lumb, 1994: 2). Cordner (2014: 279) argues further that it is an unrealistic dream that the police could ever become a profession. Cordner motivates that the dream is unrealistic because, apart from the fact that the police are not able to produce new knowledge, they will never keep up with the minimum entry prerequisites or the higher salaries associated with other professions. Wilson (in Walker, 2014: 705) and Kelly and Norrgard (in Walker, 2014: 707) maintain that police work does not meet the basic requirements of a profession. Wilson (in Walker, 2014: 705) argues further that the knowledge and skills required to perform police duties are acquired on the job and not in separate and independent academic institutions, that they do not belong to a professional body, and that it is unlikely that the police will ever change these inherent characteristics. According to Reiss (in Walker, 2014: 706) the police, unlike other professions whose authority is well accepted by their clientele, have to establish their authority. Police authority is also unique to the individual police officer, without the support of a professional body (Walker, 2014: 706).

The main obstacle for the police to achieve professional status is their collective unwillingness to fully embrace higher education (Baro & Burlingame, 1999: 60). An expectation to kill excludes police from being professionals, because professionals should serve and not harm the best interests of the community (Mathews, in Glenn et al., 2003: 30). The bureaucratic nature of the occupational environment of policing limits the autonomy which is enjoyed by other professionals such as doctors and lawyers (Glenn et al., 2003: 30).

Furthermore, Kelly and Norrgard (in Walker, 2014: 707) support the argument against police being regarded as professionals and reiterate that police officers do not belong to any professional bodies, are not expected to possess high educational qualifications, are not highly regarded by their communities, are not held accountable through "effective internal codes of ethics", and have restricted lateral mobility. The personal viewpoints of police officers on whether they regard themselves as professionals vary (Glenn et al., 2003: 31). For example, Glenn et al. (2003: 31) state that several retired leaders of the police in the USA believe that it is infeasible for police work to become a profession in view of the fact that operational police officers are too interested in the work and salary for them to attain a professional status. On the other hand, the Chief of the Los Angeles Police Department, Chief Bratton, believes that policing is a profession (Glenn et al., 2003: 31).

The advocates of police professionalism are naturally more inclined to have a favourable view thereof. Police leaders are of the view that the main motivation for the professionalisation of the police is the need to provide the best service to their clients (Australian New Zealand Police Advisory Agency (ANZPAA), in Green & Gates, 2014:81). The provision of the best policing services is achievable through the employment of "well-trained and educated" police officers who display "the highest level of professional integrity" (Burgess, in Green & Gates, 2014: 81; Lanyon, in Green & Gates, 2014: 81). The police comply with the professional requirement of corporateness in that they are bound by a "co-operative sense" of cohesion which is evident in their "shared expectations and responsibilities" (Glenn et al., 2003: 29).

According to authors such as Radelet and Carter (in Schneider, 2009: 33), Capps (in Schneider, 2009: 33), Schneider (2009: 28,134) and Reiss (in Walker, 2014: 706), policing complies with many of the attributes of any profession such as service orientation, possession of specialised knowledge, ethics and discretion. Reiss (in Walker, 2014: 706) puts emphasis on the fact that policing is a "moral call" work that demands more "sacrifice and commitment" to serve. Like

doctors and lawyers, police officers make routine decisions that require "technical and moral judgements" that affect the wellbeing of people (Reiss, in Walker, 2014: 704).

3.4 SUMMARY

The analysis of the concept of professionalism has revealed disagreements among authority figures about what professionalism entails. There is also disagreement about the correct definition of professionalism. Professionalism within police organisations also poses challenges about the status of policing as a professional profession. There are opposing views on whether police organisations are professional organisations. Opponents hold the view that the educational entry requirements to become a police officer are too low for the police to be afforded professional status. However, it is generally agreed that there are principles which organisations, including the police, must comply with in order to be regarded as professional organisations. These principles are, among others, education, autonomy and accountability.

CHAPTER 4 PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the analysis and integration of the qualitative data (unstructured in-depth individual interview, as discussed in section 1.10.1 of chapter one of this study are presented and discussed by means of emergent themes and sub-categories, to categorise patterns that were identified in order to indicate the extent to which the aim and objectives of this study, as mentioned in section 1.4, have been achieved. To achieve the aim and objectives of this study, 19 unstructured in-depth phenomenological individual interviews were conducted with serving and former members of the SAPS who hold academic doctorate degrees.

The research methodology, as discussed in section 1.9 of chapter one of this study, was implemented and complied with during the data gathering and analysis process in order to ensure the trustworthiness of this study. The demographic profiles of the research participants are presented in Annexure C. During the process of data gathering, the objectives of the study, as well as the interview schedule and follow-up questions, were used as guidelines to structure the discussion. From the answers of the participants to the questions mentioned above, the subsequent processes of data analysis by the researcher and an independent coder, as well as the consequent consensus discussion, the main themes emerged.

A discussion of the outcome of the individual interviews follows.

4.2 THE OUTCOME OF THE INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

In the discussion that follows, the main themes and accompanying categories are discussed. Firstly, an explanation of each theme is provided, followed by direct verbatim quotes from the participants' responses to substantiate these responses. Lastly, in presenting each theme and its categories, an analysis of the findings is presented which serves as a conclusion for each theme.

Table 4.1 provides a summary of the themes and categories that emerged during in-depth individual interviews.

Table 4.1: Emergent themes, categories and codes from the data analysis

Theme	Category	Code
Motivation for obtaining a doctoral degree in the SAPS	Personal motives/ambitions and enrichment	Becoming knowledgeable, educated and independent
		Family members as role models
		Personal background
		To be a role model to others
		Career promotion: a contentious issue
	External encouragement from others	
	Improving policing: a limited number	
Most participants' expectations were met		
Contributions or added value at various levels, the greatest being at personal level	Personal development through improved understanding and enhanced skills	Self-worth and confidence
		Self-motivation
		Higher-order and critical thinking skills enhanced mental ability
		Creative thinking
		Decision-making
		Problem-solving
		Management skills
		Negotiation skills
		Socioeconomic and political insight
		Reporting/writing and policy directives
	Interpersonal exposure and connection	Interpersonal and communication skills
	Scholarly skills	
	The internal occupational environment of the police differed at different levels, with some experiencing it as an obstacle	Innovative training
		Enhanced professionalism as police officer
		Improved job performance
		Promotion/career path influence: some benefitted, others did not or it was not the motivation

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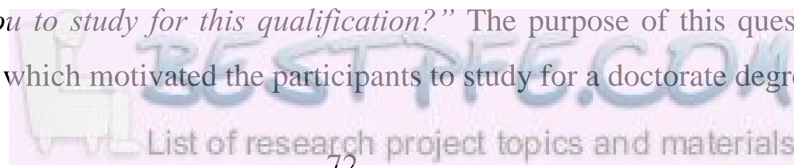
Theme	Category	Code
		Knowledge gained operationalised
	External transferability: occupational environment of the police	Personal capacity
		Community enhancement
		Improved the image of the SAPS
		International exposure
	Limited or no career path or value in the SAPS	
Appropriate placement within the SAPS	Correctly placed/empowerment for current position	
	Not correctly placed	Lack of support
	Correctly placed but not because of qualification	
SAPS's reliance on science and research is a requirement to move forward	Positive view of the value of science and research	Criminals are becoming more sophisticated
		Changes require innovative ways: must be researched before enactment
		Establishment of a research portfolio
		Right people appointed
	Valued but only a future possibility	
	Failure to appreciate the value of science and research internal to SAPS	Research is not a priority
		Lack of executive or senior management buy-in
		The nature of the SAPS culture: Conflict between the identities of being an academic/thinker and a police officer.
		What is preached is not what is lived
	Recommendations	Study in the fields where they are
		Police library
		Independent research division
		Issues of incentives and counter arguments
		Become part of the promotion policy

Theme	Category	Code
		Retention strategy
Relevance of a doctorate degree in the SAPS	Constructive use	
Acknowledgement of the doctoral degree varies	Positive recognition	Manner of address
		Congratulations
		Positive engagement
	Internally respected to a degree	Subordinates/juniors
		Superiors
	No internal recognition	Subordinates
		Derogative statements/perceived humiliating practices
		Value experience/rank over qualifications
		Window dressing
		Being a threat (to superiors and others)
		People feel intimidated
		Perception that you are not operationally inclined (a career policeman), only academically
		Non-involvement/alienation
	External validation greater than internal acknowledgement	Universities and other entities
No expectation to be treated in a special manner		

4.2.1 Motivation for obtaining doctoral degree in the South African Police Service

There has to be a motivation for anyone to undertake further studies, particularly at doctoral level. This theme sought to provide an understanding of what motivated participants to obtain a doctorate degree. An understanding of the motivation for SAPS members to obtain a doctorate degree might serve as a foundation for the creation of a conducive environment for other members of the SAPS to pursue studies up to a doctorate level.

The responses of the interview participants to the following question gave rise to this theme: *"What motivated you to study for this qualification?"* The purpose of this question was to establish the factors which motivated the participants to study for a doctorate degree. A closer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analysis of the responses provided by participants to this question revealed that there were three main factors that motivated them to obtain a doctorate degree. It emerged from their responses that participants were motivated by personal motives or ambitions and personal enrichment, as well as external encouragement from others and a desire to improve policing.

In-depth individual interviews with participants revealed three different motivations to study for a doctorate qualification. The majority of the participants indicated that they were motivated to study for this qualification by personal motives and personal enrichment. For example, one participant indicated that *"... it was my ambition to complete it."* This view was shared by another participant who said that *"... you do it because you want to enrich your[self]."* The fact that personal ambitions and enrichment were motivating factors for studying a doctoral degree was also evident from the responses of other participants. For instance, another participant indicated that *"... and I didn't study because I want promotion, I studied because I want to improve myself, I want to develop myself, I want to see myself achieving things."* Yet another participant mentioned, in this regard, that *"... then I did not aspire to ... to be promoted to the next level ..."*, while another simply stated that he or she obtained a doctoral degree for *"... personal development ..."*.

In explaining a desire for personal enrichment, participants further indicated that the following aspects played a role in this regard:

- Becoming knowledgeable, educated and independent;
- Family members as role models;
- Personal growth;
- Personal background;
- Being a role model to others; and
- Career promotion.

As far as becoming knowledgeable, educated and independent, participants gave insight into what motivated them to study for this qualification. One participant stated that his or her personal motive to obtain a doctorate degree was derived from a desire to *"... gain more knowledge ..."*. Another participant mentioned that he or she studied for this qualification in order to achieve *"... academically which is helping me to address challenges with a better understanding... it improves your knowledge ..."*. One more participant said, in this context, that *"[w]hat I wanted was to be highly educated, that was [sic] my goal, whether I'm employed*

or not. So, basically, whatever that was coming along in my career life, I was not that worried ...”

A further explanation for studying a doctoral degree which formed part of becoming knowledgeable, educated and independent was:

> *“... now that I’ve achieved this, ... I would say what motivated me, it’s to be independent, self-reliant because, once you are educated or you have a doctorate, you are said to be an expert, then you can have an impact on people’s lives and ... on how people view the education fraternity”.*

Lastly, another participant indicated, in this context, that he or she obtained a doctoral degree so that he or she could have *“... a better understanding of the criminal justice system ...”.*

In explaining family members as role models, the only participant who identified this as a motivation for studying a doctorate qualification stated: *“... my mother and my father motivated ... I would say they were my role model[s] ...”.*

Personal growth was another aspect that was associated with personal motive and enrichment. Two participants who mentioned growth as a motivation for studying this qualification mentioned, respectively, that *“... I have personally grown intellectually ...”* and *“... I did it to grow as a person ...”.*

Personal background played a role as a form of personal motive for one participant who said: *“So those have pushed me ... at the end of the day, I want to have the [a] qualification, and the qualification perhaps will do better for me ...”.* Another participant obtained this qualification in order to be a role model to others. This participant indicated that he or she studied *“...to inspire my children, my family, my friends, those that are around me ...”.* He or she further mentioned that he or she undertook his or her studies at doctoral level in order *“... to diffuse the notion that the organisation, that is the SAPS, has members who are actually not educated ...”.* The last aspect associated with personal ambitions and enrichment on the part of doctorate graduates was the issue of career promotion. One participant had this to say:

> *“... a Doctorate in police science ... doors can be opened for me. In other words it was just a tunnel vision to saying let me go straight. One day, I might be a senior officer within the umbrella of the SAPS.”*

External encouragement from other people was another factor which motivated participants to study. One participant has explained that he or she received external encouragement to study. He or she said that he or she was encouraged to study by *"... people who were giving us lecture[s], but that lecturer or that police official who was giving us our class ... he actually encouraged to say, guys, when you go out there, you must study ..."*. This was an apparent reference to police officers who worked as trainers at the basic training college.

The third factor which encouraged participants to study was the desire to improve policing. A need to improve the quality of policing services rendered to the community urged one of the participants to undertake doctorate studies. However, a limited number of participants were motivated by this factor, as illustrated by the response of the only participant who said that he or she was motivated to study by a desire to *"... improve policing in South Africa ..."*.

From the discussion above, it emerged that participants' motivations for obtaining a doctoral degree while serving in the SAPS included internal ambitions, external encouragement from others and, in one instance, an ambition to improve policing. It was found that the participants who were motivated by personal ambitions wanted to become knowledgeable, educated and independent. Family members as role models, personal background and the aspiration to be role models to others influenced some participants. Career promotion, though a contentious issue, also fell within the category of personal ambitions as a motivation for members to obtain doctoral degrees while serving in the SAPS.

4.2.2 Participants' expectations

The second theme which emerged from the data analysis related to the meeting of the participants' expectations. It makes sense that people undertake their studies with certain expectations in mind. This theme sought to explore the participants' expectations when they undertook their doctorate studies. The responses of the participants to the following question gave rise to this theme: *"Have your expectations been met by obtaining your doctoral degree?"* The purpose of this question was to determine whether, and the extent to which, participants' expectations were met. Most of the participants indicated that their expectations were met. However, it should be noted that the responses which were provided by the participants to this question were a simple *"...yes ..."*. It should be noted further that the participants seemed to be unwilling or uncomfortable to elaborate in relation to this question.

It emerged from the interviews that most participants' expectations were met. As far as this theme is concerned, not much data emanated from the interviews because there were no elaborations offered.

4.2.3 Contribution or added value at various levels

This theme explored the contribution or added value of a doctoral degree to the improvement of job performance. Therefore, the discussion below deals with the contribution of a doctorate degree on improved job performance or the lack thereof. The responses of the participants to the following question brought about the existence of this theme: *"Does your doctoral degree positively contribute to an improvement in job performance?"* The purpose of this question was to establish whether there was a correlation between obtaining a doctorate degree and improved job performance. There were mixed feelings relating to the issue of whether a doctorate qualification added value in the participants' occupational environment or not. Data analysis from the in-depth individual interviews with participants revealed that a doctorate degree added value at various levels, the greatest being at a personal level. However, some of the participants indicated that having this qualification did not add value for them.

Some of the participants indicated that this qualification had a positive contribution. This view can, for instance, be construed from the response of a participant who stated that *"... I think my qualification adds meaning ..."*. The contribution or added value of a Doctorate qualification on job performance was found to be evident at the following levels, with emphasis being placed on personal level:

- Personal development through improved understanding and enhanced skills;
- Interpersonal exposure and connection;
- Scholarly skills;
- Internal occupational environment of the police;
- Knowledge gained operationalised;
- External transferability; and
- Limited or no career path or value in the SAPS.

