Factors that promote or hinder success on new-entry constables during their first six months within South African Police Services.

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the degree in Master of Arts in Research Psychology.

by

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DECLARATION

I, Fanelesibonge Cynthia Mahaye hereby declare that the work: Factors that promote or hinder success on new-entry constables during their first six months within South African Police Services Basic Training Institution is my original work. All sources consulted or cited have been acknowledged in the text as well as in the bibliography.

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Fanelesibonge Cynthia Mahaye

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my mother, my siblings Ntombizini, Thabile, Simangele, Bongumusa, Vusi (Cuba), my son Andile and all my nephews and nieces.

ABSTRACT

The major aim of the study was to find out factors that promote or hinder success in New-entry constables within South African Police Service Basic Training Institutions. The Total sample was comprised of 316 participants that were chosen from two Basic Training Institutions in Gauteng and Kwa-Zulu Natal Provinces. With the help of the Institutions Officials, the researcher was able to use convenience sampling technique in selecting the respondents. From the themes it became evident that unsuccessful trainees cannot cope with the disciplinary measures which are applied on trainees. Interviews with the focus groups produced the following themes as causes of poor performance: failure to approach instructors, insufficient time to relax, fear of failure and other factors which are stated in chapter five. Ability to work independently, study group support, satisfactory accommodation, enough time to relax and other factors were identified as promoting trainees academic performance. A need arose for the establishment of an intervention programme aimed at addressing the common factors that lead to trainees' failure at South African Police Basic Training Institution.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Every year the South African Police Service (SAPS) invites applications from young, energetic, intelligent, physically and mentally fit individuals, dedicated to serving their country through pursuing a career in policing, for enlistment in the Basic Training Learning Programme. Since the World Cup soccer will be held in South Africa in 2010, more recruits are being trained to become police officials. The basic requirements of applicants are: young South African, physically and mentally healthy men and women aged between 18 and 30 years, who are law-abiding citizens i.e. who have not been found guilty of a criminal offence. Furthermore, they should be in possession of a valid driver's license, Matric or Senior Certificate, proficient in at least two of the official languages of which one must be English and qualify to participate in the recruitment and selection process of entry-level members in the SAPS.

1.2 Theoretical Background to the study

Since 1997, the SAPS have launched recruitment drives every year, culminating in escalating numbers of applications being received. The recruitment offices screen them for compliance with the minimum requirements mentioned. Eligible applicants are then invited to attend a one-day selection session. The selection takes place in all nine provinces in South Africa. Every applicant goes through a standardized selection procedure. Assessment in the SAPS is done by the internal Psychological Services (Meiring, 2007).

During the one day selection, a selection battery is administered that consists of cognitive measures (e.g. reading and comprehension, a spelling test and error checking test) and a personality test (e.g. 15 FQ + personality test and essay type questionnaire). The cognitive ability and the personality tests are paper-and-pencil tests and are provided in English. The last activity in the selection process is physical screening tests (a job related 500m obstacle course) which needs to be completed within a certain time limit. The answer sheets are electronically

scanned. A multiple hurdle approach is followed with the test battery where applicants have to attain a certain score level on the cognitive measures. In the next phase the applicants' needs to score within boundaries on the personality profile. A cut off score for the physical screening test are also set. A selection decision making model is utilized to generate a long list for each of the culture groups that are rank ordered. A further shortlist is compiled after applicants have gone through a medical assessment on a different time (Meiring 2007).

Recruiting, selecting and retaining applicants raise several issues. First, many persons think they want to be police officers but after a short time they realize that they are not suitable for the work. Second, the organisation may learn that there are individuals who are not able to perform the tasks. Third, there are family pressures that influence good officers to leave the profession. Fourth, some officers burn out quickly and leave: finally some officers leave for better paying jobs (Alpert, Dunham and Stroshine, 2006).

The hiring of a police officer involves two decisions. The first involves an individual's choice to become a police officer. The second decision involved in the hiring of a police officer is the law enforcement decision to hire that person. In today's litigious society, proper recruitment, selection and training procedures protect police departments from "negligent" hiring and "failure to train" law suits, which are types of litigation that cost police departments and their jurisdictions millions of rand every day. (Alpert et al, 2006).

As the education and training begin, the trainees adopt a new identity. This includes uniforms, badges, weapons and more importantly, a system of discipline that teaches them to comply with orders and not to question authority. A successful experience at the college provides police trainees with certain attitudes about police and policing. Trainees also gradually develop a common understanding of law enforcement, a common language with which they express themselves and a common set of interests from which they learn. (Alpert et al, 2006).

It is important for trainees to establish the appropriate values that will influence their behavior as they start their career. The police college serves as the first and most influential point to introduce these values. Second, training should be based on officer's daily tasks. The department should conduct a job performance study and develop the police training curricular around the results. In other words, it is known what precisely officers do or are expected to do, it is impossible to train them to do it. High-risk activities should receive the most intense training. (Alpert et al, 2006).

Each trainee must pass the requirements of the college to graduate. Many institutions insist that the trainees pass all courses the first time, while other colleges have to build in provisions for the remedial training to help marginal students succeed. One of those institutions is the South African Police Service. Institutions use a variety of methods to evaluate and grade the progress of their trainees such as multiple choice tests, role-play exercises, written answer tests and oral tests. With new attitudes and skills learned while at the college, the young officer moves to the streets.

Numerous studies about factors associated with academic performance have identified contextual and social characteristics of students as important factors. These factors include family, peers, school and community. Among family factors are low socioeconomic status, minority status, single parent hood and family involvement. Peer factors include lack of friends and involvement with peers with negative attitudes. Examples of school factors are school climate, size of school, (in SAPS examples of college factors would be college climate, size of the college and alienate instructors), lack of counseling for at risk - students, alienated teachers and low participation in extracurricular activities. Previous studies have also documented two psycho-social factors, locus of control and self-efficacy as important predictors of academic performance of college students (Findley & Cooper, 1993; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Niemiec, Sikorski & Walberg, 1996; and Wiest, 2001). Locus of control is the personal belief about the extent to which one's behavior influences a specific outcome (Rotter, 1996).

Self-efficacy is a personal judgment about one's ability to perform requisite actions in order to achieve specific outcomes (Bandura, 1977).

According to Carroll and Garavalia (2004), the direct influence of student's choice of activities, degree of effort and level of persistence in times of difficulty. The indirect influence of ability on performance is realized in the level of self-efficacy and personal goals. According to this model, self-efficacy is the student's judgments of their capability to accomplish specific tasks. Self-set goals are believed to affect student's performance directly, because it is believed that it motivates individuals who possess the required ability into action. Also self-set goals determine the choice of tasks and learning strategies a student makes to directly affect performance. As Caroll and Garavalia, (2004) put it: "self-set goals influence not only student motivation but also student behaviors." Nonetheless, successful academic performance is contingent upon effective studying and motivational strategies, otherwise, self-set goals would be fruitless and would not be realized.

1.3 Research problem

Despite having undergone psychometric assessment there is a reported high failure rate for police-student. There is a reported high failure rate of re-assessments and remedial test of the same content. The entry-level assessment is used to select applicants who are competent and who will predictably succeed in the field of law enforcement. The reason for the requirement being established is the police training and police work are stressful in nature. After the intake process, students are usually required to re-organise and re-adjust their lifestyle in line with the changes caused by the training environment. However, many students find it difficult to adjust to training conditions. This is often manifested in various ways such as poor academic performance (repeated high failure rate of re-assessments and remedial tests of the same content. This study is going to explore the factors that lead to trainees' poor or good academic performance.

1.4 Motivation

The current researcher was motivated by the findings which she found out when she conducted focus groups in Pretoria-West College in year 2007 during the second semester. Some of the findings were concerning instructors (lectures), too much physical training between academic classes, punishment and usage of derogative statements and lack of relaxation or leisure time.

1.5 Aim and objective of the study

The main aim of the present study was to find out factors that promote or hinder the success of new-entry constables in their first year of basic training within the SAPS. The short-term objectives are:

- To find out factors that promote trainees success, during their first six months of basic training.
- To find out factors that hinder the success of trainees during their first six months of basic training.

1.6 Significance of the study

- It is hoped that this study would equip SAPS Division Training staff as well as the instructors regarding what should be done to help the future trainees to cope with academic challenges.
- It is also hoped that it might prepare members of the public who want to join SAPS, to understand the recruitment process and know what is involved in the basic training curriculum.
- In addition this study has formed part of the development of self-empowerment programme which is presented to trainees during orientation.

1.7 Resumé

This chapter has introduced the current study by highlighting the theoretical background, the research problem, motivation as well as the aim and objectives of the study. The next chapter will review literature on factors promoting and

hindering success on new-entry constables during their first six months at South African Police Service Basic Training Institutions.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

South African tertiary institutions are changing in several important ways, their entry standards are changing, their programmes are focusing more specifically on their outcomes that learners are required to achieve and their students are becoming more diverse. These changes are occurring in a climate of increased accountability. It is, therefore, important for universities to be concerned about the standards of their academic programmes and about the success rates of students. Some educators argue that entry standards are the most important determinants of success at university; others maintain that non-academic factors must also be considered.

Students entering South African tertiary institutions come from a wide range of social and cultural backgrounds that give them very different life experiences, different educational opportunities and a great variety of expectations, needs and academic potential. When students are admitted to a higher education institution there is a tacit assumption that they will be capable of successfully completing the course in which they are en enrolled (Chikte & Brand, 1996; Goduka, 1996) cited by Fraser and Killen (2003).

Students come to a university with a variety of self-beliefs and preparation levels. Richardson (1990b), cited by Kleemann (1994) identified four categories of students and preparation levels:

Well prepared with high opportunity orientation:

These students come from educated families attended suburban or high performance inner city school. They were expected to go to college. York Anderson and Bowman (1991) found that second generation college students received more family support for attending college than did first generation students. Their research also indicated that students receiving more support also had more factual information about college.

Marginally under prepared with high opportunity orientation:

These first generation college students lacked the preparation of the first group, but had grown up with strong family encouragement to pursue higher education. A significant proportion of this group began their post secondary education in a Community college.

Marginally under prepared or worse with low opportunity orientation:

This group was much smaller then the first two. These students grew up in families and communities where going to college were not the accepted activity as it was in the other groups. They tended to be advised that college would make no difference in the opportunities they would experience in their lives. Negative peer and family pressures, lack of preparation and low opportunity orientation placed tremendous odds against college graduation for this group.

Well prepared with low opportunity orientation:

This very small group of well prepared students lacked the conviction that college would make a significant difference in their lives. In Richardson's study, the group was made up primarily of Native Americans who came from reservations with high unemployment rates and limited opportunities for professionally trained workers. A similar attitude shows up in affluent and alienated majority students who do not believe the quality of their lives depends to any great degree on their exertions.

There is ample evidence in the literature on teaching and learning to suggest that factors such as teaching strategies, the student's motivation, the student's approach to studying, the interaction between students and the academic and social systems of the university, cultural expectations, psychological factors and numerous other factors are likely to influence student's success at university (Talbort, 1990; Bartz & Miller, 1991; Meyer, 1990; Tinto, 1975, 1975; Ginsburg, 1992, Mckenzie & Scweitzer, 2001) all cited by Fraser & Killen (2003).

2.2 The South African Police Services Selection Process

Pre-employment psychological screening by SAPS is a presumably an effective way to select those applicants who will be successful and competent to become police officials.

Assessments within the SAPS are done by its Psychological Services department. Immediately after democratisation in 1994, there was a moratorium on the recruitment and assessment initiatives in the SAPS. The moratorium on applicant assessment was lifted in 1997 with the amalgamation of the various police agencies into one South African Police Service. Since 1997, the SAPS has launched recruitment drives every year, culminating in escalating numbers of application being received which are now up to 3 million applications.
(Meiring, 2007)

The SAPS is required to have equity plans in place which cater for an ethnically equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce. Equity targets for entry-level constables are set prior to the selection process and are aligned with the affirmative action plan of the SAPS. Post allocation of entry-level positions is based on three criteria, namely demographic composition of the country, composition of the population from where entry-level applicants are recruited and organizational needs. Potential police applicants are informed about police jobs through local newspapers such as Sunday Times and City Press. Once the South African Police Service has received application forms, the recruitment officers screen them for compliance with the minimum requirements. Eligible applicants are then invited to attend a one-day selection. The selection takes place in all nine provinces in South Africa (i.e. Gauteng, North West, Mpumalanga, Northern Province, Northern Cape, Free-State, Western Cape, Eastern Cape and Kwa-Zulu Natal). Applicants are tested at the closest recruitment office to their place of residence. Every applicant goes through a standardized selection procedure (Meiring, 2007).