These levels are discussed in more detail below.

As far as personal development through improved understanding and enhanced skills is concerned, it was found that the participants believed that this aspect contributed to an

improvement in their job performance. For instance, one participant indicated that obtaining this qualification *“... added value to me ... in the police provided me with a bit more skills in doing my work ...”*. The positive contribution of personal development was also evident from another participant who said, in this context, that *“...I acquired the required skills ...”*. This view was further supported by another participant who maintained that *“... it’s a great achievement as an individual, as you reach, allow me to say, the pinnacle of the academic world. ... it comes in handy for me as an individual ...”*. Yet another participant who also held a positive view of the value of a doctoral degree mentioned that *“... it obviously open [sic] your mind about so many things ... I’ve learnt so many things ...”*.

It was also found, in this context, that obtaining a doctorate degree led to the attainment of the following skills:

- Self-worth and confidence;
- Self-motivation;
- Higher-order and critical thinking skills;
- Creative thinking skills;
- Decision-making skills;
- Problem-solving skills;
- Management skills;
- Negotiation skills;
- Mental ability;
- Socioeconomic and political insight; and
- Report writing and policy directives.

The findings regarding these skills are discussed in detail below.

It was found that personal development through improved understanding and enhanced skills was linked to self-worth and confidence. Participants indicated that their personal development improved their self-worth and confidence in performing their duties. One of the participants maintained that his or her self-worth was improved when he or she stated that *“... it increased my self-esteem”*, while another simply stated in this regard that *“... your self-confidence improves ...”*. Yet another participant summed up this matter when he or she mentioned being *“... comfortable with yourself ...”*. One more participant had this to say: *“... it helped me a*

little bit, it gave me a lot of confidence, although I had a lot of confidence beforehand and you build that ... comfortable with yourself ...".

Self-motivation was the second attribute associated with personal development. The assertion that personal development was associated with self-motivation is evident from the words which were used by a participant who said that studying this qualification was positively linked to *"... your self-motivation ...".*

Higher-order and critical thinking skills are linked to enhanced mental ability on the part of the doctoral graduate. According to one of the participants, personal development led to an increase in *"... innovative thinking and reasoning ..."*, while another believed that, through personal development, one was *"... able to analyse trends ...".* Yet another participant maintained that it made one *"... become a little bit more critical ...".* In agreement with these participants, another participant remarked that *"... this is where your skills will come in for reasoning ...".*

Personal development is also associated with the ability to think creatively. The notion that creative thinking is linked to the development of oneself was best described by a participant who said that it enables one *"... to think out of the box ..."*

The fifth factor associated with personal development was decision-making skills. The participants indicated that studying for this qualification increased their skills in making decisions during the performance of their duties. A number of participants highlighted the assertion that improved decision-making skills were derived from personal development. For example, one of the participants maintained that personal development enabled him or her to *"... make much better decisions ...".* This view was shared by another participant who said, in this regard, that *"... I am comfortable to make decisions ...".* Yet another participant said that, *"... as an educated person, I am able to view things in many different angles before taking a decision ...".* Furthermore, a fourth participant also agreed with the fact that decision making skills are derived from personal development through improved understanding and enhanced skills by saying that *"... your level of decision making ... your level of understanding things changed automatically ...".*

Personal development was found to lead to the attainment of problem-solving skills. The notion that problem-solving skills were linked to the development of oneself was supported by a participant who identified *"... problem solving ..."* as a trait associated with studying a doctorate degree. The attainment of management skills was further attributed to studying for a

doctorate qualification. The assertion that management skills were obtained through personal development was based on the view of one of the participants who said that studying *"... sculpt you in terms of your management style ..."*. Studying for a doctorate qualification enhances negotiation skills. A participant who likened negotiation to a debate supported the claim that studying this qualification improved one's negotiation skills. The participant maintained, in this regard, that *"... you learn about negotiation ..."*. Another participant supported this by saying that *"... when you are in a meeting, you negotiate better but it's almost like a debate. You're better prepared ..."*.

Another aspect associated with personal development was change in mental ability. This was perceived to mean that there was a correlation between personal development through improved understanding and enhanced skills and increased mental ability. This conclusion was drawn from the only assertion made, in this context, by a participant who maintained that *"... my mental ability has definitely changed ..."*.

Personal development enhances the ability to write reports and policy directives. The belief that there was a link between personal development and report writing was shared by a number of participants. One of them asserted that personal development *"... also assisted me to write better reports and to give proper inputs regarding draft policies, national instructions and standing operating procedures ..."*. Another participant maintained: *"... when you answer a letter or you respond to somebody, then you would think a little bit different ..."*.

The second contribution associated with a doctorate degree was interpersonal exposure. This means that a doctorate qualification leads to interpersonal exposure and connection. The participants attributed their improved interpersonal skills and connection to their attainment of a doctorate qualification. This assertion is evident from the statement of a participant who stated *"... it exposed me to other academic people ..."* while another said that it allowed *"... sharing with colleagues ..."* Yet another participant indicated that *"... a PhD, it helps to understand when you are sitting at those high levels …"* This is believed to be a reference to high-level meetings. It was found, in this context, that interpersonal exposure and connection were linked to the development of interpersonal and communication skills. A number of participants maintained that having a doctorate degree culminated in an improvement of their interpersonal and communication skills. For instance, one participant said that *"... I tend to listen more tentatively to other people and apply thorough consideration before I respond ... in the way I communicate with people on different levels ..."* Another participant mentioned

that having obtained a doctorate degree *“... improved my communication skills, negotiation as well as problem-solving skills ...”* Yet one more participant stated, in this context, that *“... your interpersonal skills, your communication skills improve ...”* Another participant stated further that *“... you listen a little bit more ...”*, and this view was further shared by one of the participants who indicated that *“... I think it makes you a much better listener ...”*

Attainment of scholarly skills was another attribute associated with a doctorate degree. The participants were of the view that their scholarly skills improved after completing a doctorate qualification. This is illustrated through statements such as: *“... [I] am assisting, eh, MBL students, I’m marking, I’m also giving some guidance, advice, all those things ...”* and *“... [I] guide masters and doctorate students inside and outside the organisation ...”*. Yet another participant stated, in this context, that *“... because I’m at [X], the same universities, the same schools, you’ll find us sitting with the[m] ...”*. This referred to an established forum where tertiary institutions and police management met to deal with education-related issues of mutual interest to them. The internal occupational environment of the police differed at different levels, with some experiencing it as an obstacle. For instance, a participant illustrated this view by saying: *“... and the treatment that is meted out to a person who has obtained a doctorate degree within the police ... it becomes ... I wouldn’t say a blessing ...”*

The added value of a doctorate qualification within the internal occupational environment of the police is associated with aspects such as innovative training, enhanced professionalism, improved job performance and promotion or career path. A detailed discussion of all these aspects follows. One of the contributions of obtaining a doctorate qualification within the internal occupational environment of the police is innovative training. One of the participants maintained that obtaining a doctorate qualification enabled him or her to become innovative in his or her approach to the training of police officers. This was evident from the following response: *“...I have also, um, made a good contribution to the police ... I’ve written training material, that never existed before. I’ve trained over two thousand people in the police in my field of expertise.”*

A doctoral degree is associated with enhanced professionalism of police officers within the internal occupational environment of the police. A number of participants were of the view that obtaining a doctorate qualification enhanced police professionalism. This view was supported by a participant who said that a doctorate qualification *“... helps to act in a professional [manner] ...”*. Another participant argued that *“... it has augmented ... a lot on our*

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environment in terms of, eh, professionalism ...". Yet another participant said the following in this regard: *"... the way people ... you hear people talking in the corridor ... that this person is meticulous, this person is ... he knows his story. So, it is affecting the environment per se ...".* Two more participants also supported the fact that a doctorate degree enhanced police professionalism. One of them said that *"... it helps me to bring that professionalism in ...".* The second participant argued that *"... I think that whenever you ... you put yourself forward as a doctor, immediately it does raise the level of thoughts that the police should be professional ...".*

A doctorate qualification was further associated with improved job performance. One of the participants believed that having this qualification had a positive influence on how he or she performed in his or her job. This was evident from his or her assertion that *"... I have found new innovative ways to better improve my job performance ...".*

There were different opinions about the influence of a doctorate qualification towards a promotion or career path in the SAPS. Some of the participants benefitted while others did not benefit, or promotion was not a motivation for studying. For instance, a participant who benefitted from his or her studies said that *"... I was promoted from the rank of warrant officer to lieutenant colonel."* Another participant who also benefitted mentioned that *"... it helped me with one promotion ... I was a captain for ten years, then I got to lieutenant colonel. It helped me to become a lieutenant colonel."*

There were participants whose decision to study for a doctorate degree was not motivated by promotion. One such participant stated that *"... it was not to study because of promotion ... I wasn't so lucky with the promotion, it was not a problem for me because whatever that I was doing ... within my studies was for myself, not for promotion purpose."* In one instance, it could not be established from the participant's response whether he or she benefitted in this regard because he or she simply stated: *"... then I did not aspire to be promoted to the next level ..."*

A distinction was drawn between the operational environment of the police and the academic influence. One of the participants explained the distinction in the career path in the police organisation by mentioning, for instance, that *"... your career path in police is ... is splitted [sic] away from your private academic studies..."* and that *"... you still need to have relevant police training ...".* Another participant elaborated further by indicating that:

> *"... there's two different worlds. In the operational environment, the PhD is pushed aside. It doesn't matter whether you have a PhD, you must just be functionally experienced and know the police environment and know how to address crime."*

However, it was apparent that not everyone in the SAPS benefitted from obtaining a doctoral degree. A substantial number of participants felt that their doctoral qualification did not influence their career path or promotion. For instance, one participant indicated that *"... having a qualification for me in the organisation during transformation didn't benefit me much ..."*. To explain the fact that he or she did not benefit from having this qualification, another participant mentioned that he or she was not considered for promotion: *"So, to answer directly, when I qualified, I felt hard done if I was not ... shortlisted. So, I believed I was supposed to be given a chance to contest with the others ..."* Another participant responded by saying *"[n]o, it has not. I do not think the police took cognisance of my qualification ..."* Yet another participant responded almost rhetorically: *"Did the degree in isolation gave [sic] me a [sic] edge in terms of my career pathing? I am of the view, no."* Furthermore, a participant who seemed to have lost hope of benefiting from his or her doctoral qualification and who mentioned the lack of career pathing within the context of his or her specific career path in the SAPS said: *"... I would say I have reached the ceiling ..."*. To emphasise the view that a doctorate degree did not play a role in the promotion or career path and briefly touching on the influence of political considerations, a participant provided the following response:

> *"... if you think it is going to change your career, it does not because I have been in rank for ten years having a PhD, um, training people at three/four levels higher than myself, but not good enough to take a next level of management , um, in the organisation. Now, we must probably also understand that, during that time, there was a time of transformation and, being a white male, uh, puts me right at the end of, um, ... of ..., uh, a possible candidate. Um, so, having a qualification didn't benefit me much."*

Two more participants voiced their concerns that their doctorate qualification did not add value. They stated, respectively: *"... but, comparatively speaking, when you look at the ... eh, the views that people have and the treatment that is meted out to a person who has obtained a doctorate within the police ... it becomes, eh ... I would not say a blessing ..."* and:

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> *"So, for me, um, there was not much value in terms of having that qualification. Uh, um, ... initially, I thought, wow, ah, I'll put the title, but the moment that you put the title, people started testing your knowledge because you [sic] now supposed to know everything. So, in the workplace, uh, um, people do not understand that having a PhD ..."*

It is believed that knowledge gained through studying this qualification can be transferred to the external occupational environment of the police. To this effect, one of the participants was of the view that this knowledge *"... can be used anywhere ..."*. However, another participant had a different opinion in this regard. He or she said that *"... I don't think it's a major factor that ... that influence [sic] communication with external role-players ..."*. The knowledge transferability to the external occupational environment of the police was effected in one's personal capacity, through community enhancement, the improved image of the SAPS and international exposure. Knowledge transferability to the external occupational environment of the police could be effected in a personal capacity. A participant indicated that he or she was transferring his/her knowledge to students in his or her personal capacity. He or she stated that *"... I established my own practice to assist challenging students with their research ..."*

Engagement in community enhancement activities was another way of transferring knowledge to the external occupational environment of the police. A number of participants similarly shared this view. For instance, one participant said that *"... I was able to understand the contribution of the community in policing. In this way I am able to interact with the community in a professional way ..."*. Another participant maintained, in this regard, that members of the community *"... will feel free to come to me and ask most of the things because they believe that, if you are having a qualification as I have, I know most of the things ..."*. The transfer of knowledge to the external occupational environment of the police led to an improvement in the image of the SAPS. This was evident from a quote from one of the participants, who said the following:

> *"... let me say it benefits the organisation because the members of the community think that SAPS does [sic] not have people who are learnt, allow me to say that, or educated. They think were are just people chasing criminals and this [sic] stuff, but, once they know and they understand that you are a ... a doctor or you have a doctorate and work in the police and there's ... it start [sic], uh, raising*

> *their eyebrows to say, hey, it means policing, it's something that a person can do. It is not for the illiterate ...".*

International exposure is another way of effecting knowledge transferability to the external occupational environment of the police. This was supported by a participant who shared his or her experience of being exposed to the international community. The participant mentioned that *"... I presented my doctorate. In Australia and in Canada ...".* A doctorate qualification had a limited contribution or no contribution to career path in the SAPS, nor did it add value. When asked whether the attainment of a doctoral degree contributed to their career path in the SAPS, a number of participants simply said *"... no ...".*

From the discussion above, it emerged that the contributions or added value of a doctoral degree in the SAPS were at various levels, the greatest being at a personal level. The contributions so realised were related to personal development through improved understanding and enhanced skills. The skills obtained through personal development were self-worth and confidence, self-motivation, higher-order and critical thinking skills, creative thinking skills, decision-making, problem-solving skills, management skills, negotiations skills, mental ability, socioeconomic and political insight, as well as report writing and policy directives. It also emerged that the added value associated with a doctoral degree in the SAPS included interpersonal exposure and connection, which translated into the attainment of interpersonal and communication skills, scholarly skills. Furthermore, it was found that a doctoral degree in the SAPS added value to the internal and external occupational environments of the police. Lastly, it emerged that the participants believed that there was a limited or no career path or value in the SAPS for doctoral graduates.

4.2.4 Appropriate placement within the South African Police Service

This emergent theme dealt with the question of whether SAPS members who have a doctorate degree are appropriately placed within the police organisation. It is believed that the appropriate placement of these members within the organisation will lead to their optimal performance of their duties, thereby enhancing service delivery. The responses of the participants to the following question brought about this theme: *"Based on your doctoral qualification, are you placed at an appropriate division/unit/section within the SAPS?"* The purpose of this question was to establish whether the participants were appropriately placed within the SAPS based on their qualifications. Participants' responses revealed that some were

correctly placed while others are not. Furthermore, there were those who were correctly placed but not because of qualification. These aspects are discussed below.

A number of the participants were of the view that they were correctly placed in their workplace. They also believed that the qualification empowered them in their current positions. This was evident from the response of a participant who said:

> *"My component is called [Component Y]. And then, on daily basis, what we are doing, we are doing research, and the research that we are doing is in line with, em, eh the research agenda. I will give you the research agenda of the SAPS. So that research is our daily basis, it's our daily bread. So, on daily basis, I'm doing research. I strongly believe that, uh, I was appointed in this post based on my, uh, academic qualification, which are [sic] related to the current post …".*

Another participant also supported the fact that he or she was correctly placed by saying that *"… I feel I am correctly placed as a … commander, it is in line with what I am doing …".* Yet another participant said, in this regard, that *"… it is in line with what I'm doing. I mean, my doctorate is valid for what I am doing …".*

It became apparent that not all doctorate graduates were correctly placed in their current positions and there was a hint of lack of support. This was evident from a participant who said *"… no, not, uh, correctly placed where I am currently …".*

Although correctly placed in their current positions, some participants were of the view that their placement was not influenced by their academic considerations. For example, one participant said *"… yes, but not because of qualification …"* Another reiterated this view by indicating that:

> *"… I do not think I was placed where I was because of my qualification. Um, I was placed because of my performance and my skills and my knowledge and the way that … that I performed. So I do not think that I was placed there because of my … of my qualification …"*

From the in-depth individual interviews with participants, it transpired that there were dichotomous views regarding the correct placement of participants after obtaining a doctorate

degree. Some participants indicated that they were correctly placed, while others had a different view, indicating that their placement was not correct.

4.2.5 South African Police Service's reliance on science and research as a requirement to move forward

This theme looked at the role of science and research in the SAPS. It explored the issue of how much the SAPS relied on science and research in the execution of its constitutionally delegated mandate. The responses of the participants to the following question resulted in this theme: *"In your opinion, having obtained your doctoral degree, should the SAPS rely more on science and research?"* The purpose of this question was to establish the importance of science and research in the functioning of the SAPS.

It was apparent from their responses that the participants regarded science and research as a requirement for the SAPS to prosper in fulfilling its obligations. One participant supported this view by saying that *"... I think an organisation that denies the power of science and knowledge is an organisation that will not move forward at all ..."*.

The participants' responses to the abovementioned question were divided into the following categories:

- Positive view of the value of science and research;
- Valued, but only a future possibility;
- Failure to appreciate the value of science and research; and
- Recommendations.

All these categories are discussed in detail below.

There were participants who held a positive view of the need for the SAPS to rely on science and research to guide its activities. This was illustrated by a participant who simply mentioned that *"... you need to do proper research ..."*.

The SAPS should rely on science and research if it is to have an upper hand against criminals who are becoming more sophisticated in committing criminal activities. A number of the participants felt that there was a need for the SAPS to rely on science and research in dealing with crime. For instance, a participant stated: *"Yes. Criminals are becoming more sophisticated every day, so to win the war on crime police must invent new ways of policing ..."*. Another

participant maintained that, *"[i]f you only look at the way that criminals operate and how they enrich themselves, and even with studies, there's just no way an organisation can ... can become stagnant ..."*. Yet another participant argued that *"... the crime is evolving by the day, technology is used by the criminals ..."*.

There is a need to find innovative ways of effecting changes. This necessitates that changes are researched before enactment. A participant argued that, *"To be successful, these new ways must be researched before implementation, which is where science and research play a vital role for policing ..."*. Another participant who was also in favour of science and research in the police said that *"[c]rime is changing every day, the type of crime, the way they commit it ... need to find innovative ways to prevent crime ..."*. One more participant argued that SAPS ran the risk of not performing its duties optimally if police managers *"... do not adapt and be more orientated towards improving our technological capacity ..."*.

The establishment of a research portfolio in the SAPS is a positive way of relying on science and research. One of the participants indicated that *"... I have been given the responsibility in my unit to head the portfolio of Research and Development ..."* and another said *"... eh, to be even more specific, in the police now, I see we are having this research department headed by Dr Zulu."*

The appointment of the right people will create a conducive environment for SAPS to engage in science and research. The only participant who raised this point said that, *"... by putting the right people in the right positions, science will automatically be applied ..."*. On the issue of the SAPS's reliance on science and research, it was believed that science and research were valued, but were only a future possibility. This was evident from the argument of a participant who said: *"... I'm quite sure in the later stage, it will change the way people think, the way people see educated people, especially when you talk about research ..."*.

There seemed to be a lack of appreciation for the value of science and research internal to the SAPS. This view was held by one of participants who asserted that *"... the current Divisional Commissioner of Human Resource Development (HRD) is not really in favour of further studies, especially on the level of a doctoral degree ..."*. The perceived lack of appreciation of the value of science and research in the SAPS created the impression that research among members of SAPS was not always a priority for the organisation. This view was illustrated by a participant who stated that "...*The organisation could utilise the knowledge and skills much*

more effectively, but because research is not a priority to improve the organisation, or to discover crime trends etc, it is just another qualification ...". This participant stated further that *"[t]he organisation has a culture of visiting other countries and just applies what they think is relevant instead of validating the setting and compare our own setting before spending a lot of money to copy other countries' best practices."*

The nature of the culture of the SAPS had an influence on the failure of the organisation to appreciate the value of science and research. There was a conflict between the identities of being an academic or thinker and a police officer. A participant argued, in this regard, that *"... [t]he militaristic environment with a strong culture, um, does not sit well for an academic, or an academic struggle [sic] to fit in there ...".* In support of this view, another participant asserted that *"... through your years of studying you become accustomed to the concept that there is not only one solution to a problem, and the organisation does not necessarily allow that freedom of ... of thinking ...".* In supporting the viewpoint that the nature of the SAPS culture was inhibitive towards embracing the value of science and research, a participant responded simply that *"... in the police, you must comply ...".*

There was a perception that the SAPS did not implement its own policy regarding the role of science and research in policing. It was argued that the organisation did not live according to what it preached. This viewpoint was illustrated by a participant who viewed that, at *"... mainstream level, they are simply not interested academic qualifications. What is said and the message preached is not in line what is practically exercised ...".*

The participants provided various recommendations on how the SAPS could rely on science and research in a quest to move forward. These recommendations were divided into the following codes:

- Study in the fields where members are placed;
- Police library;
- Independent research division;
- Issues of incentives;
- Promotion policy; and
- Retention strategy.

These recommendations are discussed below.

One of the recommendations in this regard was that members of the SAPS should be confined to study in fields where they were stationed. A participant who subscribed to this view argued: *"So, I am of the view that people should, as far as possible, be restricted to study in the fields where they are so that they can go back and plough back and apply what they have studied ...".*

Another recommendation related to the resourcing of the police library with graduates' research reports in order to give effect to proper reliance on science and research. A participant expressed his or her support of the institutional repository into the police library. He or she argued that *"... I do not see any deposit into that police library of our studies that might add value to policing. So, I am worried about that. I think that is lacking behind...".* One of the participants recommended that an independent division be established to conduct research. This participant stated, in this regard, that *"... I believe it needs to be a division that is independent ...".*

It was further recommended that members of the SAPS be given incentives to study in various forms, such as monetary and elevation to the next rank. For instance, a participant recommended that the SAPS should say *"... we give you a once-off and we are going to give you the next rank, so that it should change the culture of the police ...".* Another participant mentioned that the SAPS should, for *"... every qualification, try and incentify [sic] you ... that will not only encourage people to read, but it will also now force that [sic] panel members acknowledge this qualification ...".* This participant also said that the *"... qualification should be, as far as practically possible, linked to minimum levels within the police ...".* One more participant agreed with this view and added: *"... getting twelve thousand or fifteen thousand just to say thank you very much, we recognise this. I think it will be better, and that thing will make more of the members within the SAPS to study."*

However, one of the participants offered a counter-argument regarding the issue of incentives. He or she believed that *"... it should not be a compulsory requirement for promotion to senior level, but I propose that it is relevant for senior managers to go and do some form of studies in line with a doctorate degree."* It was further recommended that an academic qualification become part of the promotion policy. A participant argued that the *"... organisation's*

seriousness of endorsing academic qualification, I think it must really become part of the promotion policy as well, because you will get better candidates ...". The same participant went further and said that:

> *"... there is a golden line, because you get people who are academically well-qualified, but, when it comes to the output they do not perform properly because they become so over-confident in their academic abilities that they basically battle to do what is expected from them in the SAPS ...".*

It was further recommended that the SAPS come up with a strategy to retain academic qualified members. A participant argued that *"... there is no retention strategy when it comes to knowledge in the police, and there are [sic] no growth path, or even a strategy in the police to extract those people on an ad hoc basis to plough back what they have [learned] back into the organisation."*

Form the discussion above, it became known that participants felt that the SAPS needed to rely on science and research to move forward, yet there were a number of obstacles that hindered the attainment of such a vision. While there was a positive view that the SAPS should rely on science and research, there were negative sentiments of a failure to appreciate the value internal to the SAPS. Furthermore, participants offered different recommendations relating to the role of science and research. The recommendations were that members should, as far as possible, be restricted to study in the fields where they were placed, a fully-resourced police library and an independent research division should be established, there should be incentives to study, academic qualifications should be linked to promotion policy, and a retention strategy should be developed.

4.2.6 Relevance of a doctorate degree in the South African Police Service

This theme explored the relevance of a doctorate degree in the SAPS. It is believed that an understanding of the relevance of doctorate degrees in the organisation will pave the way for proper determination of the role of doctoral graduates in the diverse activities of the organisation. The responses of the participants to the following question brought about the emergence of this theme: *"What is the relevance of your doctorate degree in the SAPS?"* The purpose of this question was to determine whether a doctorate degree is relevant in the SAPS. The participants expressed the view that there was constructive use of their doctorate degrees in the SAPS.

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The participants indicated that they regarded their doctorate qualifications as being used constructively in the SAPS. This was evident from the assertion of one of the participants who indicated that *"... I managed to come up with the intelligence-led policing model for South Africa."* Another participant supported this view by indicating that *"... I am working hundred percent in what I studied."* Yet another participant illustrated his or her view that there was a constructive use of doctorate qualifications, stating: *"... I strongly believe my work is adding value to this firearm environment, not only what I'm doing but what other people can do out of my work ...".* Lastly, another participant mentioned, in this regard, that *"... I think it is relevant. It is highly relevant, ..., I have given you ... given you divisional research, I have given you the core function of the police."*

However, one of the participants had reservations about the constructive use of a Doctorate degree in the SAPS. He or she seemed to suggest that his or her study was not put to good use when it was meant *"[t]o provide feedback on the value of the training which was not even considered ...".* This participant's study referred to the relevance of a Doctorate degree within the Division Research of the SAPS.

From the discussion above, it emerged that most participants felt that their Doctorate degrees had relevance in the SAPS. It was found that participants constructively used their Doctoral degrees in the SAPS.

4.2.7 Acknowledgement of the Doctorate degree varies

This theme sought to explore the extent to which Doctorate degrees are acknowledged in the SAPS. The positive extent to which the SAPS acknowledges this degree may encourage many members to pursue their studies up to doctorate level.

The responses of the participants to the following question brought about the emergence of this theme*: "Do your immediate superiors and subordinates acknowledge your doctorate degree?"* The purpose of this question was to establish the extent to which a doctorate degree was acknowledged in the SAPS. The participants' responses indicated that the acknowledgement of a doctorate degree varied. According to some participants, there was a positive recognition of a Doctorate degree. For instance, a participant mentioned, in this respect: *"... I really feel I am being recognised...".* However, there were participants who believed that Doctorate degrees were not acknowledged in the SAPS. For example, two of the participants who subscribed to this view stated respectively that this qualification was *"... not always*

acknowledged in the SAPS ...” and that *“... I do not believe that any person obtain [sic] a doctorate in order to be acknowledged in the SAPS because then you’ll be doing it for the wrong reasons ...”.*

The varying degrees of acknowledgement of a doctorate degree were divided into the following categories:

- Positive recognition;
- Internally respected to a degree;
- No internal recognition; and
- External validation greater than internal acknowledgement.

These varying degrees of acknowledgement are discussed below.

According to some participants, there was a positive recognition of the doctoral degree, culminating in the manner of being addressed by peers, being shown respect and positive engagement. One of the participants felt that he or she was recognised for having obtained a doctoral degree. The acknowledgement of his/her qualification showed in *“... how they address me ...”.* Another participant also agreed with this view and mentioned that the positive recognition of his qualification was evident in the manner in which he or she was addressed by others. He or she said that *“... they call me on my title ...”.*

Another way of showing positive recognition of doctoral graduates is through congratulating them. A participant said that he or she received congratulatory messages after obtaining his or her Doctoral degree. This participant said that *“[t]hey congratulate[d] me after the graduation ceremony ...”.* One of the participants whose experience held a contrary view responded: *“No, uh, a doctorate degree, I do not know if the police really acknowledge it. Nobody came in and congratulated me”.* Doctoral graduates are internally respected to a degree. One of the participants mentioned, in this regard, that *“... I believe, I was sort of being respected for who I am and what I did, and I do think that, um, if, in a conversation, people come to know that you had [have] a doctorate degree immediately, they put you at another level ...”.* The same participant argued that, *“... in the police, your inputs are not necessarily valid because you are a doctor ...”.* A distinction was made between respect shown by subordinates or juniors and superiors. It was found that subordinates were more appreciative of the academic achievement of the Doctorate graduates. This view was supported by a participant who maintained that his

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or her juniors *"... acknowledge my study as a feasible means of policing ..."*. This was, however, not the case with superiors of Doctorate graduates. It was found that superiors did not acknowledge the doctoral qualifications of their subordinates. According to one of the participants, superiors:

> *"... still question the new ways of addressing crime and I am still trying to convince them. As long as the barrier of seniors who can veto new ways of policing, and settling for old methods. It is difficult to use skills obtained through studies to make a difference ..."*.

Another participant was uncertain whether his or her superiors recognised his or her doctoral degree and stated: *"... I do not know if my superiors yet acknowledge ..."*. Interestingly, the same participant stated further that *"... [the] Commissioner did acknowledge it ..."*. This was in fact a confirmation that his or her superior acknowledged his or her qualification. In addition, there was a generally held view that there was no internal recognition for a doctoral qualification. A participant responded, in this regard: *"No, they do not recognise me as a doctor."* Another participant similarly responded that, *"within this organisation, in the first place, the doctorate is not recognised at all, not even the masters, whatever."* Yet another participant expressed that *"sometimes I think I should not have done it."*

The lack of internal recognition was divided into the following codes:

- Subordinates;
- Derogatory statements;
- Value rank or experience over qualifications;
- Window dressing;
- Being a threat to superiors and others;
- People feeling intimidated;
- The perception that one is not operationally inclined, only academically; and
- Alienation.

All these aspects are discussed in greater detail below.