According to Steyn (2005), psychometric test batteries (specifically personality measurement test) used by the SAPS to select the most suitable new-entry

constables to the organisation are based on the skills, abilities and knowledge profiling of the past recruits who successfully completed the organisation's basic programme. Applicants who demonstrate characteristics and traits similar to those possessed by the officers already in the Police Service stand a greater chance of being employed. In this regard it is ironic that contemporary research suggests that in terms broad "polity" and ethical values police officer views are largely in place when they begin police work and these attitudes do not change much throughout their career (Zhao He & Lovrich 1998; Caldero, 1997 & Crank, 2000), cited by Steyn (2005). Yet the selection process is designed to assure the opposite effect-that recruits adopt the ethos and philosophy of their chosen career, which conversely will ultimately "make them fit for police work" (Crank, 2004), cited by Steyn (2005).

During the one-day selection, a selection battery is administered that consists of cognitive measures (e.g. reading and comprehension and a spelling test) and a personality test (e.g. 15 FQ + personality test). The cognitive ability and the personality test are paper-and-pencil test that are provided in English. Each applicant's finger prints are also taken and are checked against a criminal record database for any offences. The last activity in the process is a physical screening test (a job-related 500-meter obstacle course). Applicants need to complete the course within a certain time limit. After the one-day selection, the electronic answer sheets from all Provinces are sent to Psychological Services in Pretoria (Head Office), where the answer sheets are electronically scanned. A Multiple hurdle approach is followed with the test battery where applicants have to attain a certain score level on the cognitive measures. In the next phase the applicant needs to score within certain boundaries on the personality profile. A cut off score for the physical screening test are also set. A selection decision making model is utilized to generate a long list for each of the culture groups that are rank ordered. A further shortlist is compiled after applications have gone through a medical assessment on a different time (Meiring, 2007:17).

After the selection procedure, applicants who have been selected on the basis of their ranking start with the job training. They receive a theoretical training of six

months and a practical weapon training of four months. After the completion of this training program, they are stationed at a police station and receive field training for another six months. After a two-year training period they are hired, become police officers and receive full benefits such as a medical scheme and allowance. The entire program is conducted in English. The selection process attempts to be efficient, speedy and objective. The objectivity of the procedure is mainly achieved by not relying on interviews or other assessors. Secondly, the procedure is objective in that scores are statically combined into a final ranking expressing each applicants chance to be selected (Meiring, 2007: 17).

2.3 FACTORS PROMOTING FAILURE OF POLICE TRAINEES

According to literature, the following factors have been found to be contributing These are the factors which lead to students' poor academic performance.

2.3.1 ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

According to Stephen, Welman & Jordaan (2004), high levels of English language proficiency are a critical factor in achieving academic success. It is common knowledge that students have problems with conducting their studies at tertiary level in their second or third language. According to Vincke and Jochems (1993) indicate that for foreign students who are not English first language speakers, "the lower the level of English proficiency, the more important a factor it becomes in defining academic achievements", therefore the more critical it becomes in determining academic success. Barker (1988) agrees and states that although English second language students in English tertiary institutions may speak English, they still experience difficulty and "are not operating at his/her maximum capacity because of the language barrier". In other words this affects students in terms of their understanding of course content, examination questions and the production of academic work.

Toni (2002), states that a number of authors have identified a lack of appropriate linguistic skills as one of the causes of deficiencies in the academic performance of Black students or English second language speakers. She further states that

linguistic skills are crucial to the academic performance of students since they affect reading, writing and other cognitive skills. If, for whatever reason, the learner has a deficiency in understanding English language, he or she may find it difficult to utilize the language successfully as means of acquiring, processing, internalizing and applying it through the learning material. This could easily lead to dropping out or under-achievement. Most students study in a language that is foreign to them. So in most cases, such students are penalized for their inability to effectively utilize a language in their academic endeavors. These students are not only at a disadvantage because of not being able to use the language effectively, but he is also discriminated against because the language used in school and in institutions of higher learning favours members of the middle class, from whom he or she often fells separated. Ogbu (1978) cited by Toni (2002) differentiates between "Black" and "White" English in America and perceives the English of the working class (Black English) as deficient. Language is not only essential in terms of interacting a vital role in the maintenance of subculture. Toni (2002) emphasises that one becomes a full member of a group only when one feels comfortable with other members of the group. In other words, the inability of students to comprehend the dominant language used at institutions of higher learning may not only have a negative impact on their academic performance, it could also lead to a lack of identity and feelings of alienation. Therefore English second language students in English tertiary students may speak English, but they still experience difficulty and are not operating at their maximum capacity because of the language barrier. Many of these students "lack the pre-requisite literacy skills for successful university study and that literacy deficiencies are associated with failure to finish the degree in the maximum time (Barker, 1988; Holder, Jones, Robinson and Kras (1999).

In South Africa, the situation is much more complex, given the multilingual environment existing in this country. While this does not appear to be a significant factor for White, English speaking students, it is for the majority of Black second Language students. The lecture, books, assignments and test are all in English. If there is a lack in this area it will impact negatively in all other aspects of student success. Kasanga (1999) states student's knowledge and

academic performance are mainly assessed through writing and the latter counts heavily towards the final grade and can influence the lives of students.

Positive spins offs of good English proficiency include reduced culture shock on entry to tertiary education as the adjustment to academic requirements are reduced (Lanzenby, 1996). If this is not present, the student is disadvantaged. Academic staff does not have the time, inclination or skills training to teach basic reading and writing skills to students.

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The problem is that the reading and writing ability of most black students is inferior. Blacquiere (1989:81) testing reading speeds and comprehend found out that white students read an average of 240 words per minute with 70% comprehension whereas black students read at 174 words per minute with a 62% understanding. Blacquiere further states that blacks have a basic problem of comprehension and listening: "therefore what the lecturer says is not what they hear".

Craig and Kernoff (1995:27) agree and indicate only 2% of blacks read at the independent level (i.e. 605 comprehension or above), 31% at the Instructional reading level (40-60% comprehension) and 67% scored at the Frustration level (below 40% comprehension), i.e. two thirds of the group were unable to read material conformably and nearly one third needed assistance. Only 2% required no assistance in reading comprehension.

Pouter and Van Der Merwe (1993a) indicate that among English First Language students, performance is best predicted by using school performance (matric

results) for pre-entry, with the best indicator for post entry success being the first tests.

Matric and first-year academic performance: correlations for race groups research done by Foxcroft & Stumpf (2001), it is stated that when they compare the performance of different language groups, it must be kept in mind that the majority of learners write Matric in their second language. In 1998 a government research team reached the conclusion that language was a major factor to the poor performance of learners who were not able to write Matric in their mother tongue (Umalusi, 2004). Consequently, a compensatory mechanism was introduced and is now employed for learners who write Matric in their second language-their non-language marks are adjusted upwards by 5%.

Despite this compensation, there were many press reports after the 2004 Matric results were released which argued that poor second-language English proficiency contributed to poor Matric performance. This, in particular, was the reason offered for the Eastern Cape's poor results. Consequently, there has been a strong call for examination papers to be available in South Africa's eleven official languages. In addition, the new National Senior Certificate (NSC) is opening up possibilities for learners to be educated in their tongue. It is not yet clear what the impact of such mother-tongue education will be on the same performance of students in higher education where the medium of instruction in the majority of situations is English. These factors simply underline the centrality of proficiency in English as a prerequisite for academic success.

2.3.2 Factors influencing English language proficiency

According to Stephan et al (2004), a study done by Starkey (1998) at tertiary institution indicated that over 90% of Black students lacked comprehension skills for successful completion of their courses. Stephan et al (2004), contend that English language proficiency is inhibited by a variety of factors. These include:

- *Rural environment*

  In some rural areas, English is almost a foreign language. Where English proficiency exists as a literal rather than an inferential level and where meaning interaction with English is rare.

- *School teacher English Proficiency*

  Most Blacks are young, frequently inexperienced and often under-qualified. Although they were taught pedagogics, once in the classroom, they revert to the inefficient rote learning systems in which they were taught. This approach results in high levels of passitivity. Once students from such an environment enter high education, they are disadvantaged and often unable to adapt to the discoursed-based environment in which they find themselves. To make matters worse, many rural teachers themselves have low levels of English proficiency and many operate only at the literal level. Although they are required to teach in English, they teach in vernacular and hand out summaries and notes in English which the students are required to (rote) learn.

- *Cultural influences*

  Not all students speak English confidently. Compared to their counterparts, they are often out of their depth in an alien culture. The situation in South Africa is exarcebated by the orality of Bantu languages: especially in academic context, English is thus based more on the written word.

- *Problems regarding verbal comprehension*

  Although Black students use vernacular language for social situations, they recognize English as the language of education and commerce: thus it is the most practical choice as a medium of instruction (Lazenby, 1996), quoted by Stephan et al (2004). While many Black students are able to engage in general conversational English to a greater or lesser degree, they

lack the ability to express themselves in written form or to handle the technicalities of the subject matter (Stephan et al, 2004).

2.3.4 Concentration

Lack of concentration can be caused by various factors. Fatigue from sleep deprivation is probably the most common cause for inability to concentrate. Individuals should get at least eight hours of sleep every night. Anxiety is another cause for inability to concentrate. Boredom is another big culprit when it comes to staying focused on your studies. Boredom stems from doing something that lacks meaning and motivation. Every time a student prepares to enter a study environment, he or she should take a moment for a reality check. What does he need to accomplish and why? One should concentrate on a goal and think of a way to reward him or herself for reaching that goal. Diet is another potential problem when it comes to concentration. The body is just like a diet machine, it needs balanced food to keep it running. It is important for students to concentrate in class so that if there is something which is not understood, clarity seeking questions would be posed (Fleming, 2010).

2.3.4 Physical Training

Donatelle (2005), states that too much exercise can be harmful. The body parts exercised need at least a day of rest. Without prior rest, the chance of stroke or other circulation problems increases. Donatelle (2005) also states that the exercises are a stressor and the stresses of exercise have a catabolic effect on the body. Contractile proteins within muscles are consumed for energy, carbohydrates and fats are similarly consumed and connective tissues are stressed and can form micro-tears.

2.3.5 Students' backgrounds

When one refers to the backgrounds of students at institutions of higher learning, various factors come into play. These factors include academic background, level of education of parents, cultural background, religious background, gender and many more. Toni (2002) cited Mncwabe (1987) and she also cited Henry and Tator (1994) describe the classroom as a 'learning stimulus mix' in which all kinds of people and resource are deployed. He further acknowledges the necessity to take into

consideration the social, economic and cultural background of learners when dealing with a multi-cultural classroom complex and conflicting knowledge and attitudes that are shaped by their own cultural, racial and social identities. Toni (2002) goes further to say that learners from a non-dominant culture could easily find themselves academically disadvantaged when studying at an educational institution where the knowledge, values and attitudes require cognitive functions of the dominant culture. Goduka (1996) cited by Toni (2002),

> *refers to a White professor who stated that African students come to the classroom with a you owe me something attitude, they often feel intimidated by a White professor and English language which is foreign to them.*

She responds to this by suggesting that students should be motivated to perform at their optimal level and the need for a paradigm shift by lecturers, instructors and professors should also be emphasized, since most of them were not trained to teach in multicultural society

Toni (2002) also states that institutions and lecturers themselves need to critically look at deficiencies in their own backgrounds, as well as the effect the institutions have on students. She also argues that if institutions of learning are rigid and fail to compromise their ways of doing things, the chances of fully understanding and being sympathetic to the different backgrounds of students would be limited. Craig (1989) cited by Toni (2002) speaks of a mismatch between what students bring to the teaching-learning situations that follow are: should the teaching learning situation and what the university in general demands with respect to standards of success. The two questions that follow are: should the teaching learning situations be changed so that it develops appropriate performances or should the approach of a university in general be changed to match the skills and knowledge of students with so-called ‘inferior’ backgrounds?

2.3.6 Personal or family crisis (family circumstances) and stable home environment

Stephan at al (2004) quote Pantages & Creedon (1978) when they state that this factor exerts significant impact on student survivability. In general the lower the socio-economic background, the greater the potential for drop-out or failure. The education of parents appears to be a significant factor: highly educated parents' children appear to have greater success or survivability potential.

Smith (2002-2009) states that a stable home is important because when family has a stable home environment it brings love, joy, happiness, security and a real family lifestyle that spouses and children can enjoy. However, if there is chaos in a home environment, everyone tends to lead a life of stress and anxiety. A stable home is important to eliminate the lack of self-esteem, self-confidence, insecurities, fear, depression and mental problems in our children. Kleeman (1990) found that trainees who receive more support have more factual information about college.

2.3.7 Racism

Sedlack (1999), cited by Toni (2002), differentiates between two forms of racism, i.e. institutional racism and individual racism. Institutional racism involves policies and procedures, either formal or informal that result in negative outcomes for members of a certain group just because they are members of that group. Bird (1996) cited by Toni (2002) speaks of 'overt' and 'covert' forms of racial discrimination. An example given by Bird's informants of an overt from discrimination is when attention was openly drawn to the failings of Black students in front of the entire lecture-room. An example of a covert discrimination, on the other hand can be the unwillingness to consider the fact that those courses and curricular may not effectively address issues of race and discrimination.

Willie and McCord (1973), cited by Toni (2002), use the term "Black separatism" and "White racism". In most cases, Black students are confronted with ridicule, rejection, insensitivity and insincerity on the part of some Whites on predominantly White campuses and therefore opt for separatism. In other words, one could explain separatism as an act of separating oneself or a group from the main group.

Goduka (1996), cited by Toni (2002), explains racism from a South African perspective when she says that it is offensive and insulting to call someone 'disadvantage' or 'under-prepared'. At predominantly White universities, these labels are often associated with Black students. Goduka asserts that such language shifts the blame from the system of apartheid to the victim.

2.3.8 Lecturers' expectations

Many of the interactions between lecturers and students at university are influenced by the lecturers' expectations of students. In the studies conducted by Fraser and Killen (2003), it was evident that students placed a low priority on understanding lecturers' expectations but, nevertheless, thought that the expectations were "unrealistically high". Fraser and Killen (2005), state that, there is a potential problem here, particularly when some of the lecturers' expectations are not made explicit. The explicit criteria is the one that students are most likely to consider 'unrealistically high' but these may have less influence on students' success than the implicit criteria. Explicit criteria tend to be essentially quantitative (e.g. how long an essay needs to be or what system of referencing is to be used), but the implied criteria tend to be qualitative (how well the student argues a case, how clearly ideas are expressed and so on.

These hidden criteria are the measures that lecturers use to judge the quality of students' work and their performance to lecturers in the studies reported on in this article is reflected in the lecturers' high ratings for items such as "effective written communications skills", "ability to reason logically". These factors were highly rated by lectures than by students. It goes without saying that students will have difficulty meeting lecturers' expectations regarding what they are required to do and to what standard, unless students understand these expectations. Many students seem to be unaware of this simple fact. Perhaps these students are very naïve or perhaps they have been experiencing success despite being ignorant or confused about what was expected of them. Or perhaps they have been failing even when they mistakenly thought they understood what the lecturers expected of them.

This latter possibility seems to be indicated when, on the "failure" scale, students considered "lecturers or tutors with realistically high expectations of students" as more likely to contribute to possible failure than did the lecturers themselves. Other interpretation of these results could be "perhaps the lecturers" expectations are too high, for example " a lecturer expected students to read considerable resource material or to demonstrate levels of understanding that were beyond the level that could reasonably be expected of understanding that were beyond the level that could reasonably be expected of undergraduate students. On the other hand, lecturers' expectations may be quite appropriate and the students may either not understand the reason for these 'high" expectations or they may simple be confused about what the expectations are. An alternative explanation is that students' expectations with regard to workload and depth of understanding are realistically low. It is therefore suggested, that lecturers should have appropriate expectations of their students, to make these expectations explicit and to explain to students why the expectations exists (Fraser and Killen, 2005).

Bamburg (1994) agreed with Killen & Fraser when he or she said that the expectations students have for their students and assumptions they make about their potential have a tangle effect on students' achievement. Bamburg (1994) went further to say that research "clearly establishes that teachers' expectations do play a significant role in determining how well and how much students learn".

Students tend to internalize the beliefs teachers have about their ability. This generally means that they rise or fall to the level of expectation of their teachers. When teachers believe in students, students believe in themselves. When students are viewed as lacking inability or motivation and are not expected to make significant progress, they tend to adopt this perception of themselves. It was further stated that some students, particularly those from certain social, economic or ethnic group discover that their teachers consider them "incapable of handling demanding work" (Raffini, 1993; Gonder, 1991).

Omati & Omati (1996), emphasise that a characteristic shared by most highly effective teachers is their adherence to uniformly high expectations. They refuse to alter their attitudes or expectations for their students, regardless of the students' race or ethnicity, life experiences and interests and family wealth or stability.

2.3.9 Fear of failure

It is normal that students feel anxious before examinations. Butterflies in the stomach and worrying thoughts, "will I be able to answer the questions?" have I done enough revision?" are indicators of examination nerves that are probably familiar to all. A little anxiety is a good thing, it helps to focus the mind and gets the adrenalin going. Too much though is not so good. Too much anxiety can block thoughts, create negative frame of mind and lead to panic and potentially poor examination or has been threatened to be expelled if he or she fails, is likely to be more anxious. However, it is important for trainees to be positive, instead of thinking that they are going to fail. They must imagine that they are not. Anxious and negative thoughts must be replaced with positive one (Hinton & Casey, 2009).

Trainees should bear in mind that exams are not designed to make people fail. They are simply a standardized way of finding out what you do and you do not know. Sometimes examination anxiety is linked with a lack of confidence or low self-esteem. Sometimes it may be the result of pressure from the family or teachers in the past or a more general fear of failure (Hinton & Casey, 2009).

2.3.10 Failure and low esteem

The problem of a human being, who feels a failure, has a low self-esteem, low self-worth. Such people describe themselves as feeling like an idiot and wishing they were dead. The thought of committing suicide often cross their minds and they express strong feelings of hatred of school (Jackson, 1991).

Jackson (1991) quoted Bartocci (1965) who defined the self 'as a dynamic unity of the activities of sensing, remembering, imagining, perceiving wanting, feeling and thinking which includes the individual's ideas of what he looks like. How he sees himself, how he affects other people and how he feels about himself and his personal wealth.' Coomb (1962) as quoted by Jackson (1991) argued that it is people who see themselves as unwanted, unworthy, unimportant or unable, who fill our jails, our mental hospitals and our institutions.

Comb (1962), quoted by Jackson (1991) goes on to say that this kind of behaviour be effectively managed by applying the following procedures: a person should be given warmth and acceptance, even though his self-evaluative feelings may not be accepted. Each child or learner whether in the family or classroom, needs assurance that he belongs there. This can be achieved by sensitive teachers and parents who listen to what children or learner say. By so doing, they feel what the learner feels and learn to relate to his particular perception of the world which might differ in some ways from their own.

In the classroom extra attention and assurance by a teacher over a period of time can have a remarkable effect on how the student views himself or herself. It also represents a powerful motivating stimulus at home. Extra affection, attention and assurance by the parent can revolutionaries a learner's behaviour from being antagonistic to being co-operative. One of the most successful ways of tackling feelings of failure and low self-esteem is to provide opportunities in which the learner can succeed and feel good about success. Sometimes it is very important however that the learner gain a sense of accomplishment in the area in which he has been failing (Jackson, 1991).

2.4 Factors that promote students' success at tertiary

2.4.1 Lecture attendance

Schmelzer et al (1987), cited by Fraser & Killen (2003), suggested that certain students' behaviours ensure failure (not attending classes, not taking notes, not reading assignment) but other behaviours only improve the chances of success (attending class, taking notes, reading assignments). In the study conducted by Fraser & Killen (2003), first-year students now saw regular attendance as highly likely to lead to success. This is to be expected because of the compulsory nature of school attendance and the school attendance and the school examinations in which they were asked to reproduce things they had been told in class. Lecturers see lectures as an opportunity for them to pass on the knowledge that will be tested in examinations. Students were also quite concerned that assessment would be not based on assignments and examinations that required them to simply reproduce information from the textbook.

2.4.2 Learning strategies

According to Weinstein (1988), learning strategies can be seen as a sub-category of learning –to-learn phenomenon. Weinstein (1998) defines these strategies as follows: 'learning strategies are considered to be any behaviours or thoughts that facilitate encoding in such a way that knowledge integration and retrieval are enhanced.' On the other hand, they are also conceptualized as 'general techniques for more effective learning and as practices and attitudes which impact on how information is perceived and learnt by the student. The aim of learning strategies is two-fold. On one hand, the aim of a particular learning strategy may be to enhance a learner's motivation or emotional state (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). On the other hand, it can influence the manner in which new knowledge is acquired, organized and integrated by the learner.

2.4.3 The importance of study groups

According to Ellis (1985), as the old saying goes, "two heads are better than one." A support group can assist a trainee by elevating his or her spirit. Ellis (1995) goes on to state that there will be times when the trainee does not want to work at their education. Other members of the group can give the trainee encouragement. The importance of the study group is that the trainee is likely to keep an appointment to study with a group than simply by him or herself. Studying with others in a group is also helpful to everyone because it helps trainees to share ideas and also learn from one another.

2.4.4 Ability to work independently

Fraser and Killen (2003) state that because tertiary students are expected by lecturers to be independent learners, to be successful, they need to operate with what Mischel (1973) refers as effective "self-regulatory systems and plans".

2.4.5 Self-discipline

In both studies done by Fraser & Killen (2005), lecturers and students strongly agreed on the importance of self-discipline and self-motivation as the factors contributing to success and lack of self-motivation as a factor contributing to failure. Distance learners expressed that in order to succeed at university, they had to have self-discipline and self-control with regard to their studies then other contact students. The researcher thinks that trainees

should discipline themselves by studying hard irrespective of the training environment, attain their goals and leave training.

2.4.6 Emphasis on examination

According to Fraser & Killen (2005), their study showed that, lecturers in both studies rated "timely and regular examination prepararion" as one of the top two contributors to "failure." They also state that there was a strong agreement on these points from students in both groups of students, with the exception of senior students at the contact university who had apparently experienced success without "timely and regular examination preparation". "Effective examination techniques were seen to be less important then "timely and regular examination preparation." They also state that in an investigation conducted by Lombard (1999), distance education students emphasised the fact that the nature of the examination has a significant influence on the learning styles accommodated by learners to command the learning environment. Lombard's (1999) investigation highlighted the fact that the "planning of study time", "the discussion of subject content", the "reading of prescribed material" and "integration of discussion class notes with prescribed material" are only a few variables related to examinations that could eventually impact on the performance of especially distance learners in the examination.

2.4.7 Graduation equity

Toni (2002) states that students' achievement has concerned institutions of higher education for some time. It is not surprising that selective institutions, which admit students who are highly motivated and well prepared in their elementary and secondary schooling, have better graduation rates than do many state institutions charged with education. Students coming to such institutions charged with educating all in their states who can benefit from their education. Students coming to such institutions often bring a variety of opportunity orientations and a wider varience in the quality of their elementary and secondary schooling. Highly selective institutions also often have very strong and intrusive student support systems (academic & non-academic) in place. Restricting access to well prepared and motivated students and providing strong support services are effective methods for ensuring high graduation rates. But as a matter of public policy, it is

critical that state universities do a better job of promoting students' achievement and success.

2.5 Ways to promote good behaviour

Instructors and lecturers, according to (O'Donnell, Reeve & Smith: 2007), should apply the following ways in the classroom to promote students good behaviour:

- Help students achieve academic success
- Use behavioural contracting
- Encourage positive reinforcement of appropriate behaviour
- Use individual and group counselling. After the session, students can then be referred to professionals for professional help.
- Encourage disciplinary consequences that are meaningful to students and have an instructional and reflection component.
- Provide social skills training.

If these ways which are suggested by O'Donnell et al (2007), for the researcher, can be applied to SAPS trainees, they can improve the level of trainees' success.

2.6 Explanations relating to students who have failed in the past

According to Moore (2000), several reasons have been found to explain why low achievers tend to deny their poor performance:

- High expectations may be a mechanism compensating for hidden feelings of academic incompetence,
- Helping students to view themselves as potentially more successful then they actually are. Thus failing students may believe that their ability is actually average or above average.
- The tendency to dismiss poor past performance may develop from the feedback they receive from significant others, who tell them that they can do better if they try harder thus implying that their ability is higher than what their performance suggests.
- People are more strongly motivated to deceive themselves when thinking about the future then when thinking about the past.

- Low achievers tend to deny poor past performance because they think that they know more than they actually do.

2.7 HIV/AIDS effects

Stephan et al (2004) stated that the effects of HIV/Aids affect students' performance. They stated that the debilitating effects of this pandemic on teachers must be affecting teachers' ability to be productive and contribute to the lowering of teaching standards. Aids related death will cause ever greater shortages amongst specialists subject teachers (e.g. mathematics and sciences). In KwaZulu –Natal province an estimate put the infection rate one in four students tested in 1998 at the University of Durban Westville was reported, by now it is likely higher. Infected students have lowered vitality and increased their time of study and decreasing the length of their post-qualifying careers. Each highly skilled individual who dies of Aids will cost an estimated R250 000 to replace.