It emerged that some subordinates did not acknowledge their superiors' Doctoral qualifications. This was evident from one participant's statement that *"... subordinates, some of them they pretend as if they forget that you are a Doctor"*. This view was shared by another

participant, who stated that *"... even the subordinates, they can start to disrespect you ... like they are highly educated ...".*

It also came to the fore that some members resorted to uttering derogative statements towards doctoral graduates. The perceived humiliating practices were alluded to by a number of participants, such as one who said that:

> *"... other people in the police, if they hear that you have got a doctorate, they are derogative ... So, people are nasty towards you ... some of the police people that do not understand or do not want to understand, they will say, ja, Doctor, uh, cannot you give me some medication or whatever? I am tired of that ...".*

It further came to light that professional jealousy towards doctoral candidates was rife. One participant summed this phenomenon up as follows: *"... you will be surprised when he or she tells you that don't [sic] your PhD tells [sic] you what to do? Then you are like where is this coming in? Because we are working here as colleagues ... that was very painful... ".* Yet another participant simply said, in this context, that *"... I have been given names ...".* It further became evident that rank or experience in the organisation was valued more than academic qualifications. A participant indicated, in this regard, that *"... they can appoint a person with matric to be your commander ...".* In explaining the perceived superiority of a rank over a doctorate degree, another participant simply said: *"... you know, at the end of the day, if the person is having that rank on top of you ...".* Another participant described the obtaining of a doctorate degree as being used for window dressing purposes to the advantage of the organisation: *"... I feel like it a little bit of a window dressing exercise because it was only used in the classroom to sort of, uh, provide a little prestige to the programme ...".* This was in reference to a SAPS learning programme that the participant facilitated.

Having a Doctorate degree was regarded as a threat to superiors and others, hence the lack of recognition from them. This view was shared by a number of participants. For instance, one participant explained his or her experience as follows: *"... I was seen as a threat to my immediate supervisor who was at a level above me ...".* Another participant similarly expressed that *"... you get a lot of jealous people. And, um, they see you as a threat, and uh, ja, they don't promote you*". Yet another participant confirmed that *"... you are a threat to some of the big bosses, you [sic] no longer getting that treatment that you used [to get] ...".* Two more participants also believed that the obtaining of a doctorate degree became a threat to superiors

and others. One participant explained: *"... in the workplace it ended up being a threat to commanders who only had a national diploma or to people with first degrees ...".* The second participant pointed out: *"... instead, the possibility that you will not be shortlisted [for promotion] or whatever ...".*

Linked to the belief that a doctorate graduate was a threat to others was the notion that people may feel intimidated in the presence of doctorate graduates. One participant who raised this point viewed that *"... people feel intimidated and they are less likely to volunteer their knowledge, etcetera ...".* This opinion was shared by another participant, who stated that *"...some of them were even intimidated by the fact that you were qualified at that level ...".* Police officers with doctorate degrees are regarded as having a lack of operational experience only being good academically. One of the participants had this to say to counter this perception: *"... is only good on academics and therefore are not operational, which is far, far removed from the truth ...".*

It is believed that police officers with doctorate degrees are alienated and side-lined in their workplace. The non-involvement or alienation of the graduates was summed up by a participant who stated that *"... there was a definite effort to keep me in a corner and not involve me in management things ...".* In addition, it appeared that doctorate graduates in the SAPS received greater external validation than internally. This was evident from the argument of one of the participants who mentioned that, *"... if I have to deal with outside people ... say for instance, the Institute for Security Studies, then I will, uh, work with them on a professional capacity, then it gives me a professional leeway to go, but, inside the police, no, not really ...".* Another participant further confirmed this notion, stating that he or she received external validation from the Civilian Secretariat for Police Service. He or she further indicated: *"... I was contacted by the Secretary of Police ... the directorate from there told me, as they were surfing the net, they came across my work and they found relevancy of my work to the conference ...".* Moreover, it became known that doctorate graduates in the SAPS received more recognition from universities and other entities than from the SAPS internally. One of the participants mentioned that *"... they [universities] do give you the respect if you have got a Doctoral ...".* Another participant who had a similar opinion stated that *"... people from outside is [sic] much more appreciating of your qualification and your knowledge and your skills than inside ...".* Yet another participant mentioned: *"... whenever I represented the police in other government*

departments or private initiatives, immediately the people will value you, you can see they take cognisance …".

It transpired from the discussion above that the acknowledgement of the Doctoral degree varied, with most participants experiencing low levels of recognition internal to the SAPS and greater acknowledgement and opportunities to contribute in external environments.

4.2.8 Expectation to be treated in a special manner

This theme addresses the question of whether Doctoral graduates expected to be treated in a special manner because of their doctoral qualifications or not. The responses of the participants to the following question brought about the emergence of this theme: *"As a Doctoral graduate, do you expect to be treated in a special manner?"* The purpose of this question was to establish whether the participants expected special treatment from their employer or colleagues based on their educational achievements.

The participants indicated that they definitely did not expect to be treated in a special manner. For instance, one of the participants said: *"… I do not need to be treated in a special way …".* Another participant expressed: *"… that is not my type of personality …".* Yet another participant reasoned that *"[y]ou are still the same person, the degree will not make the difference, it is the person with the degree that can make the difference …".* One more participant who also did not expect special treatment because of his/her qualification maintained: *"… I do not think you should be given special treatment …".*

From the discussion above, it emerged that participants were clear in their views that they did not expect to be treated in any special way, yet had a strong call to be able to contribute more actively.

4.3 SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the presentation, analysis and integration of the qualitative data (unstructured in-depth individual interviews, as discussed in section 1.10.1 of Chapter One of this study). The participants' responses to the in-depth phenomenological individual interviews were presented and discussed using themes and categories which emerged, in order to explore the outcomes of the interviews. An explanation of each theme and category enhanced the contextualisation thereof and further enabled the reader to have a clear understanding of the

themes and related categories. The participants' responses to questions were further validated through direct verbatim quotes. An in-depth understanding of how participants perceived the relevance of a doctorate degree in the SAPS thus emerged. Each theme was concluded with a brief discussion thereof.

The chapter that follows deals with the interpretation of the research findings.

CHAPTER 5 INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the interpretation of the data. The interpretation of the data is measured against the emergent themes and resultant sub-categories as discussed in Chapter 4 of this study. Firstly, an overview of each emergent theme and sub-category is provided, which is substantiated with literature sources as well as references to international police organisations and the lessons that could be learnt from these organisations' handling of higher education among their ranks. Secondly, the perspectives of participants from in-depth individual interviews are incorporated to form a comprehensive interpretation of the findings.

5.2 OVERVIEW OF EMERGENT THEMES AND SUBCATEGORIES

It is essential that the relevance of a doctoral degree in the SAPS be understood by all the relevant role-players. The participants' responses to questions during in-depth individual interviews, as discussed in Chapter 4 of this study, represented their perceptions regarding the relevance of a Doctorate degree in the SAPS. The analysis of the participants' responses brought about several themes and categories. The themes that emerged related to, among others, the motivation for obtaining a doctoral degree in the SAPS, the issue of meeting the participants' expectations and the contribution of an academic Doctorate degree to different aspects of graduates' personal and work environments. Naturally, it followed that the participants offered recommendations aimed at improving various aspects related to the relevance of a doctorate degree in the SAPS.

The first theme, "motivation for obtaining a doctoral degree in the SAPS", centred on understanding what motivated the participants to obtain a doctoral degree while serving in the SAPS.

5.2.1 Motivation for obtaining doctoral degree in the SAPS

Motivation is a factor that is needed by anyone who wishes to undertake and complete studies, particularly at Doctorate level. A theme which emerged from the data analysis was "motivation for obtaining a Doctoral degree in the SAPS". This discussion seeks to interpret the findings of the factors that motivated the participants to obtain a Doctorate degree in the SAPS. It therefore follows that different factors motivated participants to obtain a doctorate degree.

The literature review on the motivations for police officers to obtain higher educational qualifications, as presented and discussed in Chapter Two of this study, identified the various factors which lead police officers to obtain these qualifications. Jones (2016), as discussed in section 2.3.1, indicates that there are four main reasons which motivate police officers to study further, namely, a desire to rectify personal regrets for having failed to study before becoming a police officer, to become a knowledgeable police officer, to improve the chances of being promoted and advancing career prospects, as well as a need to prepare for a second career upon retiring from the police. Buckley et al. (in Paynich, 2009), as discussed in section 2.3.1, also found that the primary motivation for police officers to undertake higher education was promotion. Kordaczuk-Was and Sosnowki (2011), also referred to in section 2.3.1, found that self-education was characterised by high levels of determination and effort, the acquisition of which led to improved professional qualification and the performance of higher level duties. As a result, this has the potential for promotion (Kordaczuk-Was & Sosnowski, 2011).

A further correlation between promotion and higher educational qualifications is evident from other studies. For instance, Cordner and Shain (2011: 282), as discussed in section 2.3.1, found that police supervisors and commanding officers studied further in order to improve their eligibility for promotion within their own agencies or to become more competitive when contesting for executive positions. Buker (2010: 61), as discussed in section 2.3.1, found that the promotion policy of the TNP provided for the lateral appointment of qualified people to supervisory positions.

As far as preparation for the second career is concerned as a motivation for studying further, Penegor and Peak (in Paynich, 2009: 17), as discussed in section 2.3.1, found that higher education was a major factor when police chiefs were recruited externally, as opposed to when they were being considered by their own departments.

The literature review on the characteristics of police professionalism, as discussed in Chapter 3, isolated education as the first and foremost basic principle of any profession, including police professionalism. Schneider (2009:33), as referred to in section 3.2.2.1, alludes to the fact that the value of higher education in policing is premised on the assumption that the skills and knowledge required to function effectively could be learned in a classroom environment, as opposed to workplace learning. The shift in emphasis by some police organisations on higher education as a requirement for joining the police led to increased involvement in tertiary education programmes by police officers and aspirant police officers.

However, not everyone supports the notion that higher education is a requirement that could lead to the achievement of police professionalism. Some, such as Schneider (2009: 37) and Rowe (2007: 287), as referred to in section 3.2.2.1 in Chapter 4 of this study, argue that effective policing skills are learned in the workplace and not in a classroom setting. Furthermore, professionals are motivated by a desire to serve the best interest of the public. Hughes (2013: 7), as discussed in section 3.2.1.7, argues that the public service ideal as a defined trait of police professionalism manifests itself as a pledge to provide certain types of service which are ordinarily not provided by any members of society. Interestingly, Glenn et al. (2003: 31), as referred to in section 3.2.2.6, found that not a single one of the police probationers and field trainers interviewed in their study indicated that they enlisted in the police out of a desire to serve the public. By developing themselves further, police officials thus endeavour to comply with the requirement of police professionalism that there should be continuous personal development or self-education (Ball, in Schneider, 2009: 13; Roddenberry, in Faull & Rose, 2012: 2). Roddenberry (in Faull & Rose, 2012:2), as discussed in section 3.2.1, is of the opinion that professionals enter into a particular profession with an expectation that they will be rewarded based on merit.

From the participants' perceptions, as presented and discussed in Chapter 4, it appears that there are three motivations for obtaining a Doctorate degree in the SAPS. The motivations which led the participants to obtain a Doctorate degree were, as discussed in section 4.2.1, in Chapter 4 of this study, personal motives or ambitions and enrichment, external encouragement from others and, in one instance, a need to improve policing. In the context of personal ambitions and enrichment, participants mentioned that *"... it was my ambition to complete it ...",* that *"... you do it because you want to enrich your[self] ..."* and that *"[w]hat I wanted was to be highly educated, that was [sic] my goal, whether I am employed or not. So, basically, whatever that was coming along in my career, I was not that worried ...".*

Furthermore, other participants indicated that they were motivated by external encouragement from others to obtain a Doctorate degree. Regarding external encouragement as a motivating factor for obtaining a doctorate degree, a participant, for example, said that *"... people who were giving us lectures, but that lecturer or that police official who was giving us our class ... he ... he actually encouraged to say, guys, when you go out there, you must study ...".* Additionally, a need to improve policing motivated a participant to obtain a doctorate degree.

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The participant said, in this respect, that he or she obtained a doctorate degree in order to *"... improve policing in South Africa ..."*.

The responses of the participants discussed above indicated that the motivations for police officials to obtain doctorate degrees were categorised into personal ambitions and enrichment, which include promotion and career advancement, as well as external encouragement from others and a desire to improve the quality of policing services which are rendered to the clientele. This finding is consistent with the literature which was reviewed. It is imperative that the factors which motivate police officers to obtain a doctorate degree be acknowledged by decision-makers in the SAPS in order to properly manage the reasonable expectations of the doctorate graduates, such as merit-based rewards. This will lead to the optimal utilisation of the expertise of doctorate graduates, who will in turn feel valued in the police organisation. This will also enhance police professionalism and encourage a desire for education and continuous self-development among police officials. Education and self-development were found to be the two cornerstones of any profession, including the police profession. Ultimately, this will benefit the internal and external occupational environments of the police through dedicated personnel and the provision of professional and quality police services.

The next theme to be interpreted is "most participants' expectations were met".

5.2.2 Participants' expectations

This theme sought to determine whether the expectations which the participants had when studying for a doctorate degree were achieved. This theme therefore dealt with the issue of job satisfaction among police officers who possess higher educational degrees. There is limited literature regarding the job satisfaction of police officers with tertiary education. Notwithstanding this, the literature review in Chapter 1 of this study provided insight into the phenomenon of the expectations of the participants. Jones et al. (2005: 59) as well Hilal and Erickson (2010: 19) found that police officers with degrees, serving in the Queensland Police Service in Australia and the Minnesota Police Department in the USA respectively, were generally satisfied with their salaries in comparison to their colleagues who did not have degrees. However, the attainment or pursuance of higher education is perceived as undesirable to policing. Balci (2011) and Kakar (1998) are of the opinion that higher education leads to high expectations from employees, which, if not met, could lead to frustration and dissatisfaction, which may result in turnover. O'Rourke (in Carter et al., 1989) agrees with this

view and thus opines that college-educated graduates get bored and frustrated by irregular working hours, routine work, low salaries and the autocratic manner in which police agencies are managed. Additionally, Bragg (in Jones et al., 2005), as discussed in section 1.2 in Chapter 1 of this study, found that college-educated police officers' low job satisfaction could have a significant negative impact on their work commitment. In support of this view, Wilson (in Bromley, 1999: 78), as discussed in section 1.2, found that police officers with higher degrees were prone to resign from their positions within a few years of their being employed compared to colleagues with no degrees.

The limited literature reviewed in Chapter 2 alludes to the salaries and benefits applicable to the police that are believed to have an influence on job satisfaction. Carter et al. (in Michelson, 2002: 23), as referred to in section 2.2.1.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, argue that the salaries and benefits in the police are comparable to, if not higher than, those of other professions requiring a social science degree. This is a rebuttal of the perception that salaries and benefits given to the police are not attractive enough in comparison to other occupations. This further refutes the belief that few graduates are willing to follow a career in law enforcement.

The literature review on the expectations of professionals in relation to their professional status, as presented and discussed in Chapter 3 of this study, points to a need for professionals to have self-regulation, autonomy and discretion, as well as merit-based rewards. According to Gundhus (2012: 190), as referred to in section 3.2.1.3 in Chapter 3 of this study, autonomy and discretionary powers are essential in defining professions because they allow flexibility when dealing with cases of a complex nature. Gundhus (2012: 188) and Walker (2014: 705), as referred to in section 3.2.2.5, therefore hold that autonomy relates to the freedom to manage one's internal organisational affairs. Walker (2014: 705) further maintains, as discussed in section 3.2.2.5 in Chapter 3 of this study, that the professional attribute of autonomy is based on the monopoly on skill which is possessed by those in the profession.