2.8 Police training

Training in its many forms, is an important tool that is necessary to create and maintain effective police performance both individual and organizational. As Richard Holden (1986) cited by Alpert, Dunham & Stroshine (2006), one cannot expect adequate policing from untrained officers regardless of their dedication. The training required of officers may be broken down into three separate phases. The first phases, academy or basic training and field training, occur after the recruit has been hired by the department on a probationary status. Probation allows departments to weed out recruits who made it through the selection process but prove ineffective at police work. In this way basic and field training may still be considered part of the selection process (Alpert et al, 2006).

2.8.1 Basic training

The academy officers employed in departments that require some form of basic training and field training. The training period for police recruits varies greatly from one agency to another and from one state to another. The minimum number of training hours is set by state statute. Some agencies require only the state mandated minimum while others have additional requirements (Alpert et al, 2006). In South African Police Services, basic

training takes a period of six months and it is run by the State. Recruits who attended SAPS academy are hired by the department and the cost of their training is picked up by both the department and the state.

One of the first duties of the academy is to orientate the individual law enforcement. Many enter police work with preconceived and unrealistic notions about police work, largely derived from news and media sources. The initial orientation, which should provide a realistic impression of the field, sets the scene for other training and education. Without a good orientation, police training may be viewed by officers as mechanism of constraints their initiation to police work becomes defensive and reactive. A proactive or interactive training model is ideal to officers and citizens alike, it fosters preparation and reduces office anxiety (Alpert et al, 2006).

2.8.2 Academic training

The academic syllabus is contained in four courses:

- Criminal Law and Procedure
- Police Administration, Practical
- Police Science, Practical
- Background and Personality Development
- Police Ethics

The teaching of these subjects takes up between 53% (Pretoria) and 63% (Chatsworth) of all the teaching hours in the colleges.

Some of the newer manuals are characteristics of the "systems approach" to learning which specifies pre-determined learning objectives. In these, each module (chapter) is begun with an "introduction and purpose" which describes briefly the content of the module and makes explicit the learning objectives- for example: In this module the very important aspect of detention of a suspect is going to be dealt with. You will learn to determine who is actually a suspect and how a suspect is detained and/or released. At the end of this module, a 90% proficiency in dealing with the detention and/ or release of a suspect is required of you.

The student can then assess his proficiency by running through a list of test questions supplied at the end of each module. The problem with this approach is that it is a part of the dominant theoretical or un-applied style of teaching, with students rarely being afforded the opportunity to discuss the issues involved or to conjecture about possible problems. It tends to discourage creative and applied learning (Rauch, 1992).

This lack of creativity is reproduced in the classroom, where instructors allow students no role in developing relevant case examples. Such a practise would be more demanding of instructors, but would enliven the learning atmosphere and allow students to grapple with possible "real world" problems. The standard argument against this approach is that it would create considerable variance between the materials taught to each platoon. This is a product of the narrow, theoretically-based approach to assessment, which relies on the fact that every student has been taught the same material in the same fashion (Rauch, 1992).

2.8.3 Physical Training

The physical training syllabus covers fitness exercises, self-defence, swimming and lifesaving. Colleges which do not have their own sports facilities struggle to give their students the necessary amount of practice.

2.8.4 Drill

The syllabus for the drill course covers saluting, foot drill and various types of display drilling. Much of this is learned in preparation for the "passing –out parade" and will never be used again. Instructors privately admit that very little drill is practised in the force and that this subject exists expressly for the purpose of instilling discipline and (competitive) team spirit.

2.8.5 Musketry

The training consists of lessons in handling, cleaning and use of firearms and shooting practice. The Pretoria College is the only one with its own shooting range and staff at the other colleges has to arrange their shooting practices at "off-campus" ranges, which tends to disrupt the routine of the college. The Hammanskraal College has developed its own

musketry training manual, the other colleges do not use uniform written material for teaching musketry and although it is not unproblematic, it does go some of the way to contextualising the use of firearms (Rauch, 1992).

2.8.6 Staff, Teaching, Learning and Assessment

According to Rauch (1992), in some colleges one instructor will teach one or more course and in others, each course will be taught by a different instructor. Such variation fragments the relationship between students and instructors and discourages uniformity and co-ordination between different subjects. The nature of relationships between staff and students differs within and between colleges. It is influenced by the culture of the college and determined by the character and style of the individual staff member. Some instructors are concerned to support and to counsel trainees and this caring philosophy co-exists uncomfortably with the dominant emphasis on discipline.

Because of the particular view of instruction and learning which underpins the training, learning is seen as something that is conducted by the individual student, in silence, after classes. This is reflected in the compulsory "study time" component of the college timetable, whereby students are required to devote themselves to this type of "learning" for a number of hours each evening and during the day if any classes get cancelled (Rauch,1992).

Instruction nearly always takes the form of a traditional lecture, with an emphasis on repetition and rote learning. As in the old-style, British police training: instruction is received at the same pace, regardless of ability, motivation, educational qualifications, cultural and linguistic background, age or experience. Simultaneous instruction imposes upon probationers a uniform style of learning which may or may not be commensurate with their own styles and is likely to hamper the progress of some or even many. Also the general culture emphasises training or instruction over education. These are not lectures, they are instructors. They are not there to give the students an education, but to train them (Rauch, 1992).

This problem is further compounded by the role of formal police authority within the training environment: instruction and probationer learns or at least, should learn, is prescribed. The instructor becomes both authority and in authority: the authority invested in rank becomes inextricably linked with the authority accorded to different kinds and sources of knowledge. The exercise and assumption of authority clearly affects the instructional process, for instance, the practical know how of the Sergeant Instructor, because of the double indemnity offered by the authority of rank and the authority of experience, is exempt from the criticism necessary for probationer learning (Rauch,1992).

Such Authority relations also tend to impinge on the type of assessment to which the trainee is subjected. Assessments generally take the form of written tests, in which students are required to supply brief answers, which will be correct if they reflect what is contained in the manuals and lecture notes. The formal pass mark is 50%, students who obtain lower percentiles are coached so that they will pass the next test. It is unheard of for a student to "fail" the basic training course and average percentiles in class tests appear to be extremely high. This suggests that the tests are being set at an unacceptably low level. Furthermore, high scores in tests do not seem to be functional in any way to the student's upward mobility (Rauch, 1992).

2.9 The "new curriculum"

Rauch (1992), states that the work of curriculum development is done primarily by members of staff of the Pretoria Police College. They have the closest liaison with SAP Headquarters and Head Office Training Division and they are generally assumed to be the senior partner in their relationships with staff in the other colleges.

Rauch (1992), states that a major problem with the curriculum which was existing then was that it had been highly theoretical, with very little practical application of the academic course materials. This problem was recognised by some of the instructors and managers and different attempts had been made informally at the colleges to develop some forms of practical application.

At the beginning of 1991, the curriculum for basic training was modified and a new "practical" component added. This comprises four week block at the end of the eighteen-week training course. The four week blocks are divided into different specialisms, with students being allocated to a particular course on the basis of their scores on a battery of aptitude tests. This method of assigning students what is essentially an initially career direction appears to be problematic because it does not take into account the student's own desires and domestic situation.

The new content is contained in three modules: -visual policing, which covers the work of the Uniform Branch, Administrative, which deals essentially with police office administration and CID, covers rudimentary crime investigation. It remains to be seen whether the new practical component will have a significant impact on training as a whole.

2.10. Assessment: Problem Areas

The researcher defines problem areas as areas which acted as obstacles to trainees' success. Those areas are:

2.10.1 The impact of "discipline"

According to Rauch, (1992) drill and punishment (punishment, defined as the presentation of an aversive stimulus in order to modify behaviour or as any stimulus event that decreases the probability of the behaviour that follows it (Hergenhahn:1982; Jackson, 1991), are the key features of military discipline and it is this militarism which underpins the culture of training and pervades all its social relations. She also said that the ethos of militarism is rooted in the history of colonial and apartheid policing. The notion of discipline is central to the current training system. Drill and physical punishment are used to create compliance in the trainee. "Drill is the means, Discipline is the end" is the motto of the drill section at one of the colleges. The extensive use of drill is justified in a number of ways:

Good drill, well-rehearsed, closely supervised and demanding the highest precision, is an exercise in obedience and alertness.

The foot drill section is the backbone of the SAP. It gives you military discipline, esprit de corps and tradition. If you do not believe in tradition, how can you become a team?

In the application of discipline, as in the other aspects, SAP training is "traditional". This means that it is done as it has always been done, with many trainers having little contact with the new policing environment.

The other common justification for drill is that it "teaches you to take orders". However, our knowledge of police culture suggests that the unofficial rules of the police culture tend to support and reinforce disobedience of the law or formal instructions.

The college experience also teaches the student the efficacy of physical punishment or deterrence-students comments on their training were most often focussed on their experience of physical punishment. It was Rauch's perception that use of physical punishment was reduced by his or her presence in the classrooms. However, a number of such incidents were observed in the course of the research, most of them consisting of extra repetitions of Physical Training exercises Rauch (1992).

Guthrie's views of punishment are as follows:

- The important thing about punishment is not the pain it may cause, but what it makes the organism do.
- In order to be effective, punishment must cause behaviour that is incompatible with the punished behaviour.
- In order to be effective, punishment must be applied in the presence of the stimuli that elicited the punishment behaviour.
- If the conditions specified in bullet number 2 and 3 are not met, punishment will be ineffective or may even strengthen the undesired response.

Fox (1981) as quoted by Jackson (1991) observes that there are two basic kinds of punishment: the first one consists of the delivery of an adversity after a noxious behaviour occurs, for example: the cane, the smacks or the harsh "No". The second one involves taking away something that is pleasant after a noxious behaviour occurs.

Examples in this category consist of depriving a person something he likes, such as sending back visitors of the trainees in SAPS Training Institutions.

The repeated use of the first type of punishment according to Jackson (1991) may cause a series of undesirable side effects, the most of which are:

- It can teach the very behaviours we do not want the child/ the person to learn that is aggression.
- Children or people may conform through fear and therefore exhibit other undesirable behaviours such as cheating and lying.
- The child or the person being punished (SAPS Trainees in this instance) may feel abused and become hostile (to the community they will serve when they pass out from College).
- Continual censure and punishment creates a state of anxiety and makes it dangerous for the learner to try. Negative emotions create a barrier to learning.
- It has been observed that repeated punishment increases the tendency for the behaviour to persist.

2.10.2 Side effects of punishment

According to (O'Donnell, Reeve & Smith: 2007) are:

- **Punishment teaches aggression**

  By using a punisher to suppress another person's behaviour, the person administering the punisher is modelling aggression as a means of dealing with undesirable ways of behaving. These effects occur through observational learning. A student who receives verbal and physical punishment for misbehaviour often imitates this way of coping when interacting with others and later tends to use harsh words behaviours in the hope of suppressing the misbehaviour of others.

- **Punishment produces negative emotions**

  Punishment is an aversive behavioural strategy. When people receive aversive forms off stimulation, they often feel negative emotions such as fear, anger, distress and worry. Punished students also report feeling embarrassed or

humiliated in a public way. Understandably, students often associate these negative emotions with the person who is punishing them.

- **Punishment undermines the quality of the interpersonal relationship**
  People who are punished typically want to escape from the person who is punishing them. Thus, if a teacher uses punishment on students, students may be motivated to stay clear of the teacher.

- **Punishment often exacerbates misbehaviour.**
  Punishment suppresses behaviour. But as one person punishes another, the person being punished experiences higher muscle tension, a raising of the voice and a general increase in vigour of response. Being punished can sometimes throw fuel on the fire of misbehaviour by producing shouting, threatening, protesting and even acts of violence, counter response and revenge. That is, punishment often makes matters worse, not better.

Thus, when punishment is effective, it causes the organism to do something other than what it was punished for doing while the stimuli that elicited the punished behaviour is still present. This causes a new association to be formed and the next time those stimuli appear, they will tend to elicit a favourable response instead of an unfavourable one (Guthrie, 1938) as cited by Hergenhahn (1982). Hergenhahn (1962) further states that punishment involves either taking away what is positively reinforcing to an organism or to applying a negative reinforcer. In this study the kind of punishment that is applied to the trainees is regarded as the negative one since it inflicts physical pain and emotional abuse. Herganhahn (1982) goes further to state that punishment is either taking away something an organism wants or giving it something it does not want. Skinner and Thorndike psychologists agree on the effectiveness of punishment when they state that it does not decrease the probability of a response as long as it is applied, it does not weaken the habit.

Jackson (1991) emphasises that people should never punish in anger. Jackson goes on to say that people should always attempt to separate the deed from the doer and emphasises

that whilst the punishment is administered to the doer, it is retribution for the deed. The punisher should, therefore, remain as calm as possible, showing that he or she is not angry. Anger and aggression on the part of the one administering punishment presents an undesirable model for the victim and we may find that we are teaching the very behaviours we are seeking to eradicate. A quiet but firm decisive-speaking voice enables the wrong doer to focus on the reason given for not doing something and the demands made.

2.10.3 Usage of vulgar or derogative statements

A hurtful experience with a supervisor can create a negative emotional attitude that is difficult to change. Psychologists have known that employees' and students' attitudes toward work and studying are influenced significantly by the quality of the relationships with their immediate supervisors or lecturers. Effective supervisors and lecturers recognise this and go out of their way to treat their employees or students as individuals rather than clones (Fitch, 2008). With regards to Police Training, some of the students mentioned that they find it very difficult to approach their instructors because of the language they use when communicating with trainees. They complained about instructors using derogative statements which crush their self-esteem and also demotivate them. Trainees are told directly that they are going to fail and they will be expelled from College. Such kinds of threats promote fear amongst trainees.

A research on praise and criticism done by Meyer (1992), states that praise is often used as a reinforcer in a classroom situation. Learners respond positively to praise from educators. It is easy for educators to use praise as a reinforcer, because it does not require record keeping. Praise is an attempt to increase the probability that desired behaviours will be repeated. Consequences that are rewarding are associated with pleasant feelings. Consequences are punitive if the frequency of the undesirable behaviour decreases and receiving a punitive consequence such as criticism is typically associated with unpleasant feelings.

Meyer (1992) has found some paradoxical effects. When praise is provided, the recipient often feels that the person providing the praise regards his or her ability as low. In contrast, the recipient of criticism feels that the person providing the criticism regards his

or her ability as high. Genuine accomplishments should be praised; otherwise, it will not be effective.

2.11 Gender Issues

The student body is divided along sex lines into "platoons" for purposes of instruction and living arrangements. Each platoon consists of 36/7 females only or males only. This means that male and female students seldom (if ever) have the opportunity to study or work together while in the colleges. The possible mixing of male and female students in the learning environment is the subject of intense debate. As with many aspects of college discourse, this debate tends to be coloured by myths and stereotypes about gender and culture. Male students arguing this issue made the following points:

> *"We've already got a problem with concentration and if we had girls in our class it would result in chaos."*
> *"You will have to work with women later on in the force, so what is the difference between here in the college and out there in the station?"*

> *"You will have to work with women later on in the force. So you need to establish good relations with them and learn how to work together. This way, we could work better together and reduce discrimination against women,*
> *because there is discrimination against women in the police force."*

I disagree that one would not be able to work if there are women in the class. I would say that the men would work better, because they will want to make an impression on the female students.

2.12 Student experience of training

Rauch, (1992:30), discussions with students revealed four major criticisms of the current training:

> "*It's all too easy". "The lessons are like school".*
> *"It's boring". "You can't see the point of learning some of this staff".*

"I don't think we are learning what we need". "We must get the chance to practice."

"The worst part is punishment."

2.13 Reasons for dropping out of police work

There are so many reasons which lead to trainees dropping out of SAPS Basic Training Institutions.

2.13.1 Self-initiated resignation

Haar (2005) cited Fielding & Fielding (1987), where they stated that the majority of recruits, who self-initiated resignation, experienced a significant amount of stress and conflict about their beliefs and expectations in police work. Police recruits who self-initiated resignation during their basic training program indicated that the conflict they felt when they realized their experiences in the training academy were inconsistent with or contradictory to their sense of self and their cognitions about what police work should force them to reconsider their decision to enter further into police work. One Caucasian male explained that within the sense of internal conflict for him and after discussing his internal conflicts with his wife, he decided to resign from the police work.

Police recruits who self-initiated resignation during basic training typically did not identify only one aspect of the academy experience that created conflict for them, rather their decision to resign was based on a multitude of factors. The decision to resign was based largely on the realisation that their attitudes toward police-public relations and interactions as well as appropriate and inappropriate work behaviours differed considerably from some of their classmates.

For some recruits, the recognition that their attitudes and values conflicted with their classmates was coupled with an aversion for the paramilitary nature of academy training. Under the paramilitary model, police recruits are expected to be obedient, obey orders, perform tasks in a precisely prescribed manner and meet intellectual and physical demands in a highly structured environment with discipline and in some

cases, harassment. The features of the paramilitary model that resigners found to be particularly stressful included the authoritarian style of management, the process of breaking down individuals in order to build them back up as police officers, the strict standards of physical fitness and the stringent physical exercise regiment. One Caucasian female explained that the combination of experiences with classmates, training academy staff and paramilitary structure of the training academy culminated in her resignation (Fielding & Fielding, 1987) cited by Haar (2005).

2.13.2 Family strain and self-initiated resignation

Haar (2005) states that four male recruits and female maintained their decision to resign was based on a combination of personal and family stresses due to the demands and pressures of the training academy and police work. For the Native American male, the academic and physical demands of basic training were very challenging. He also spoke of difficulties related to attending a basic training academy that was more than 200 miles away from his home, family and friends who were living on Indian Reservation. The pressure of travelling long distances to attend basic training and the impact of the job on one's sense of self, caused tension within recruits' families, particularly among newly married recruits.

Numerous studies about factors associated with academic performance have been identified, contextual and social characteristics of students as important factors these factors include family, peers, school and community. Among family factors are low socio-economic status, minority status, single parenthood and family involvement. Peer factors include lack of friends and involvement with peers, with negative attitude; examples of school factors are school climate, size of school, lack of counselling for at-risk students, alienated teachers and low participation in extra curricular activities (Haar, 2005).

2.13.3 Academy-initiated termination

Police recruits whose termination was initiated during basic training by academy administrators were terminated for three reasons: medical withdrawal, breaking academy rules and academic failure. The most common reason was medical withdrawal due to

injury. Recruits who missed more than 5 conditioning days were given a medical withdrawal due to injury (Haar, 2005).

Haar (2005) went further to state that not all recruits were terminated due to physical injury. One Native American male was terminated by academy administrators after he was placed on academic probation for failing three academic tests. Police recruits who were terminated from basic training by academy administrators did not experience pre-resignation conflicts related to police work, the work environment or academy classmates. Rather they expressed a high level of post resignation conflict surrounding their injury, the inability to complete the training academy and being forced to leave police work unexpectedly and against their desires. Some recruits felt that their dream of being a police officer was broken and they were forced to move onto another job.

2.14 Perceptions of some factors influencing students' academic success or failure

According to Ngidi (2007), the traditional practice of using matriculation results as the prime basis for university entrance is still dominant. This practice is based on the claim that school academic performance is a useful and a reliable predictor of performance in higher education. Ngidi (2007) goes further to say that the fact that there are high drop-out rates and low graduations rates in many South African university courses shows that this claim is not absolutely true. On the contrary, there are many claims that school achievement has very limited value as a predictor of student success in higher education.

It is against this background that there are suggestions that although there is a need to have appropriate entry requirements for higher education, but there is also a need to pay more careful attention to other pre-enrolment factors such as cognitive ability and personality traits as well as to the post-enrolment factors that influence students' academic success.

Post-enrolment factors are more crucial because most of them cannot be predicted directly from matriculation results. The post-enrolment factors include factors such as: the students' motivation, approach to studying, cultural expectations, academic literacy, time management skills as well as psychological factors, the peer culture, the quality of teaching, the interaction between students and the academic and social systems of the

university, interest in the course, motivation, self-discipline and effort (Ngidi,2007). Killen (1994) used an approach of investigating lecturers' and students' perceptions of the likelihood that various factors might influence students' academic success. The main rationale for this approach is that: students' approach to study is influenced by their beliefs about what will enhance their chances of success or diminish their chances of failure, as well as by their motivational and personality factors (Killen, Marais and Loedolff, 2003: Fraser and Killen, 2005) and that lecturers' perceptions of what factors contribute to success influence their approach to teaching (Jacobs and Gravett, 1988) both cited by Ngidi (2007).

Fraser and Killen (2005) state that there are so many post-enrolment factors such as student's motivation, approach to studying, cultural expectations, academic literacy, time management skills as well as psychosocial factors, the peer culture, the quality of teaching, the interaction between students and the academic and social systems of the university, students' beliefs in their own ability and the student support structures offered by the university. The fact that so many post-enrolment factors can be important is one reason why previous academic success, particularly at school, is often not a strong predictor of success in higher education. Some of the most significant factors in students' academic success at university seem to be interest in the course, motivation, self-discipline and effort-none of which can be predicted directly from matriculation results. In addition to these factors, high drop-out rates from distance education programmes can be attributed at least in part, to inappropriately designed study guides, lack of formative assessment and insufficient student support system.

Fraser and Killen (2005), goes further to state that students' approach to study is influenced by their beliefs about what will enhance their chances of success or diminish their chances of failure, as well as by motivational and personality factors. These beliefs and actions are not necessarily determined by the actual influence of relevant factors. For example, if students believe that attending lectures contributes to success, they will probably attend regularly even if they learn little from the lectures. However, students who believe that success can be achieved without attending lectures may not attend on a regular basis, even when this actually diminishes their chance of success. Likewise, lecturers' perceptions of what factors contribute to students' success influence their

approach to teaching. For example, a lecturer who believes that attendance of lecturers is important for students' success may provide information during lectures that is not available from any other source- an obvious disadvantage to students who do not attend will probably provide information and guidance to help students who chose to learn in other ways.

When there are major differences in the social and cultural backgrounds of lecturers and students, their differences in perception may render it difficult for lecturers to facilitate learning for all students and difficult for learners to approach their studies in ways that will optimise their chances of success. One way to minimise such problems is for lecturers and students to share their beliefs and expectations and to develop jointly strategies for increasing students' chance of success. Recent studies at two large universities (one distance education institution) attempted to achieve just this by identifying the pos-enrolment factors that lecturers and students see as having an important impact on students' success in higher education (Fraser & Killen, 2005).

In both studies there was strong agreement between lecturers and students on the "success" items that were rated highly. The "success" items that both lecturers and students ranked highly paint a picture of a self-motivated, hard- working student who can learn independently, prepare well for examinations and who has made a wise choice of course of study. Fraser and Killen (2005) also state that similar findings were also reported by Fraser and Nieman (1995), emphasising the fact that self-discipline and self-control should be regarded as two important variables impacting on the performance of students studying at a distance. However, students were more likely than lectures to include in their top rankings items such as "dedication to a career goal" and "willingness to accept a challenge". It was Tinto (1995) who wrote that:

> *"Sufficiently high commitment to the goal of college completion ...might not lead to dropout from the institution" and "the lower the individual's commitment to the goal of college completion, the more likely is he to drop out from college."*

Student-efficacy also features prominently in attempts to explain student success (McKenzie & Schweitzer, 2001) cited by (Fraser & Killen, 2003). Research conducted by

Fraser and Nieman (1995; 1996) emphasises the fact that many learners engage in distance education programmes with the main intention of preparing for a better future and better career opportunities, a factor that strongly influences their academic performance.

On the other hand, lecturers in Fraser and Killen (2005) study were more inclined in their top rankings items such as "regular and comprehensive feedback from lecturers" and "lecturers who can inspire students." The low ratings that students gave to these items may have been because they were not accustomed to receiving such feedback-a factor that would align with work done by Fraser and Nieman in 1995. These authors named the lack of lecturer comments on assignments, poor responses from lecturers on assignments and late return of assignments as some of the most important criticism levelled at their courses by South African distance education students. Similarly, the items on the "failure" scale that were ranked highly by both lecturers and students paint a picture of a student who lacks self-discipline, puts in little effort, is unable to manage time effectively, does not prepare well for examinations and uses poor study techniques. Lecturers also added characteristics such as poor literacy skills, lack of perseverance and laziness".

Sadler & Erasmus (2005) conducted a study based on the perceptions of lecturers and Black Certificate in the Theory of Accounting (CTA), at University of South Africa, a South African distance education university regarding on factors that contribute to black students' academic success and failure. The main purpose of the study were to help black CTA students to understand the reason for success better and to improve lecturers' teaching approach(es). The research shows that students and lecturers have divergent views on what factors contribute to academic success or failure and the relative importance of the various factors.