Glenn et al. (2003: 25), as discussed in section 3.2.2.5 in Chapter 3 of this study, agree with Walker by opining that, within the policing context, the police alone have an exclusive mandate to perform policing functions. Wylupski and Champion (2013: 311) and Cordner (2014: 31), as discussed in section 3.2.2.5 in Chapter 3 of this study , elaborate further by saying that operational members of the police rely heavily on discretion when attending to requests for police services. In support of Wylupski and Champion (2013: 311) as well as Cordner (2014: 32), Miller and Blackler (2005: 42-43), as discussed in section 3.2.2.5 in Chapter 3 of this

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study, argue that the nature of police work entails choosing, from a number of options, the most suitable solution to the problem at hand, and police may thus decide to investigate or decline to investigate a potential crime. However, if inappropriately applied, discretion could fuel the public perception that the dispensation of justice is reserved exclusively for the “highest bidder” (More & Miller, 2011: 361).

Professionals expect to be afforded a certain measure of self-regulation. According to Price (1976: 15), as referred to in section 3.2.1.5 in Chapter 3 of this study, professions are intent on regulating themselves rather than being regulated by outsiders. Dale (1994: 212) and Kleinig (1996: 39), as discussed in section 3.2.1.5 in Chapter 3 of this study, agree with Price and opine that the ability of a professional to apply the acquired knowledge correctly cannot be evaluated by any other person who does not possess the same knowledge. Price (1976: 15), as discussed in section 3.2.1.5 in Chapter 3 of this study, states that the expectation of professionals to be allowed to regulate themselves is premised on the belief that no person outside the profession possesses the requisite skills to pronounce a judgement, and that such judgements are based on objective rather than subjective factors, thus guaranteeing the passing of neutral judgements. Roddenberry (in Faull & Rose, 2012: 2) suggests that, as referred to in section 3.2.1, in Chapter 3 of this study professionals expect to receive merit-based rewards.

The responses of the participants regarding the question of whether their expectations were met upon obtaining their doctorate degrees were presented and discussed in Chapter 4 of this study. In brief, the participants were clear in their responses that the expectations they had when they obtained the doctorate degrees were met. The participants responded with a simple *“yes”* to the question of whether their expectations were met. The participants did not elaborate further on this matter.

It is clear from the responses of the participants that the expectations they had when obtaining a doctorate degree were met. Although the participants were reluctant to specify their expectations in relation to their attainment of a doctorate degree, it is evident from literature review that these expectations are related to job satisfaction, salary and other related benefits. As far as professionalism is concerned, it has been found that professions, including police professionalism, expect to be afforded room for the exercise of self-regulation, autonomy, discretion and the awarding of rewards based on merit. This means that doctorate graduates in the SAPS appreciate the fact that their expectations are met. This also means that internal

occupational environment of the SAPS is conducive enough to meet the expectations of the participants.

The next theme to be discussed is “contributions or added value on various levels”.

5.2.3 Contributions or added value on various levels

The contribution or added value of a doctorate degree constitutes the focal point of this theme. This theme explores the contributions or added value of the doctorate degree on various aspects of policing. From the literature review in Chapter 1 of this study, it is evident that higher education contributes positively to various aspects of policing. The advocates of police professionalism such as Jones et al. (2005) as well as Cox and Moore (in Scaramella et al., 2011: 87), as discussed in section 1.2 2 in Chapter 1 of this study, argue that higher education improves, among others, the management, negotiation and problem-solving skills of police officials. Other benefits associated with tertiary education among police officials, as also discussed in section 1.2 in Chapter 1 of this study, are improved self-esteem, decision-making, and appreciation of the police role and function in the community (Carter & Sapp, in Sherwood, 2000:210; Manis et al., 2008: 516;). In agreement with Jones et al., Cox and Moore, Manis et al., Carter and Sapp, and the ABA (in Kakar 1998: 633), Stanislas (2014:60), among others, as discussed in section 1.22 in Chapter 1 of this study , found that higher education was associated with traits such as the ability to understand the social, political, and historical realities of everyday life. Carlan (2007: 612), as discussed in section 1.2, 2 in Chapter 1 of this study, also found that police officers who possessed degrees in criminal justice believed that this type of degree had greatly enhanced their comprehension of the law and the criminal justice system, in addition to their administrative, communication and analytical skills.

Critics of higher education in the police, such as Niederhoffer (in Palombo, 1995: 11), argue that hiring college graduates is an expensive luxury which does not add value to the efficient general performance of police organisations. It is further argued that college education, and CJS education in particular, has failed to adequately prepare students for the real world of policing (Carlan, 2007: 609; Smith, in Palombo, 1995: 16).

The literature review in Chapter 2 of this study also highlighted important issues relating to the value of higher education on policing. Kennedy (in Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007), as referred to in section 2.2.1.1 in Chapter 2 of this study , maintains that education has long-term benefits of improving the quality of policing services provided, and that it has the potential to confront

corruption and criminality within police ranks. Bittner (in Shernock, 1992), as discussed in section 2.2.1.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, is of the view that increased educational qualifications of the police has the potential to rid the police of the negative “stupid cop” image and of the perception that becoming a police officer is a last option for those who cannot become anything worthwhile. In support of Bittner, Chapman (2012) argues, as discussed in section 2.2.1.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, that the endorsement of a college degree requirement for joining the police would help in restoring the confidence of the public in the police. In Taiwan, as indicated by Cao et al. (2015) in section 2.2.1.3 in Chapter 2 of this study, the educational achievement of individual police officers is used as criterion for their appointment as either street or management level officers.

Naturally, there are people who are critical of the value of higher education in policing. For instance, Worden (in Bruns, 2010) and Terra (2009), as referred to in section 2.2.1.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, argue that educated police officers are prone to frustration within their work given the rigid rules and limited opportunities for growth. Therefore, practical skills are valued more than higher education qualifications.

From the responses of participants on the relevance of a doctorate degree in the police SAPS, as presented and discussed in Chapter 4 of this study, it was construed that such contributions or added value exist on various levels, the greatest being on a personal level. Most participants believed, as discussed in section 4.2.3 in Chapter 4 of this study, that a doctorate degree had a positive contribution. For instance, a participant stated: *“... I think my qualification adds meaning ...”.* Another participant supported this view, as discussed in section 4.2.3 in Chapter 4 of this study, by indicating that obtaining a doctorate degree *“ ... added value to me as a researcher in the police, provided me with a bit more skills in doing my work ...”.* As far as personal development and enhanced skills are concerned, the participants identified several traits which they linked to the attainment of a doctorate degree. For example, a participant indicated that obtaining a doctorate degree *“... increased my self-esteem ...”.* A doctorate degree leads to the development of higher-order and critical thinking, whereby graduates *“ ... become a little bit more critical ...”*, and it improves creative thinking ability in that it teaches one *“... to think out of the box ...”.* Participants also indicated in this context that this qualification improved decision-making, problem-solving, management and negotiation skills. For instance, participants mentioned in section 4.2.3 in Chapter 4 of this study that *“... I am comfortable to make decisions ...”*, that it *“... sculpt[s] you in terms of your management style*

...", and that it helped improve skills in *"... problem solving ...".* In studying for a Doctorate degree, *"... you learn about negotiation ...".* Furthermore, participants maintained that they learnt about writing reports and other policy directives when it was mentioned that *"... it also assisted me to write better reports and to give proper inputs regarding draft policies, national instructions and standing operational procedures ...".*

As presented and discussed in section 4.2.3 in Chapter 4 of this study, participants also indicated that a doctorate degree in the SAPS culminated in interpersonal exposure and connections and scholarly skills, and that it added value to the internal and external occupational environment of the SAPS. This was evident from participants who said that *"... it exposed me to other academic people ..."* and that *"... a PhD, it helps to understand when you are sitting at those high levels ...".* Other participants indicated that *"... your interpersonal, your communication skills improve ..."*and that *"... I think it makes you a ... a much better listener ...".*

However, some participants indicated that their Doctorate degrees did not add value or meaning for them. For instance, they mentioned: *"So, for me , um, there was not much value in terms of having that qualification ..."* and that, *"... if you think it is going to change your career, it does not because I have been in that rank for ten years having a PhD, um, training people at three/four levels higher than myself, but not good enough to make a next level of management, um, in the organisation."* Furthermore, participants were of the opinion, as discussed in section 4.2.3 in Chapter 4 of this study, that the value of a Doctorate degree in the internal occupational environment of the police differed. Some of the participants believed that this degree enhanced innovative training, police professionalism and job performance, and that it influenced promotion prospects and career path. Participants stated that *"[i]nside of the police where I have also, um, made good contribution to the police is I have written, material, training material, that never existed before. I have trained over two thousand people in the police in my filed of expertise ..."* and that *"... it helps me to bring that, em, eh, professionalism in ...".* Others said that *"... I have found new innovative ways to better improve my job performance ..."* and that *"... because of the doctorate that I have and the knowledge that I have, I could put a product there on the table and they could apply it ...".* As far as promotion is concerned, a participant stated that *"... I was promoted from the rank of Warrant Officer to Lieutenant Colonel ...".*

There were, however, participants who did not see the value of a doctorate degree internal to the SAPS's occupational environment, as discussed in section 4.2.3 in Chapter 4 of this study. Participants mentioned that *"... I was not so lucky with the promotion ..."* and that *"[s]o, to answer directly, when I have go ... when I qualified, I felt hard done if I was not sho ... shortlisted. So, I believe I was supposed to be given a chance to contest with the others ..."* .

The transferability of the knowledge gained through obtaining a doctorate degree to the external occupational environment of the police is achievable. Participants indicated, as referred to in section 4.2.3 in Chapter 4 of this study, that a Doctorate degree *"... can be used anywhere ..."*. For instance, a participant maintained that he or she was able to transfer the knowledge gained to the external occupational environment of the police in his or her personal capacity by establishing *" ... my own practice to assist challenging students with their research ..."*. Furthermore, another participant was of the view that a Doctorate degree improved the image of the SAPS, and argued that:

> *" ... let me say it benefits the ... the organisation because the, eh, members of the community or people out there think that SAPS does [sic] not have people who are learned, allow me to say that, or educated. They think we are just people who are out there chasing criminals and all those [sic] stuff, but, once they ... they know and they understand that you ... you are a ... a Doctor or you have a doctorate and you work in the police and there's ... it start [sic], uh, raising their eyebrows to say, hey, it means, eh ... eh ... eh, police ... policing, it is ... it is ... it is something that a person can do. It is not for the illiterate ..."*.

The participants' responses made it clear that a Doctorate degree added value to the various levels of the occupational environment of the police. It meant further that a doctorate degree was associated with positive behavioural attributes such as improved negotiation skills, problem-solving skills, management skills and enhanced job performance. There was also a correlation between a Doctorate degree and improved self-worth and confidence, self-motivation, creative thinking and decision-making skills. It could also be interpreted that this qualification led to the development of scholarly skills. It further meant that a doctoral degree contributed to the improved internal occupation environment of the police through innovative training and enhanced police professionalism, and that it influenced promotion prospects or career paths, although not for all graduates.

From the discussion of the literature review and participants' responses, it can be further construed that the knowledge gained through doctorate studying is operationalised. Furthermore, it can be interpreted that the external occupational environment of the police benefits from knowledge transferability, which is associated with a doctorate degree. The benefits mentioned above are discharged by doctoral graduates in their personal capacity, through community enhancement initiatives, improved image of the police and through international exposure.

The next theme to be discussed is "appropriate placement within the SAPS".

5.2.4 Appropriate placement within the South African Police Service

This theme focused on the appropriateness of the placement of doctorate graduates within the SAPS based on their qualifications. This theme explored whether SAPS members with a doctorate degree are appropriately placed in their work environment with due regard for their academic qualifications.

The literature review in Chapter 2 of this study relates to the role of tertiary education in the recruitment and subsequent appropriate placement of police officials. Dennis (in Feltes, 2002) and Prenzler et al. (2010), as discussed in section 2.2.1.1 in Chapter 2 of this study, regard tertiary education as a condition without which quality police work cannot be achieved. Commissions of enquiry in Australia, as discussed in section 2.2.1.1 in Chapter 2 of this study, recommended the recruitment of candidates with tertiary education (Fitzgerald, in Prenzler et al., 2010; Royal Commission, in Longbottom & Van Kernbeek, 1999). Kennedy (in Wimhurst & Ransley, 2007), as referred to in section 2.2.1.1 in Chapter 2 of this study, maintains that the Royal Commission found that tertiary education had the long-term benefit of improving the quality of services delivered by the police, and that it had the potential to confront corruption and criminality within the service.

Michelson (2002) as well as Carter and Sapp (1990), as referred to in section 2.2.1.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, state that the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in the USA recommended that the educational requirement for police recruits be raised to a bachelor's degree. Chapman (2012), as referred to in section 2.2.1.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, states that the USCCR observed that the endorsement of a college degree prerequisite would help in restoring the confidence of the public in the police. Cao et al. (2015), as referred to in section 2.2.1.3 in Chapter 2 of this study, mention that the educational

achievement of individual police officers in Taiwan is used as a criterion when placing them either as street or management level officers. Wang (2002: 1), as discussed in section 2.2.1.3 in Chapter 2 of this study, notes that police officers in the PRC are recruited from police schools, colleges and universities around the countries, and are guaranteed employment upon graduation, unlike graduates from other disciplines who must seek employment upon completion of their studies.

According to Caglar (2004: 353-356), as discussed in section 2.2.1.4 in Chapter 2 of this study, the Turkish Police, as is the case with other countries, requires its recruits to possess certain academic qualifications. As referred to in section 2.2.1.4 in Chapter 2 of this study, Caglar (2004) maintains that, in Turkey, the police recruits its members from the police schools, police high school and police academy, and that each category of the of the education system has different responsibilities regarding the target group concerned. Sundstrom and Wolming (2014) state, as discussed in section 2.2.1.6 in Chapter 2 of this study, that the minimum educational requirement for becoming a police officer in Sweden is a police education diploma, which is offered in three locations. Two of the locations operate within the premises of universities, while the third is not aligned to any university (Sundstrom & Wolming, 2014). According to Veic and Mraovik (2004), as referred to in section 2.2.1.7 in Chapter 2 of this study, the police school and the police college provide the education and training of police officials in Croatia, with responsibility for the education of aspirant police officials and serving members respectively. Although the police education system in Brazil is discharged in a non-uniform manner by each of the 25 police educational agencies, Lino (2004:), as referred to in section 2.2.1.8 in Chapter 2 of this study, found that the federal agency and the majority of state police organisations required a four year-degree from their recruits. However, Macvean and Cox (2012: 20), as referred to in section 2.2.1.5 in Chapter 2 of this study, found that the recruitment and placement of police officers in England and Wales was different from other countries previously mentioned in this section, in that police services in these two countries did not prescribe any academic qualifications for enlistment.

The literature review in Chapter 3 of this study also deals with the appropriate placement of police officials in police organisations. The recruitment and selection process plays a crucial role in the placement of police officials. According to Walker (2014), as referred to in section 3.2.1.3 in Chapter 3 of this study, professionals enjoy the monopoly to recruit and train new members, and this could arguably influence the appropriateness of the placement of the new

members. According to Schneider (2009) and Cox et al. (2014), as discussed in section 3.2.2.3 in Chapter Three of this study, the recruitment and selection of process is primarily aimed at identifying the best and most suitable candidates, as well as candidates with the potential to execute the policing role honestly and with integrity. This is, arguably, to be followed by the appropriate placement of the candidates.