The likelihood of students' success or failure at university is debated by many academics in the higher education sector, especially those in distance education. Research also suggest that few selection methods such as matriculation results and standardised admission tests (SATs), give anything more than an approximately indication of a student's likelihood of success at university (Killen, Maraise & Loedolff 2003).

According to various authors, such as Riggs and Riggs (1990-1991) and Bargate (1999) the most common predictive measures, namely matriculation results and SATs, have limited empirical support. Van Eeden, De Beer and Coetzee (2001) cited (Levin &Wyckoff, 1998) suggestion which states that a combination of multiple measures may provide better predictive ability than individual measures, such as a student's mathematical ability as a predictor allowing entry to engineering and accounting studies at a certain universities.

According to Schmelzer, Schmelzer, Figler and Bronzo (1987) and Killen (1994), state that some of the most significant factors in students' academic success at higher education institutions could be their interest in the course, motivation, self-discipline and effort. These factors cannot be predicted from matriculation results.

Students' approaches to studying, even though their perceptions may be misguided, are strongly based on their perception about what will enhance their chances of success or failure at university (Tait, Van Eeden & Tait, 2002). In turn lecturers' perceptions of factors that will contribute to students (Killen 1994, Jacobs & Gravett, 1998). Students' and lecturers' views on what contributes to academic success or failure can be identified; it may be possible for lecturers and students to address these short comings to enhance the students' chances of success (Killen & Fraser, 2002).

2.15 Locus of control

Locus of control refers to the extent to which a person believes that his behaviour has direct influence on the consequences of his actions and the development of his motivation to work. Findley & Cooper (1983) states that locus of control refers to a person's beliefs about control over life events. They refer to individuals exhibiting an internal locus of control as 'externals'.

2.15.1 Internal Locus of Control

People with internal locus of control feel that they can influence their outcome through their own ability, skills and efforts. It is argued that a person's reaction to the environment often depends on the perception of the environment. Individuals differ to that which they believe could be the consequences of their own behaviour.

2.15.2 External Locus of Control

People whose locus of control is external feel that outcomes are beyond their control. They feel that external forces control outcomes, for example luck and chance or fate. Many studies have pointed out the relationship between locus of control and health related variables.

The literature reveals that in the majority of instances the term 'locus of control 'is seen as constituting a dichotomy of 'internality' and 'externality'. The 'term locus of control' encompasses three aspects, namely: internality, externality and autonomy.

Locus of control and responsibility go hand in hand. Responsibility implies that you have the ability to respond in the way you choose to respond to the things that are happening to you. Your locus of control affects your interpretation of what's happening to you. If you see yourself as a victim (your interpretation) you will react from the role of a victim. If you see yourself as a participant, you will respond from the role. If there is anything you can control, it is your thoughts and your attitude.

Sometimes students see themselves operating in an environment that is not under their control. This was evident, in the tendency of students in both studies (which were done by Fraser and Killen on academic performance) to rate factors such as "too many demands on students', time and lecturers with unrealistically high expectations" as strong contributors to possible failure. The distance education students added "heavy course workload" to the list and indication that students working full-time and part-time could experience problems when having to meet the requirements set by programme co-ordinators.

On-campus students, on the other hand, "boring presentations by lecturers," "unclear assessment criteria" and "poor language abilities of lecturers", all of which pointed to a perception among students that final control over successor failure in their study environment was not in their own hands. According to Killen and Fraser (2005), Potter and Van der Merwe (1994), were close to the mark when they remarked that attributes as the ability to cope in the face of adversity were important to academic success.

Achievement-motivation theory provides another plausible explanation of why students' perceived control over their success and failure may be different from that of lecturers. When students experience success or failure, the ensuing casual attribution can be classified according to locus (internal, external), to stability (stable, unstable), and to control (controllable, uncontrollable). According to Weiner (1986), the attributions accorded to a particular event determine its influence on subsequent academic outcomes including expectations, effect, perceived control and behaviour. From this point of view, students' perceived reasons for success or failure may have a stronger influence on their persistence (or withdrawal) than the actual reasons. If a student attributes failure to a personal, stable cause (such as lack of ability), this will result in lower motivation and a feeling of less control than when failure can be attributed to a personal, variable cause (such as lack of effort) or to an external cause (such as poorly written study guides). This view suggests that the tendency of many students in these two studies to attribute success to their own efforts and failure to factors controlled by their lecturers is consistent with their efforts to maintain self-esteem.

Regarding the locus of control, it can be inferred that autonomy (i.e. self-confidence in functioning independently, plays a prominent role in subsequent academic achievement. Schepers's (1995) findings from his investigation with first –year university students, he found internality and autonomy to be associated with academic success, for external locus of control, Schepers (1995) cites that in the study done by Hendricks & Schepers, students who did not feel personally responsible for their academic attainment, also performed weaker.

Fraser and Killen (2003) state that because tertiary students are expected by lecturers to be independent learners, to be successful, they need to operate with what Mischel (1973) refers as effective "self-regulatory systems and plans. In order to achieve this, they must be able to balance their needs.

2.16 Motivation

According to O'Donnell et al (2007), motivation is the study of the forces that energize and direct behaviour. Energy means that behaviour is strong, intense and full of effort. Direction means that behaviour is focused on accomplishing a particular goal or outcome.

2.16.1 Intrinsic motivation

According to O'Donnell et al (2007), intrinsic motivation is the inherent propensity to engage one's interests and to exercise and develop one's capacities. It emerges spontaneously out of the individuals needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness. Intrinsic motivation arises out of students' psychological needs. Thus, to energise intrinsic motivation, teachers need to find ways to involve and nurture students' psychological needs. When teachers are able to do this, students say that the activity is interesting, fun and enjoyable. Feelings of interest and enjoyment arise as spontaneous satisfactions from psychological need satisfaction.

Intrinsic motivation yields numerous educational benefits. When students are intrinsically motivated, they exhibit healthy, productive functioning, such as initiative, persistence, creativity, high-quality learning and positive well-being (O'Donnell et al, 2007). Intrinsically motivated behaviours' are self-determined (that is autonomous), as they are engaged in for internal rewards such as pleasure and satisfaction, interest and increasing competence. In other words, intrinsically motivated task involvement is its own reward (Moore, 2000).The possibility is that self-motivated trainees will perform well at college. Despite of other factors that lead to poor academic performance, if the trainee is self-driven the chances of being successful are very high.

2.16.2 Extrinsic Motivation

O'Donnell et al (2007), states that extrinsic motivation arises from outside incentives and consequences. Whenever students act to gain reward, such as high grades or avoid a punishment, such as a teacher's criticism, their behaviour is extrinsically motivated. Students work hard not because they enjoy what they are doing but because they want to receive the reward, such as bonus point, their name on the school honour roll. She goes on to say that extrinsic motivation exists as an in-order-to motivation (as in, do this in order to get that). This is the behavioural request, where as that is the incentive or consequence.

Extrinsically motivated behaviours are instrumental in nature and are performed as a means to attaining a variety of long- and short-term rewards which are separable from the behaviour itself. Students who are extrinsically motivated engage in tasks because

they believe that they will be rewarded by high marks, a high-paying job or praise or may avoid negative outcomes such as low marks, negative criticism or punishment. In other words, students who are extrinsically motivated are concerned with demonstrating their ability in order to gain or avoid certain outcomes (Moore, 2000). Extrinsic motivation is environmentally created to initiate or persist in an action.

O'Donnell et al (2007), emphasise that it is difficult to know whether students are intrinsically or extrinsically motivated by observing them. The essential difference between the two types of motivation lies in what energises and directs the student's on-task activity. With intrinsically motivated behaviour, the motivation emanates from psychological needs and from the spontaneous satisfaction the activity provides (This is fun; I'm good at this). With extrinsically motivated behaviour, the motivation emanates from contingent rewards (The teacher promised me 10 extra minutes of recess for doing this).

2.17 Satisfactory accommodation:

During focus groups Trainees stated that other bungalows are not separated into rooms; they are just one big open hall which looks like a hospital ward. They further stated that all 36/7 members of the same platoon are allocated into those bungalows for the duration of the training (6 months). There are some bungalows which are separated into rooms.

2.18 Resumé

Review of the literature on the factors that promote or hinder success for new-recruits during their first year of basic training, indicates that some factors that hinder success for new-recruits are that the conflict they felt when they realised their experiences in the training academy were inconsistent with or contradictory to their sense of self and their cognitions about what police work should force them to reconsider their decision to enter further into police work. Other family issues also contribute to new-recruits failure or drop-outs. Trainees also face a great challenge of adjusting themselves to the totally new environment and they also have to try to adjust and cope with the new challenges they encounter at the SAPS Basic Training Institutions.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

Chapter three outlines the research design, the research method, the population under the study, the sampling procedure and the method that was used to collect data. The reliability and validity of the research instrument are also addressed. Ethical considerations pertaining to the research are further discussed.

3.2 Research Design

This was an exploratory study. Exploratory studies are used to make preliminary investigations into relatively unknown areas of research. They employ an open, flexible and inductive approach to research as they attempt to look for new insights into phenomena. It is also used when a researcher first needs to explore a topic using qualitative data before attempting to measure or test it quantitatively. The design permits a researcher to first explore a topic by identifying qualitative themes and generating theories and use the exploration to guide a subsequent qualitative examination of the initial qualitative results (Creswell 2005; Terre Blanche, Durheim & Painter (2006).

3.3 Sampling

Polit and Hungler (1999) refer to the population as an aggregate or totality of all the subjects, objects or members that conform to a set of specifications. In this study the population was July 2008 New- entry constables for South African Police organisation who highly performed during their first assessment and also those who were not yet competent also during their first assessment.

A sample is a subset of a population selected to participate in the study, it is a fractional of the whole, selected to participate in the research project (Brink 1996; Polit & Hungler 1999). In this study a subset of three hundred and sixteen (316) July 2008 trainees were selected out of the entire Pretoria West and Chatsworth population of trainees who highly performed (HP) and those who were not yet competent (NYC) during their first assessment.

3.3.2 Sampling method

The process of selecting a portion of the population to represent the entire population is known as sampling (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber 1998: Polit & Hungler 1999:1995).

3.3.2. Non-probability sampling

A non-probability sampling method was adopted, which according to LoBiondo-Wood and Haber (1998:249), is less vigorous and tends to produce less accurate and less representative samples than probability or random samples. Non-probability sampling implies that not every element of the population has an opportunity for being included in the sample, such as convenience (accidental), quota and purposive sampling procedures (Burns & Grove 2001: Terreblanche, Durrheim & Painter 2006).The following South African Police Service Basic Training Institutions were selected to participate: Pretoria West College in Gauteng Province, Bisho College in Eastern Cape Province as well as Chatsworth College in Kwa-Zulu Natal province. These were the Institutions with more trainees who got less than 50% in their assessments for the first semester (high failure rate).

3.3.2.2 Sample characteristics

- **Convenience sample**

The trainees who enrolled with SAPS Training Institutions in July 2008 were the target group. A convenience sample was done to select 316 participants from July 2008 intake. High performers and not yet competent trainees were selected from the population of two thousand two hundred and seventy two trainees of both Training Institutions. The researcher used trainees who were readily accessible for the study. In convenience sample the researcher finds it easy to obtain participants, but the risk of bias is greater that in a random sample, because each member of the population does not have an equal chance of being included in the sample (De Vos 1998; LoBiondo-Wood 1998).

- **Sample size**

A general rule of thumb is to always use the largest sample possible. The larger the sample the more the representative it is going to be. If the sample is smaller, the population is not well represented (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber 1998). In this study a convenience sample of 316 students has been obtained, from Chatsworth as well as Pretoria West Basic Training

Institutions. The participants were still at these training institutions when the researcher conducted the study.

3.4 Research Procedure

All those trainees who obtained an overall of less than 50% in their assessments were regarded as not yet competent trainees. All those who obtained an overall of 60% and more in their first assessments were regarded as high performers**.** The two groups were further divided into two sub-groups of each category. Each group consisted of about 36-37 members in each group.

3.4.1 Procedure for Data Collection

Polit and Hungler (1999); Terreblanche, Durrheim & Painter (2006), define data as information obtained in a course of a study. In this study data was collected by using a bi-scale question. The purpose of this study was to identify factors that promote or hinder success on new-entry constables during their first six months at SAPS Basic Training Institutions.

3.4.2 The data collection instrument

The researcher conducted verbal interviews in the form of the focus groups with Pretoria West college trainees. The interviews comprised the following questions:

- how did the trainees experience the training?
- reasons for choosing career in policing.
- personal hindrances that interfere with performance.
- what were the factors leading to trainees' non-academic performance?
- what were the factors promoting trainees academic success?

3.4.3 Verbal interview process

To begin the process, the researcher was introduced by the instructor to the trainees. The instructor was then excused from the class. The researcher than welcomed everybody, asked the participants to introduce themselves with the names they felt comfortable with and to mention their laid down. Others preferred to call themselves with nicknames. The importance of confidentiality was emphasized. Ground rules to help guide the discussion

were explained in English. The researcher then started to ask open-ended questions to get trainees' inputs. All the participants were encouraged to talk. The overview of the study was outlined to them.

3.4.4 Validity of the measuring instrument

According to De Vos (1998), a valid instrument measures the concept in question and it measures it accurately. The questionnaire used was designed by Killen (1994) for his study on Lecturers' and Students' perceptions of Factors that influence students' academic success. Few changes were made by the researcher on the questionnaire. This questionnaire was also presented to the Director of Employee Assistant Services and Training work group task team for evaluation.

Part 1: this part consisted of the following questions:
Personal details (gender, age, home language, marital status)
Educational background (the value of matric certificate)
Reasons for choosing career in policing
Future goals
Emotional disturbances experienced in life.

Part 2: A- Success scale
B-Failure scale

3.4.5 Self-evident measures

- Self-evident measures refer to the extent which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure, which is classified as a face and content validity. In ensuring face validity the questionnaire was subjectively assessed for the relevance of the questions. The questionnaire was given to Director of Employment Assistant Services and training work group to check whether the questions were relevant, unambiguous and clear.
- The content validity of the instrument was also checked. Content validity is the extent to which the content of the instrument appears to comprehensively examine the scope it is intended to measure (Bowling 1997).
- The questions in the questionnaire were based on the following areas:
  Instructors, Time management, Textbooks, Library facilities, Work pressure

Relaxation period.

3.4.6 Questionnaire interview process

In Pretoria West Basic Training Institution, the researcher and Employee Assistant Service task team (comprised of 2 representatives from Psychological, Social work and Spiritual Services), Sports Personnel and Personnel from Learner support group from the Institution collected data through the questionnaires. The consent forms were distributed separately to all the participants and it was read out and clearly explained to the participants. The participants were informed that they were not forced to participate in the study. They could withdraw at any time without giving any reasons for the withdrawal. The consent forms were collected and the questionnaires were distributed, instructions on how to complete the questionnaire were explained to the group. The participants were given a chance to ask questions before they started to complete the questionnaire. In Chatsworth Basic Training Institution, the same procedure was followed but there was only one representative from Employee Assistant Service as well as one representative from the Learner support group who collected data. The Chatsworth questionnaires were then mailed through to the researcher. The data was collected during the second semester of the course in November –December 2008.

3.5 Ethical considerations

Researchers face ethical dilemmas in their daily duties, when humans are used as study participants in a research investigation, care must be exercised that the rights of those individuals are protected (Polit & Hungler 1999).

The permission to conduct this study in South African Police service Basic Training institutions was granted by Head office Training Division. The commander of Pretoria West College was approached to request permission to conduct focus groups on trainees.

The principle of beneficence includes harm, freedom from exploitation and the risk benefit ratio. With regard from harm, there was no physical harm produced by participating in the study. Psychological discomfort might have resulted from the nature

of the environment participants were participating in and also by that the researcher is a permanent employee of SAPS. The issues of confidentiality and anonymity were mentioned and clearly defined to participants since they had to give the researcher a permission to conduct this study on them. The consent forms were distributed separately from the questionnaire. After the participants had completed them, they were collected and the questionnaire was distributed. It was clearly stated on the questionnaire that participants reserves the right to withdraw from the study without giving any reasons.

3.6 Qualitative Analysis

This was a qualitative study. A qualitative variable is one where the possible measurements are not measurements as such but quantities or frequencies of things that occur in categories. In qualitative research is used to inductively explore phenomena and provide detailed description of phenomena. Qualitative research seeks valid observations by looking at the degree to which it is concerned with the numbers which the researcher can produce observations for her. Themes were emerged from the data and relationships between them were identified. The biographical inventory was summarised quantitatively by using percentages. All the responses were put into an excel spread sheet under a specific category. The SPSS was used to analyse the data. Grounded theory was also applied.

3.7 Resumé

This chapter has discussed research methodology of the study and has also described the research design, population, sample, data collection instrument and ethical considerations. Chapter four presents the results and discusses them.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The first part of this chapter deals with quantitative analysis. This means that the raw data in tabular forms will be interpreted in the form of statements and the information will also be presented in the form of graphs. The second part deals with qualitative analysis. This is where the information which was collected from focus groups will be discussed.

The following table indicates the breakdown of each SAPS Institution which was supplied by The Head: Basic Training. These results were for July 2008 intake first assessments.

4.2 Presentation of data

1. JULY 2008 INTAKE FIRST ASSESSMENTS RESULTS

Institution	**Not Yet Competent**	**Percentage**	**Total no of recruits**
1. All Saints	24	11.6 %	207
2. Bisho	31	3.8 %	812
3. Mthatha	5	2.3 %	216
4. Bishop Lavis	24	5.9 %	407
5. Oudshoorn	7	1.6 %	450
6. Pretoria	132	6.3 %	2092
7. Phillipi	93	13.4 %	694
8. Ulundi	12	8.4 %	143
9. Chatsworth	49	27.2 %	180
10.Graaff-Reinet	16	5.9 %	271
TOTAL	393	7.2 %	5472

4.3 Biographical information

Part 1: Biographical information

1.

Respondents (n) as per institution		
Name of the institution	Frequency	Percentage
Pretoria West	174	55,06%
Chatsworth	142	44,93%
Total	316	100%

In this study, 174 respondents were from Pretoria West College in Gauteng Province, 142 respondents were from Chatsworth College in Kwa-Zulu Natal Province. The total number of respondents was equal to 316.

2.

Performance		
Level of competency	Frequency	Percentage
Not yet competent	143	42,25%
High Performers	173	54,74%
Total	316	100%

The participants were divided into two groups of level of competency namely: Not yet competent and High Performers. There were 143 not yet competent trainees who participated as well as 173 high performers.

3.

Age		
Age	Frequency	Percentage
Group 1	89	28,16%
Group 2	192	60,75%
Group 3	35	11,07%
Total	316	100%

The variable Age had 3 categories. The first group was between 25-29 years, the second group was younger than 25years of age and the third group was 30 years and older.
60,75% of the respondents were between the age of 25-29 years old, 28,16% were younger than 25 years of age and 11,07% were 30 years and older.

4.

Marital status		
Marital status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	296	93,67%
Married	19	6,01%
Separated	0	0,0%
Widowed	0	0,0%
Divorced	1	0,31%
Total	316	100%

The marital status variable was divided into 5 categories. The first category consisted of a sample of 93, 67% of single individuals. The second category consisted of a sample of 6, 01% of married participants. The fourth category had 0, 31% of widowed participants. There were no divorced or separated participants.

5.

Language		
Language(s)	Frequency	Percentage
Afrikaans	1	0,31%
English	18	5,69%
Sotho	58	18,35%
Tswana	20	6,32%
Tsonga	32	10,12%
Venda	24	7,59%
Zulu	138	43,67%
Other	24	7,59%
Missing	1	0,31%
Total	316	100%

From the participants, 43,67% were Zulu speaking, 18,35% were Sotho speaking, 10, 12% were Tsonga speaking, 7,59% were Venda speaking, 7,59% speak other languages such as Xhosa and 0,31% did not respond to the question.

6.

Environment		
Type of the environment	Frequency	Percentage
Urban areas	122	30,06%
Rural areas	193	61,07%
Grew up in both areas	27	8,54%
Missing	1	0,31%
Total	316	100%

Out of 316 participants, 61, 07% grew up in rural areas, 30, 06% in urban areas, 8, 54% grew up in both areas and 0, 31% did not respond to this question.

7.

Matric certificate		
Value of matric certificate	Frequency	Percentage
Exemption/ conditional exemption	88	25,94%
Senior certificate	228	72,15%
Total	316	100%

72, 15% of the respondents had a Senior Certificate in grade 12 and 25, 94% had matric exemption.

4.4 Emotional disturbances

Emotional disturbances were divided into 9 categories namely:

-None- no emotional disturbances were experienced

-Family problems- loss of the loved one/ death in the family, relationship problems, some has child/children at home, domestic violence.

-Physical Exhaustion- due to physical training

-Ill-treatment- being ill-treated by instructors, punishment

-Psychological Factors- stress, depression, withdrawal, lack of concentration due to tiredness or personal problems.

-Money- debts or other financial crisis

-Training- study methods, accommodation, lectures, study material

-Socialisation within groups- conflicts, noise

In this study, 39,24% of the respondents indicated that they did not experience any emotional disturbances, 14,55 % indicated that they had family problems, 5,69 % experienced work overload, 4,11% indicated physical exhaustion due to physical training and 3,79% indicated ill-treatment by instructors. The remaining 32,62% of the responses stated that they experienced a combination of emotional disturbances.

4.5 Part B (i)

The success scale results

In all the tables, the first column represents the sample (N), in that column, a number of the participants who responded to the statement by choosing a specific response was indicated.

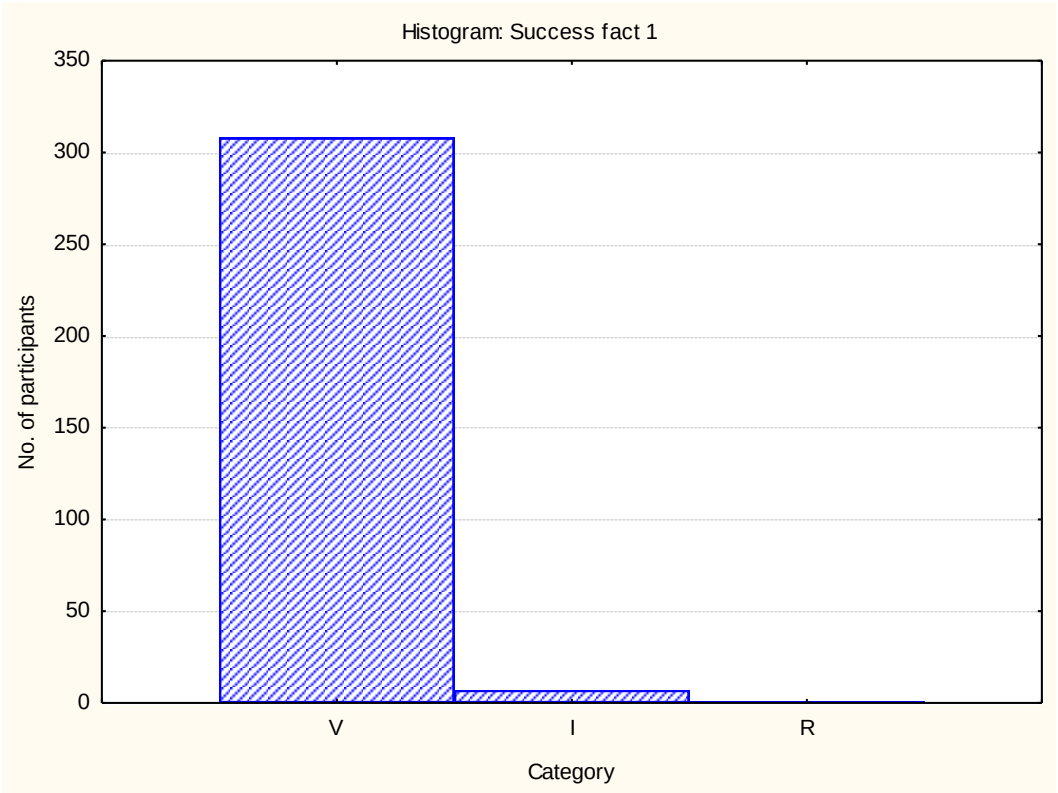
Success Scale

1. Success Fact 1: Self-discipline

N=316	%	Scale	
308	97,47%	V	V- Very important I- Important R-Irrelevant N- Not important O- Not responded
7	2,22%	I	
1	0,32%	R	
0	0,00%	N	
0	0,00%	O	

99, 69% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success and 0, 32% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success.