According to Bennett and Hess (2004), as referred to in section 3.2.2.3 in Chapter Three of this study, police agencies risk being vicariously liable for criminality or libel committed by their members, and for the negligent employment of members. "Negligent hiring" relates to the employment of personnel who are neither qualified nor suitable for police work, whereas vicarious liability is about holding the employer accountable for the actions or inactions of its employees. The recruitment and selection process is, therefore, an even more critical component of professionalism (Bennett & Hess, 2004), as discussed in section 3.2.2.3 in Chapter Three of this study. Cox et al. (2014), as discussed in section 3.2.2.3 in Chapter Three of this study, argue that a duly undertaken process of recruitment and selection could lead to improved performance and professionalism. It could also arguably contribute to a reduction in lawsuits against the relevant police organisations.

The responses of the participants regarding the appropriate placement of police officers within the SAPS were presented and discussed in Chapter Four of this study. The participants had different viewpoints regarding their placement within the SAPS. Some of them indicated that they were appropriately placed based on their doctorate qualifications while others said that they were not. For example, participants who mentioned that they were appropriately placed said that *"… I strongly believe that, uh, I was appointed in this post based on my, uh, academic qualification, which are (sic) related to the current post …"*. Others said that *"I feel I am correctly placed as a … commander …"* and that *"… it is in line with what I am doing. I mean, my Doctorate is valid for what I am doing …"*. Although appropriately placed, one participant believed that his or her placement was not influenced by his or her academic qualifications. The participant maintained, in this context: *"Yes, but not because of qualification …"*. Another indicated that *"… I do not think that I was placed there because of my … of my qualification"*. A participant who maintained that he or she was not appropriately placed said: *"No, not, uh, correctly placed where I am currently …"*.

As far as this theme is concerned, it was found that not all the doctorate graduates in the SAPS were appropriately placed, although the majority of the graduates appeared to be appropriately

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placed. It was also found that, even among those who were appropriately placed, placement was not influenced by qualifications. The appropriate placement of graduates is linked to professionalism, and starts with the role of tertiary education in the recruitment process. Professionalism emphasises the importance of tertiary education as a condition for achieving quality police work. Appropriate placement, within the policing context, simply means the appointment of a police official to an environment where his or her skills and knowledge are most suitable to discharge his or her responsibilities efficiently and effectively. This has the potential to enhance professionalism in the police organisation. It also has the potential to improve public confidence in the police.

The next theme to be discussed is “SAPS’s reliance on science and research is a requirement to move forward”.

5.2.5 South African Police Service’s reliance on science and research as a requirement to move forward

This theme was about the use of science and research in the performance of police functions. There is a perception that police organisations need to move away from the traditional policing style and embrace science and research to ensure the successful execution of their duties.

From the literature review in Chapter 1 of this study, it is deemed imperative that modern day police organisations use scientific approaches to police their communities. Scaramella et al. (2011) and Jaschke (2010), as discussed in section 1.2 in Chapter 1 of this study, argue that policing has become more complex in nature, with the resultant need to move away from traditional experience-based training and education to a policing style based on science and research. In agreement with Scaramella et al. and Jaschke, Kakar (1998) as well as the Task Force Report (in Dantzer, 2003), as discussed in section 1.2 in Chapter 1 of this study, point out that the evolving nature of policing requires police officials with a broader knowledge of policing needs of the citizens, not just physical ability and common sense.

However, Jaschke (2010), as discussed in section 1.2 in Chapter 1 of this study, points out that political heads are opposed to the academically inclined manner of policing due to fear of losing control over policing. Furthermore, those in leadership positions within police organisations regard higher education as irrelevant to policing (Palombo, 1995; Worden, in Chappell, 2014). The ABA (in Palombo, 1995), as referred to in section 1.2 in Chapter One of this study, found that police managers even went to the extent of harassing and restraining graduated police

officials who made an effort to apply their acquired skills in their dealings with the community. In support of the perception that managers in the police do not value higher education, police officials are of the opinion that their agencies are unwilling to support their efforts to acquire higher educational qualifications (Breci, in Bromley, 1999; Hawley, 1998).

The literature review in Chapter 2 of this study is more inclined to the application of science and research to policing. The ABA (in Kakar, 1998), as discussed in section 2.3 in Chapter 2 of this study, believes that the phenomenal worldwide complex nature of police work requires "intellectual curiosity, analytical ability and capacity" to interpret the socio-political and historical events of everyday life, a skill which is arguably best derived from higher education. Cox (2011), as discussed in section 2.3 in Chapter 2 of this study, agrees with this view and argue that the complex nature of policing requires police officers to possess "technical expertise and specialist knowledge" to overcome the challenges posed by criminal elements. To give effect to the value of science and research in the police, the TNPA offers degree programmes to Turkish police officials up to doctorate level (Buker, 2010).

Naturally, there are opponents of the value of science and research in the police who are consequently against the value of higher education to police organisations. Bruns and Magnan (2014) state, as discussed in section 2.2.1.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, that it is believed that common sense is a requirement for making it in the police, not "20 Doctorates". Wimhurst and Ransley (2007), as discussed in section 2.2.1.1 in Chapter 2 of this study, found that police officials were opposed to the academic graduates in the police on the premise that they were not "street wise" but rather "bookish and theoretical". It was further alluded, as discussed in section 2.2.1.1 in Chapter 2 of this study, that tertiary education phased out common sense while bringing in impracticalities, that operational police officials were critical and contemptuous of "university officers with shallow policing experience", and that "academics", a term used to refer to police officials with higher educational qualifications, seemed ill prepared for police work. Police journals also published articles advocating the viewpoint that the best place to learn policing is on the job (Longbottom & Van Kernbeek, 1999).

From the responses of the participants, as discussed in Chapter 4 of this study, the general perception that emerged was that the SAPS's reliance on science and research was a requirement to move forward. A participant stated in this context, as discussed in section 4.2.5 in Chapter 4 of this study, that *"… I think an organisation that denies the power of … of science and knowledge is an o … organisation that will not move forward at all …"*. The responses of

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the participants ranged from those who held a positive view of the value of science and research in the SAPS to those who felt that there was a failure to appreciate the value of science and research. Participants who held a positive view of the value of science and research, as discussed in section 4.2.5 in Chapter 4 of this study, argued that, for example, *"... to be successful, these new ways must be researched before implementation, which is where science and research play a vital role for policing ..."* and that *"[c]riminal are becoming more sophisticated every day, so to win the war on crime police must invent new ways of policing ..."*. There were participants who believed, as discussed in section 4.2.5 in Chapter 4 of this study, that science and research were valued, but only as a future possibility. For example, participants maintained, as referred to in section 4.2.5 in Chapter 4 of this study, that *"... I am quite sure, in ... in ... in the later stage, it will change the way people think, the way people see educated people ..."*.

There were participants who had a different view of the value of science and research in the SAPS. The participants believed that there was a lack of appreciation of the value of science and research in the SAPS, creating the impression that research was not a priority for the police organisation. Participants stated in this context, as referred to in section 4.2.5 in Chapter 4 of this study, that *"... the organisation could utilise the knowledge and skills much more effectively, but because research is not a priority to improve the organisation, or to discover crime trends etc, it is just another qualification ..."* and that *"[t]he militaristic environment with a strong culture, uh, does not sit well for an academic, or an academic struggle [sic] to fit in there ..."*.

It was found from the participants' responses that the SAPS should rely on science and research as a requirement to move forward. The participants were found to have a positive view of the value of science and research. It was also found that the participants hoped to see scientifically-based changes. It was further found that some participants felt that the SAPS lacked appreciation for the value of science and research, and that this created the impression that research was not a priority for the organisation. Given the complex nature of policing, a reliance on science and research can only be beneficial to the SAPS. Furthermore, the SAPS's reliance on science and research to guide policing activities will enhance the institutional reputation of the police organisation. Doctorate graduates will be the most suitable people in conducting research that will guide relevant decision-making processes, given that a Doctorate degree is a

research-based qualification. These findings are, to a large extent, consistent with the literature review.

The next theme to be discussed is the “relevance of doctorate degrees in the SAPS”.

5.2.6 Relevance of doctorate degrees in the South African Police Service

This theme explored the relevance of a Doctorate degree in the SAPS. The theme sought to determine whether a Doctorate degree is relevant in the SAPS or not. The literature and the relevant responses of the participants are dealt with below to establish whether a Doctorate degree is relevant in the SAPS or not.

The literature review in Chapter 2 of this study points to the relevance of higher education in police organisations. According to Cordner and Shain (2011), Terra (2009) as well as Macvean and Cox (2012), as discussed in section 2.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, police agencies have entered into partnerships with tertiary institutions in order to offer higher education degrees to police officials. Wimhurst and Ransley (2007), as discussed in section 2.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, provided an example from Australia, saying that the Western Australia Police and the NSW Police Service formed partnerships with universities to offer academic qualifications to recruits. Wimhurst and Ransley (2007) and Fitzgerald (in Prenzler et al., 2010), as referred to in section 2.2.1.1 in Chapter 2 of this study, further indicate that two commissions of enquiry had already recommended, before the establishment of the relationships between the Australian Police Services and universities, that the police departments recruit more graduates. As a result of the recommendations of the commissions of enquiry, the AFP drafted a policy in terms of which 70 percent of recruits must be graduates and 30 percent should be those with life and workplace experience (Berzins, 2005).

Cao et al. (2015) and Buker (2010), as referred to in section 2.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, also mention that a number of police organisations require higher academic degrees for consideration to be promoted to higher ranks. According to Sandor (2014), Carter and Sapp (1990) and Terra (2009), as discussed in section 2.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, several police organisations provide funding to their employees to study further. The active involvement of police organisations in the academic endeavours of their current or prospective employees is confirmed by Wang (2002), as discussed in section 2.2.1.3 in Chapter 2 of this study, who states that the PRC offers a four-year qualification at police universities or colleges for prospective recruits. Cao et al. (2015), as referred to in section 2.2.1.3 in Chapter 2 of this

study, states further that, like the PRC, Taiwan also offers tertiary educational opportunities to its public servants, including the police, up to doctorate level, and that the educational achievement of an individual is used to determine the level of appointment of such an individual either as street or management level police officer.

According to Caglar (2004), as discussed in section 2.2.1.4 in Chapter 2 of this study, Turkey also has an education system specifically designed for the police, in terms of which police schools are responsible for the education of "ordinary police officers" while police high schools are responsible for preparing students to study at the police academy, which has a status equal to university. The police academy is solely responsible for the education and training of middle- and senior-ranking officers, as well as police administrators (Caglar, 2004). Furthermore, Buker (2010), as discussed in section 2.2.1.4 in Chapter 2 of this study, states that the TNPA, like the CPU in Taiwan, offers degree qualifications up to doctorate level.

Kakar (1998), as referred to in section 2.3.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, found that higher education was linked to the provision of quality policing services to the clientele, and Berzins (2005) also found that higher education led to the multi-skilling of and more ethical conduct by police officials. Furthermore, higher education is associated with the development of reflexive conduct, which is useful in police-community relations and leads to an appreciation of the prevailing socio-political and legislative conditions (Jones, 2016). Carter and Sapp (1990), as discussed in section 2.3.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, found that police officials who had obtained higher education were more flexible in addressing complex matters and in interacting with clientele from diverse environments.

The literature review presented and discussed in Chapter 3 of this study points to the fact that prior education and continuous self-development or self-education are, first and foremost, relevant to police organisations. According to Millet (in Glenn et al., 2003), Villiers (1997) and Kleinig (1996), as referred to in section 3.2.1.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, any profession is premised upon formalised education which is based on theory. In agreement with these authors, Dale (1994), as referred to in section 3.2.1.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, is of the view that all other principles of professionalism are of secondary importance to education, in that they exist for the maintenance and application of the body of knowledge. Walker (2014), as referred to in section 3.2.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, uses the term "professional knowledge" in his reference to education, and further argues that it is based on a detailed mastery of the associated principles. Walker (2014), as referred to in section 3.2.1.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, argues

that mastery of associated principles is achievable through an undertaking of prolonged study at a professional educational institution such as a university, as well as through "vocational training and socialisation". Huttington (in Glenn et al., 2003) and Kleinig (1996), as discussed in section 3.2.1.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, agree with Walker that a professional person derives his or her expertise only from "prolonged education and experience". Dale (1994), as referred to in section 3.21.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, argues that an important definitional element of a profession is the "existence of a body of knowledge" that covers a particular aspect of human life, and that this knowledge is derived from a scientific foundation or institutionalised knowledge.

According to Baker (1995) and Villiers (1997), as discussed in section 3.2.1.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, professional organisations selectively admit new members into their organisation. The new members should, as a rule, have completed training and internship (Baker, 1995; Villiers, 1997). The training is usually undertaken at institutions of higher education (Baker, 1995). As far as the relevance of education in police organisations is concerned, Schneider (2009) and Glenn et al. (2003), as referred to in section 3.2.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, maintain that this phenomenon constitutes the cornerstone of professionalism in policing in the same manner as in other professions. Schneider (2009), as referred to in section 3.2.2.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, states further that the value of college education in policing is premised on the assumption that the skills and knowledge required to function effectively could be learned in a classroom environment rather than through workplace learning. Schneider (2009) and Rowe (2009), as referred to in section 3.2.2.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, point out again that the relevance of education in policing has been the subject of commissions of enquiry in the USA and Australia with the resultant recommendation, among others, that tertiary education be the entry-level requirement for enlistment in the police. The majority of experts in policing and police administrators share this viewpoint (Rowe, 2009; Schneider, 2009). According to Rowe (2009), as referred to in section 3.2.2.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, the need to embrace police professionalism gave rise to an increased participation of police services in tertiary education programmes. However, those who are opposed to the prescription of college education as a requirement for enlistment in the police argue, for instance, that effective policing skills are learned on the job and not in a classroom environment (Rowe, 2007; Schneider, 2009).

According to Rowe (2009), as referred to in section 3.2.2.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, it is hard to evaluate the impact of education on policing because it is not clear whether professionalism

is based on the integrity of police officials as individuals or on their performance. Furthermore, Rowe (2009) points to the equally difficult task of determining the extent to which tertiary education improves professionalism due to the fact that the meaning of police professionalism is not actually clarified. The other factor related to aspect is continuous self-development or self-education. Roddenberry (in Faull & Rose, 2012) and Neyroud (2011), as discussed in section 3.2.1.1 in Chapter 3 of this study, opine that continuous self-education should form an integral part of the educational element when defining a profession.

The participants' responses, as discussed in Chapter 4 of this study, indicated that there was constructive use of their qualifications in the SAPS. This was evident from the responses of the participants who mentioned, as discussed in section 4.2.6 in Chapter 4 of this study, that *"... I managed to come up with the intelligence-led policing model for South Africa ..."* and that *"... I strongly believe my work is adding value to this ... environment, not only what I am doing but what other people can do out of my work ..."*. Furthermore, two more participants supported the view that a Doctorate degree was relevant to the police, as discussed in section 4.2.6 in Chapter 4 of this study, by mentioning that *" ... I am working hundred per cent in what I studied ..."* and that *"I think it is relevant, it is highly relevant, ..., I have given you ... given you divisional research, I have given you the core function of the police ..."*. It follows that not all participants shared the sentiment that there was a constructive use of Doctorate degrees in the SAPS. For example, a participant who had reservations about the constructive use of a doctorate degree in the SAPS, as discussed in section 4.2.6 in Chapter 4 of this study, was of the view that his or her study which was meant *"... to provide feedback on the value of the training was not even considered ..."*.

As far as the relevance of Doctorate degree in the SAPS is concerned, it was found that the attainment of this qualification was relevant to the occupational environment of the police. It was found that a Doctorate degree generally added value to the various aspects of policing. A Doctorate degree was further found to lead to the attainment of attributes such as the ability to solve problems, to interact with clientele from diverse environments and to appreciate the socioeconomic and political insight. Doctorate graduates were found to be multi-skilled and more ethical in their conduct. Many international police organisations were found to have formed partnerships with universities to provide tertiary education to police officers after recognising the relevance thereof to policing. Doctorate graduates therefore have the skills to successfully execute policing activities, thereby boosting public confidence in the police.

The next theme to be discussed is the “acknowledgement of doctorate degrees within the SAPS”.

5.2.7 Acknowledgement of doctorate degrees within the South African Police Service

The focal point of this theme is the extent of the acknowledgement of the doctorate degree in the SAPS. The theme details colleagues’ level of appreciation towards doctorate graduates. The literature review presented and discussed in Chapter 1 of this study depicts the prevalent level of criticism among police officers against higher education. There is a general lack of acknowledgement of higher education in police organisations. Palombo (1995) and Worden (in Chappell, 2014), as discussed in section 1.2 in Chapter 1 of this study, found that some of the police managers and supervisors regarded higher education as irrelevant to policing. Furthermore, Worden (in Chappell, 2014), as discussed in section 1.2 in Chapter 1 of this study, found that other researchers viewed higher education as having an adverse impact on policing. Some researchers question the value of higher education and the relevance of courses offered (Lewis, in Bromley, 1999). Decker and Huckabee (2002), as discussed in section 1.2 in Chapter 1 of this study, question the validity of higher education when they state that the mere possession thereof is not necessarily indicative of the fact that the holder is educated, because the curricula are not the same. Furthermore, pursuing tertiary education is sometimes perceived as a sign of disloyalty, resulting in perceptions of a lack of “long-term commitment” to the police (Hunt & McCadden, in Tankebe, 2010: 76; Jones et al., 2005: 50).

From the literature review in Chapter 2 of this study, it is apparent that there is no acknowledgement of higher education in police organisations. Shernock (1992), as referred to in section 2.2.1.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, found that resistance against the enlistment of people with tertiary education was influenced by the perception that the graduates would cause tension among police officials. Tertiary education is also resisted because it favours the lateral appointment of graduates, which is perceived as having the potential to threaten support for the maintenance of secrets. Chapman (2012), as discussed in section 2.3.1 in Chapter 2 of this study, found that higher education was perceived as a tool which the graduates used to resign from the police and was thus linked with a lack of commitment to the police and resultant high turnover. Jones (2016) refers to the antagonistic relationship between higher education and policing.

However, there are those who acknowledge the value of higher education in police organisations. Baro and Burlingame (1999), as referred to in section 2.2.1.2 in Chapter 2 of this study, perceive the absence of tertiary education among police officials who are engaged in specialised areas of policing as problematic, and propose an integration of higher education and police training as a solution. Furthermore, Jones et al. (2005), as discussed in section 2.3.1 in Chapter 2 of this study, found no correlation between higher education and turnover or job dissatisfaction.

Reponses from participants, as presented and discussed in Chapter 4 of this study, pointed to the fact that the acknowledgement of the doctorate degree varied. This variance ranged from partial acknowledgement, to being internally respected to a degree, to no internal recognition, to external validation. For example, a participant maintained, as discussed in section 4.2.7 in Chapter 4 of this study, that a doctorate degree was *"... not always..."* acknowledged in the SAPS and another participant said that *"... I do not believe that any person obtain [sic] a Doctorate, in order to be acknowledged in the SAPS because then you will be doing it for the wrong reasons ..."*. The participants who believed that there was positive recognition for a doctorate degree interpreted this recognition from *"[h]ow they address me ..."* and in the fact that *"... they call me by my title ..."*. The internal partial recognition was evident from the response of one participant who said that *"... I believe I was sort of being respected for who I am and what I did, and I do think that, um, if, in a conversation, people come to know that you had a doctorate degree immediately, they put you on another level ..."*. Acknowledgement came mostly from juniors as opposed to superiors of doctorate graduates. For instance, a participant mentioned, as discussed in section 4.2.7 in Chapter 4 of this study, that his or her juniors *"... acknowledge my study as a feasible means of policing ..."*, while another participant said that his or her superiors *" ... still question the new ways of addressing crime ..."*.

It should be noted that having a Doctorate degree leads one to be subjected to negative treatment from colleagues. Some of the participants mentioned, as discussed in section 4.2.7 in Chapter 4 of this study, that they had been at the receiving end of derogatory statements from their colleagues by virtue of having obtained a Doctorate degree. One such participant said, for example, that *"... I have been given names ..."* and another said that *"... you will be surprised when he or she tells you that do not [sic] your Doctorate tell what to do ...?"* A participant said, as discussed in section 4.2.7 in Chapter 4 of this study, that his or her qualification was

used as window dressing when he or she said that *"... I feel like it was a little bit of window dressing exercise because it was only used in the classroom to sort of, uh, provide a little prestige to the programme ...".* Having a Doctorate degree threatens superiors and others, hence a lack of recognition from them. A participant said in this regard, as discussed in section 4.2.7 in Chapter 4 of this study, that *"... I was seen as a threat to my immediate supervisor who was at a level above me ..."* and one more participant said that *"... people feel intimidated and they are less likely to ... to volunteer their knowledge, etcetera ...".* Police officers with Doctorate degrees are perceived as lacking operationally but only good academically. However, this perception was countered by a participant who said that there was a perception that a Doctorate graduate *"... is only good on ... on academics and, therefore, are not operational, which is far, far removed from the truth ...".* Furthermore, police officers with Doctorate degrees are alienated in their workplace. This was evident from the response of a participant who said that *"... there was a definite effort to keep me in a corner and not involve me in management things ...".*

Doctorate graduates received more valuable external than internal validation, with external recognition coming from universities and other entities. A participant stated in this regard, as discussed in section 4.2.7 in Chapter 4 of this study, that *"... if I have to deal with outside people of other, um ... say, for instance, with the ISS or that, then I will, uh, work with them on a professional capacity, then it gives me a professional leeway to go, but, inside the police, no, not really ...".* Another participant indicated in this regard that universities *"... do give you the respect if you have got a Doctoral ...".* Lastly, another participant stated, as discussed in section 4.2.7 in Chapter 4 of this study, that *"... I represent the police in other government departments or private initiatives, immediately the people will value you, you can see they take cognisance ...".*

It was found from the participants' responses that Doctorate degrees were acknowledged within the SAPS. It was also found that the acknowledgement of a Doctorate degree came mostly from the juniors as opposed to the superiors of Doctorate graduates. It was further established that some Doctorate graduates were subjected to negative treatment by their colleagues. Police officers with Doctorate degrees were perceived as lacking operationally, although excelling academically. These graduates received more valuable external validation from universities and other entities than internally. This is consistent with the literature review, which indicates that a general antagonistic treatment of graduate police officers exists. This means that police

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officers with Doctorate degrees may feel alienated and demoralised. It also means that there is room for the SAPS as an organisation to create a conducive environment for graduates to work in harmoniously. Lastly, it means that the public is deprived of an opportunity to be provided with professional and quality service to which the graduates have the potential to contribute.

The next theme to be discussed is "expectations of SAPS members holding Doctorate degrees to be treated in a special manner".

5.2.8 Expectations of South African Police Service members holding doctorate degrees to be treated in a special manner

This theme explores the issue of expectations of special treatment which Doctorate graduates in the SAPS may have. The main focus of this theme was to establish the expectation of higher education graduates in police organisations.

Due to the limited literature related to this theme, the presentation of the findings is limited to the literature review as presented in Chapter 1 of this study. Concerns have been raised regarding the expectations of graduated police officials in the workplace. O'Rourke (in Carter et al., 1989) raises a general concern, as discussed in section 1.2 in Chapter 1 of this study, that police officials who possess higher educational qualifications expect to be treated in a special manner. In agreement with this, Weirman (in Jones et al., 2005) argues, as discussed in section 1.2 in Chapter 1 of this study, that higher education tends to bring high expectations from employees. However, Worden (in Decker & Huckabee, 2002), as discussed in section 1.2 in Chapter 1 of this study, found no significant differences between the attitudes of police officials with higher education and those who lacked such education.

Responses of participants, as presented and discussed in Chapter 4 of this study, made it clear that participants had no expectation to be treated in a special manner. For instance, a participant said in this regard that *"I do not need to be treated in a special way …"* and that *"… I do not think you should be given, uh, special treatment …"*. Other participants who did not wish to be treated in a special manner indicated that *"[y]ou are still the same person, the degree will not make the difference, it is the person with the degree that can make the difference …"* and that *"… that is not my type of personality …"*.

It was found in this theme that participants did not have an expectation to be treated in special manner by virtue of their qualification. It was also established that having a Doctorate degree

did not make a difference in the personality of the individual graduates. This finding is consistent with the literature review, which found no significant differences between the attitudes of police officials with tertiary education and those without. This means that the presence of Doctorate graduates in the workplace is not or should not be a source of conflict as far as the graduates are concerned.

5.3 SUMMARY

This chapter provided an interpretation of the findings and evaluated the emergent themes and resultant sub-themes. Literature was also presented in support of each theme and related sub-themes to substantiate the importance of the identified themes.

The next chapter provides a summary of the study, provides recommendations and presents a conclusion.

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CHAPTER 6 SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a summary of the study and conclusions drawn about the various aspects related to the relevance of a doctorate degree in the SAPS. Based on the findings, recommendations are made regarding the value of a doctorate degree. These recommendations address all aspects arising from this study. The researcher conducted in-depth phenomenological individual interviews in order to obtain the views, opinions and perceptions about the relevance of a doctorate degree in the SAPS from serving and former SAPS members holding doctorate degrees.

6.2 SUMMARY

Chapter 1 dealt with the background to the study. It commenced with an introduction of the rationale for undertaking this study, namely, "an exploration of the relevance of a doctorate degree in the South African Police Service". This chapter also provided the background to the study. Furthermore, the chapter comprehensively addressed the research problem dealt with in this study. The geographical limitation of this study was addressed herein. Chapter 1 presented the research aim and objectives. The aim of this study was to explore the meaning that SAPS members, holding a doctorate degree, attach to such a degree in the SAPS occupational environment. This chapter further explained the envisaged value of this study, followed by the definition of key concepts central to this study, in order to ensure a common understanding of the meaning of concepts used therein. This was followed by the presentation and discussion of the research methodology, which explained the specific steps followed to deal with the research problem. The chapter further touched on the philosophical worldview followed in this study, namely, the social constructivist philosophical worldview, which takes the view that human beings make an effort to understand their social world. Lastly, this chapter discussed the strategies followed to ensure the trustworthiness of the study as well as the ethical considerations followed in this study.

The aim of this study was accomplished, namely, to explore the relevance that serving and former SAPS members who hold an academic doctorate degree attach to such a degree in the SAPS occupational environment.

The objectives of this study were also achieved. The study explored, identified and described:

- The relevance of an academic doctorate degree as experienced by serving and former SAPS members in their occupational environment.
- The value that SAPS doctorate graduates add to the SAPS.
- Made recommendations regarding the optimal, efficient and effective utilisation of doctorate SAPS graduates in the occupational environment of the SAPS.

The following primary research question was answered in this study:

What is the relevance that serving and former SAPS members who hold an academic doctorate degree attach to such a degree in the SAPS occupational environment?

Chapter 2 provided an overview of tertiary education in police organisations. This was followed by the discussion of the role of tertiary education in the recruitment of police officials in international police organisations as well as in police organisations in Africa. Furthermore, this chapter discussed the relevance of academic degrees for police officials in their internal and external occupational environments. Chapter 2 concluded by discussing the alignment of the South African practice with international practice.

Chapter 3 concentrated on contextualising professionalism in police organisations. The contextualisation of professions began with a brief overview of professionalism in general before addressing police professionalism. In discussing professionalism, this chapter provided a brief discussion of the distinct characteristics of a profession. In conclusion, this chapter addressed the issue of whether policing is or should be regarded as a professional profession. The determination of the police as a profession is approached from the perspective of whether the police comply with all the requirements set down for other professions such as law and medicine. The prescribed requirements are, among others, strictly enforced formalised minimum educational qualifications and accreditation.

Chapter 4 provided the presentation and discussion of the research findings. This chapter commenced with a discussion of the demographic profile of the interview participants. This was followed by description of the findings, looking at emergent themes, categories and codes from data analysis. The aim of analysing the collected data was to obtain a clear understanding of the data obtained. Each theme was preceded by a brief introduction and supported by

verbatim quotes from the participants to substantiate the claims made and to determine the extent to which the outcome of the data analysis supported the aim of the study.

Chapter 5 dealt with the interpretation of the findings based on an overview of the emergent themes and sub-categories. The chapter also provided an overview of the literature review relevant to each of the themes and integrated this with participants' perceptions, which were supported through verbatim quotes. The chapter concluded with the interpretation of the meaning of the findings in each theme.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings in the previous chapter require that recommendations be made regarding the relevance of a doctorate degree in the SAPS. The value of the recommendations is centred on the aspects which emerged during the study. The benefits and challenges experienced by the participants were identified during the findings and recommendations are proposed regarding the emergent themes.

6.3.1 Recommendations on motivating police officers to obtain doctorate degrees

It was found that police officers were motivated by personal ambitions and enrichment, external encouragement from others and the need to improve policing when deciding to obtain a doctorate degree. It is encouraging to note that some SAPS members are self-motivated to the extent of understanding tertiary education up to a doctorate level. However, the SAPS should be actively involved in encouraging a culture of learning among its employees at all levels. The following recommendations are made regarding the manner in which the members of the SAPS could be motivated to obtain doctorate degrees:

(a) The SAPS should create a career path for employees who have doctorate degrees in line with individual needs and expertise, as well as the strategic priorities of the organisation.
(b) The SAPS should establish a procedural framework in terms of which doctorate graduates could be identified and directed towards the correct career path.
(c) SAPS Component Research to assist in aligning research topics of police members to SAPS strategic direction to ensure relevancy, impact and eventually possible correct placement.

6.3.2 Recommendations on participants' expectations

It was found that the expectations that the participants had when they obtained a doctorate degree were met. Although the researcher could not establish the specific expectations of the participants that were met due to their reluctance to elaborate on this matter, it is evident from the literature review that such expectations relate to job satisfaction, salary and other related benefits. It also relates to the graduates being allowed to perform their functions within the confines of professional prescripts. It is therefore recommended that:

(a) An objective forum be established to enable doctorate graduates to have an input on what they expect from the employer. This will allow the SAPS to assess the reasonableness of the expectations and the feasibility of them being actionable.
(b) Notwithstanding the militaristic nature of the SAPS, doctorate graduates be afforded some room to exercise a certain measure of autonomy and discretionary powers in the performance of their duties with reasonable oversight. This will afford them flexibility in the application of their skills and knowledge to initiate solutions to problems and provide conformity to professional execution of their delegated duties.

6.3.3 Recommendation on the contribution or added value of a doctorate degree

It was found that a doctorate degree added value or contributed positively to various aspects of the internal and external occupational environments of the police. It was also found that it contributed to the attainment of positive behavioural attributes of individual graduates. At an individual level, a doctorate degree was found to contribute to attributes such as improved negotiation skills, problem-solving, management skills and enhanced job performance. It was also found to influence promotion prospects for many graduates. The value of a doctorate degree to the internal occupational environment of the police is evident through the innovative training of fellow police officers by the graduates and enhanced police professionalism. Furthermore, the external occupational environment of the police, such as universities and research-based entities, benefits from the attainment of a doctorate degree by police officers. Universities and research-based entities benefit through the contribution of doctorate graduates to the body of knowledge through their research output. Obtaining a doctorate degree was found to be linked to knowledge transferability to the external occupational environment through the graduates in their personal capacity, through community enhancement initiatives and through international exposure. In view of this, it is recommended that:

(a) Strategic policy directives be developed to give effect to the recognition of the value of a doctorate degree with specific reference to the graduates as well as the internal and external stakeholders.
(b) Doctoral graduates within SAPS should within SAPS should be encouraged to participate in the development of the SAPS research agenda and to actively participate in a research topic per research agenda cycle to remain relevant.

6.3.4 Recommendations on appropriate placement within the SAPS

It was found that the majority of the participants were appropriately placed within the SAPS. However, there were some participants who felt that they were not appropriately placed and those who felt that, although properly placed, their placement was not influenced by their qualification. The following recommendations are therefore made in this regard in order to ensure that all doctorate graduates are appropriately placed:

(a) An audit of all police officials who have a doctorate degree should be conducted. The outcome of the audit will result in the creation of an up-to-date database of all police officers who have obtained this qualification and their current conduct details. This will be instrumental in determining the appropriateness of the graduates' placement in relation to their field of specialisation.
(b) A policy document should be developed to regulate the appropriate placement of doctorate graduates, thereby enhancing job satisfaction.

6.3.5 Recommendations regarding SAPS's reliance on science and research

It was found that the participants had the perception that the SAPS's reliance on science and research was a requirement to move forward. It was also found that the participants hoped to see any decision-making being scientifically-based. Some participants felt that the SAPS lacked appreciation for the value of science and research and that this created the impression that research was not a priority for the organisation. Therefore, it is recommended for the purpose of addressing the complex nature of policing that:

(a) A fully dedicated institutional repository be established within the libraries of the police service for the purpose of depositing research outputs and subsequently creating a body of knowledge relevant to policing. This will ultimately enhance and add value to policing as a profession.

(b) Applications to conduct research within the SAPS be expedited and approved within the stipulated timeframes.
(c) Division Research within the SAPS be elevated to a fully-fledged and well-resourced, independent entity capable of conducting research in support of policing activities through the application of science.

6.3.6 Recommendations on the relevance of a doctorate degree in the SAPS

It was found, in relation to this aspect, that a doctorate degree was relevant in the SAPS. It was further found that this qualification was relevant to the occupational environment of the police in that it added value to the various aspects of policing. Police officials with a doctorate degree were found to possess traits such as the ability to solve problems, to interact with clients from diverse environments and to appreciate socioeconomic and political insight. Graduates were found to be multi-skilled and more ethical in their conduct. All these factors are relevant to the proper functioning of the police service. It was further established that international police organisations have formed partnerships with universities in recognition of the relevance of tertiary education to police organisation. In recognising the relevance of a doctorate degree in the police organisation, it is recommended that:

(a) A policy document be developed to regulate the application and approval of sabbatical leave to doctorate students to pursue their studies without hindrance.
(b) A strategy be established to determine the career path of doctorate graduates and to regulate their retention in order to secure their expertise and potential institutional memory.
(c) The SAPS establish partnerships with tertiary institutions to encourage police officials to study further up to a doctorate level.
(d) The SAPS provide adequate funding to doctorate students, covering tuition fees as well as all other research-related expenses such as travel, attendance of conferences, data collection costs and editing. Given the fact that engaging in education is an investment, the SAPS will receive a return on investment through the provisioning of professional and quality policing services to the public thereby increasing public confidence in the police. The individual police officials who become doctorate graduates will receive return on investment in the form of merit-based rewards.
(e) A progressive reward system be established for each qualification successfully completed. This has the potential to encourage other police officials to study.

6.3.7 Recommendation on the acknowledgement of the doctorate degree within the SAPS

It was found that police officials with a doctorate degree were acknowledged within the SAPS. The acknowledgement came predominantly from juniors rather than the superiors of the doctorate graduates. It was also found that some of the doctorate graduates were the subject of antagonistic treatment meted out by their colleagues. It was further found that such graduates were perceived to be lacking operationally, while excelling academically. However, these graduates received more valuable external validation from universities and other entities. In order to counter the negative perception that the graduates are not capable of performing operational duties, it is recommended that:

(a) Established communication forums, such as internal communication, be utilised as tools to disseminate valuable information about successful operational matter involving doctorate graduates.

6.3.8 Recommendation on special treatment of SAPS members holding a doctorate degree

It was established, in relation to the issue that SAPS members who hold a doctorate degree expect to be treated in a special manner, that the graduates did not expect to be treated in a special manner. It was argued that a doctorate degree cannot influence or change a person's personality. It is recommended, in this regard that:

(a) Proper communication channels be established to manage conflict or potential sources of conflict between SAPS members who hold a doctorate degree and those who do not.

6.4 PROCEDURAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE APPROPRIATE PLACEMENT OF DOCTORATE GRADUATES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

This study has identified and described the relevance of a doctorate degree in the SAPS from the perspective of serving and former member of the SAPS who hold a doctorate degree. This study found that a doctorate degree is relevant in the SAPS. The study identified the factors which motivated the SAPS members to obtain a doctorate degree. It is essential that the management of the SAPS take note of the factors which motivate members to study for a doctorate degree. This information will be useful in decision-making processes related to the

appropriate placement and career path of the doctorate graduates in the SAPS. The appropriate placement of the doctorate graduates is key in promoting police professionalism.

The appropriate placement of doctorate graduates in the SAPS is dependent on proper identification of the graduates and record-keeping mechanism. The proposed procedural framework for the appropriate placement of doctorate graduates, as illustrated in Figure 6.1, is a continuous process which requires the participation of all the stakeholders, particularly the doctorate graduates themselves. The SAPS should consider providing full financial assistance to doctorate graduates in order to give effect to the building of an internal sustainable capacity to conduct research. This will be in line with the finding that the SAPS's reliance on science and research is a requirement to move forward. This requires creating an enabling environment which is achievable through the proposed procedural framework for the appropriate placement of doctorate graduates in the SAPS as outlined in Figure 6.1. The proposed procedural framework for the appropriate placement of doctorate graduates should be regarded as an ongoing process rather than a once-off exercise.

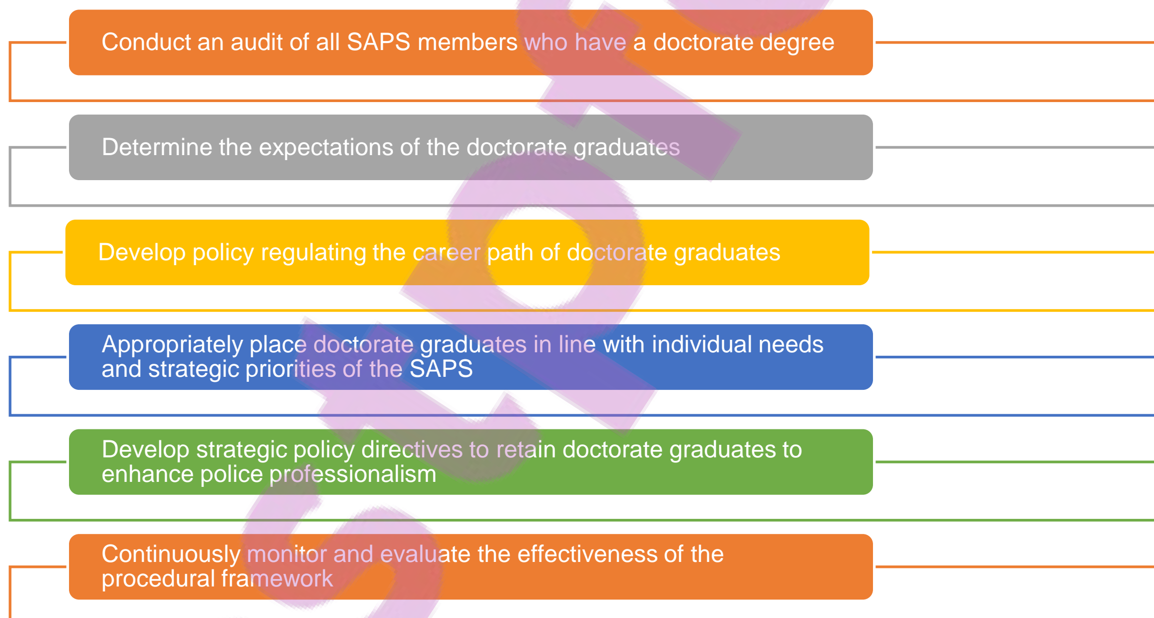

Figure 6.1: Procedural framework for the appropriate placement of doctorate graduates in the SAPS

6.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an overview of Chapters 1 to 5, followed by recommendations related to various aspects regarding the relevance of a Doctorate degree in the SAPS. This study is important in exploring the relevance of a Doctorate degree in the SAPS. Consequently, this study pointed out the themes and sub-themes which emerged during the data analysis. Lastly, the study has established the relevance of a Doctorate degree in the SAPS.

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ANNEXURE A: SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

South African Police Service Suid-Afrikaanse Polisiediens

Privaatsak Private Bag X94	Pretoria 0001	Faks No. Fax No.	(012) 393 2616

Your reference/U verwysing:
My reference/My verwysing: 3/34/2
Enquiries/Navrae: **Lt Col Joubert**
Intern Mahamba
Tel: **(012) 393 3118**
(012) 393 2423/4370
Email: **JoubertG@saps.gov.za**
MahambaS@saps.gov.za

THE NATIONAL COMMISSIONER
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
PRETORIA
0001

L Makgopa
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: AN EXPLORATION OF THE RELEVANCE OF A DOCTORATE DEGREE IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE: DLITT ET PHIL (POLICE SCIENCE) UNISA: RESEARCHER: L MAKGOPA

The above subject matter refers.

You are hereby granted approval for your research study on the above mentioned topic in terms of National Instruction 1 of 2006.

Further arrangements regarding the research study may be made with the following office:

Provincial Commissioner: Gauteng:

- **Contact Person:** Lt Col Etsebeth
- **Contact Details:** (011) 274 7871

Kindly adhere to par 6 of our letter signed on the **2016/11/09** with the same above reference number.

LIEUTENANT GENERAL
DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER: RESEARCH
DR BM ZULU
DATE: 2017/01/17

1

ANNEXURE B: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA ETHICAL APPROVAL

COLLEGE OF LAW RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2013/03/31

Reference: ST 13

Applicant: L. Makgopa

Dear L. Makgopa
Supervisor: Prof J van Graan

DECISION: ETHICS APPROVAL

Name	L. Makgopa
Proposal	AN EXPLORATION OF THE MEANING OF A DOCTORATE DEGREE IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
Qualification	D Litt et Phil

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the College of Law Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. **Final approval is granted.**

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

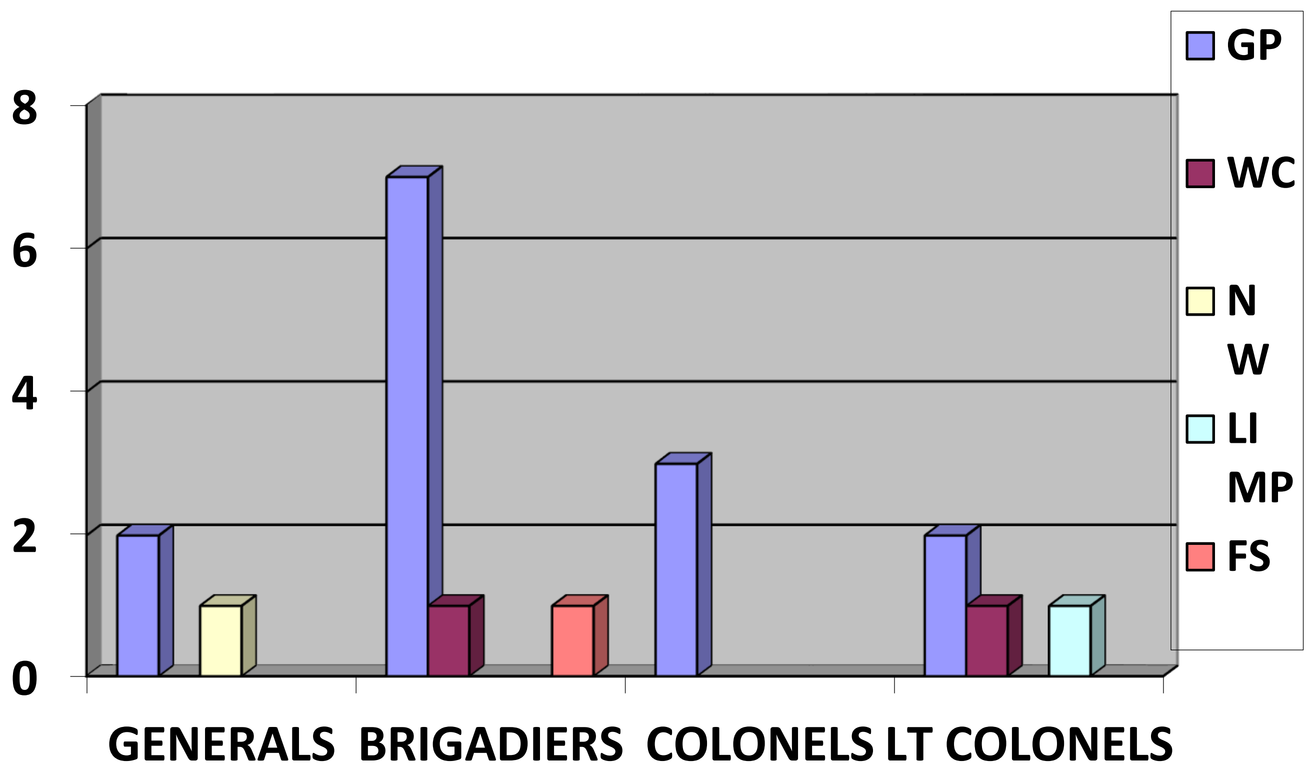
1. *The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics which can be found at the following website:*

   http://www.unisa.ac.za/cmsys/staff/contents/departments/res_policies/docs/Policy_Research%20Ethics_rev%20app%20Council_22.06.2012.pdf

2. *Any adverse circumstances arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the College of Law Ethical Review Committee.*

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392, Unisa 0003, South Africa
www.unisa.ac.za/law

ANNEXURE C: DEMOGRAPHICAL PROFILES OF PARTICIPANTS



ANNEXURE D: CONFIRMATION OF LANGUAGE EDITING

Susanna Elizabeth Louw
Phone 076 588 8561
Email anzelle@wordfix.co.za
SATI membership number 1002866

EDITING DECLARATION

DATE: 28/12/2018

I, SE Louw, hereby declare that the thesis titled ***An exploration of the relevance of a doctorate degree in the South African Police Service*** by L Makgopa, with the exception of verbatim quotes, has been professionally language edited by me.

If further information is required, please contact me.

SE Louw	2018-12-28
Susanna Elizabeth Louw	Date

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