p< .05000

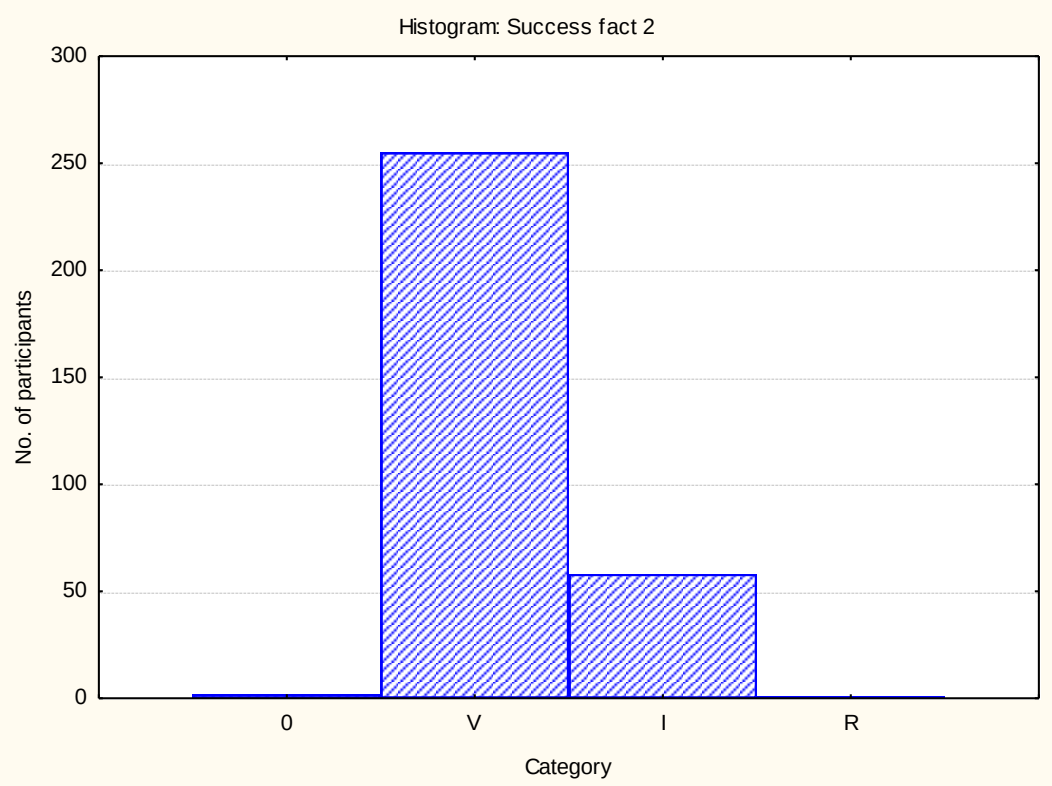


2. Success Fact 2: Effective study methods

N=316	%	Scale	
255	80,70%	V	V-Very important
58	18,35%	I	I –important
1	0,32%	R	R- Irrelevant
0	0,00%	N	N- Not important
0	0,00%	0	0-No response

99, 05% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success and only 0, 32% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant.

p< .05000



3. Success Factor 3. Family support

N=316	%	Scale	
249	78,80%	V	V-Very important
56	17,72%	I	I –important
4	1,27%	N	N- Not important
2	0,63%	R	R- Irrelevant
5	1,58%	0	0- No response

96,52% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 1,27% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,63% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,58% of the respondents did not answer this question.

p<.5000

Success Fact 4: Appropriate balance between academic commitments and social life.

N=316	%	Scale	
176	55,87%	V	V-Very important
118	37,46%	I	I –important
5	1,59%	N	N- Not important
1	0,32%	R	R- Irrelevant
15	4,76%	0	0- No response

93,33% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 1,59% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important

influence on trainees' success, 0,32% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 4,76% of the respondents did not answer the question.

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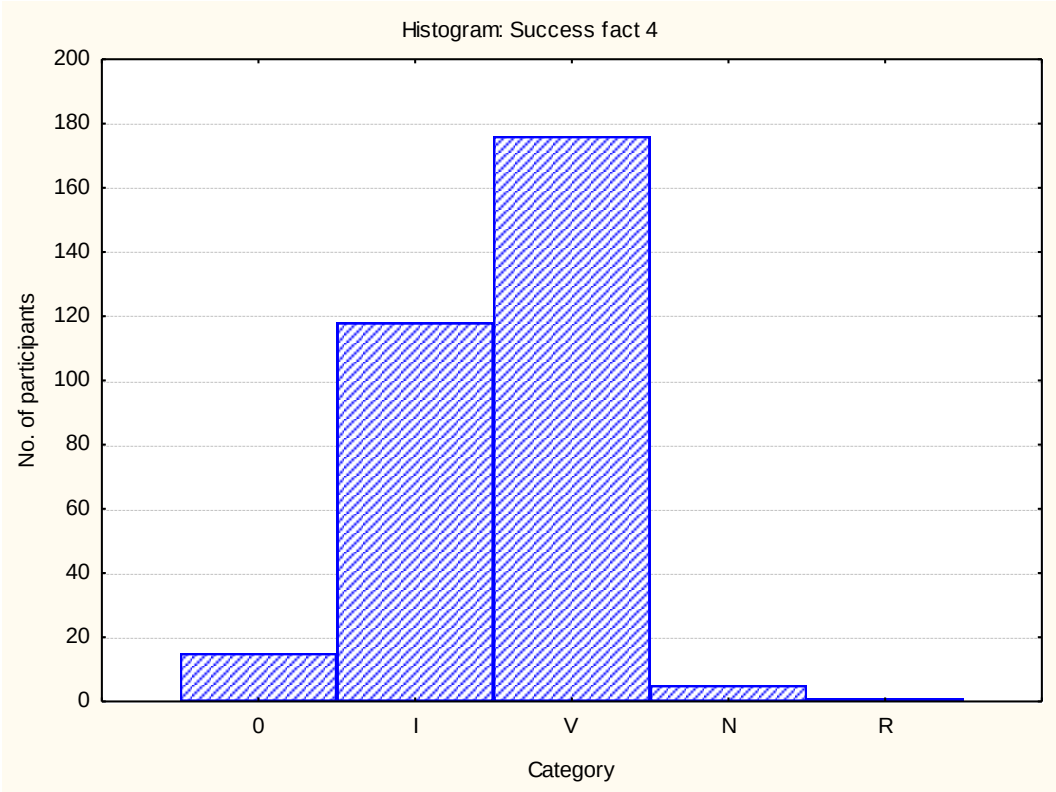
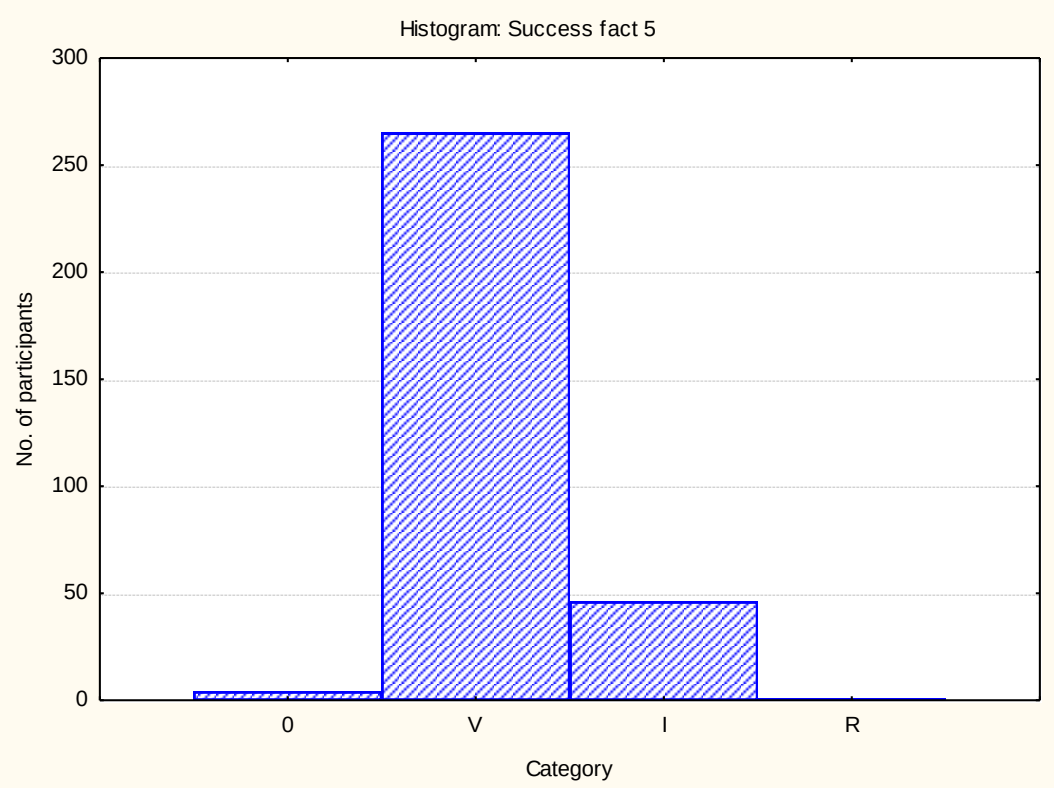


Success Fact 5: Self-motivation

N=316	%	Scale	
265	83,9%	V	V-Very important
46	14,6%	I	I –important
1	0,32%	R	R- Irrelevant
4	1,3%	0	0- No response
0	0,00%	N	N-Not important

98,42% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' success, 0,32% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,3% of respondents did not respond to this question.

p< .05000



Success Fact 6: Ability to work in dependently

N=316	%	Scale	
171	54,11%	V	V-Very important
107	33,86%	I	I –important
27	8,54%	N	N- Not important
5	1,58%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	1,90%	0	0- No response

87,97% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 8,54% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' success, 1,58% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,90% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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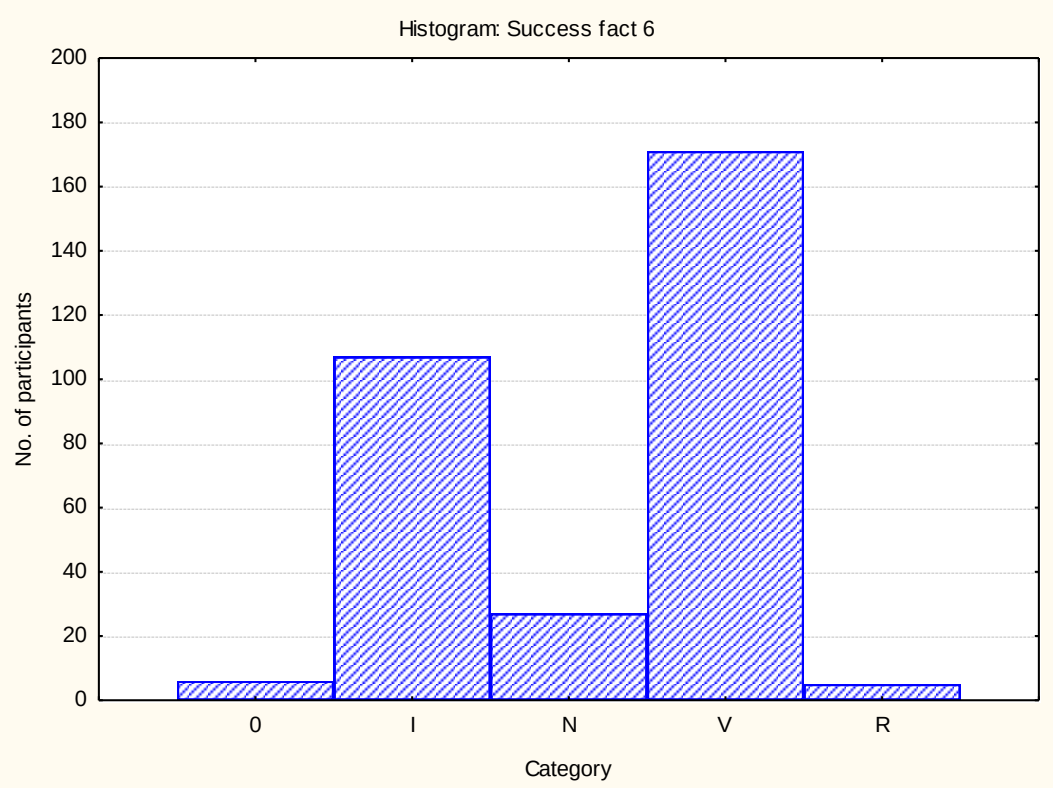

Success Fact 7: Interest in the course

N=316	%	Scale	
239	75,63%	V	V-Very important
68	21,52%	I	I –important
4	1,27%	N	N- Not important
2	0,63%	R	R- Irrelevant
3	0,95%	0	0- No response

97,15% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 1,27% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,63% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 0,95% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

p< .05000

Success Fact 8: Consistent effort of learners

N=316	%	Scale	
178	56,33%	V	V-Very important
117	37,03%	I	I –important
5	1,58%	N	N- Not important
2	0,63%	R	R- Irrelevant
14	4,43%	0	0- No response

93,36% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 1,58% felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,63% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 4,43% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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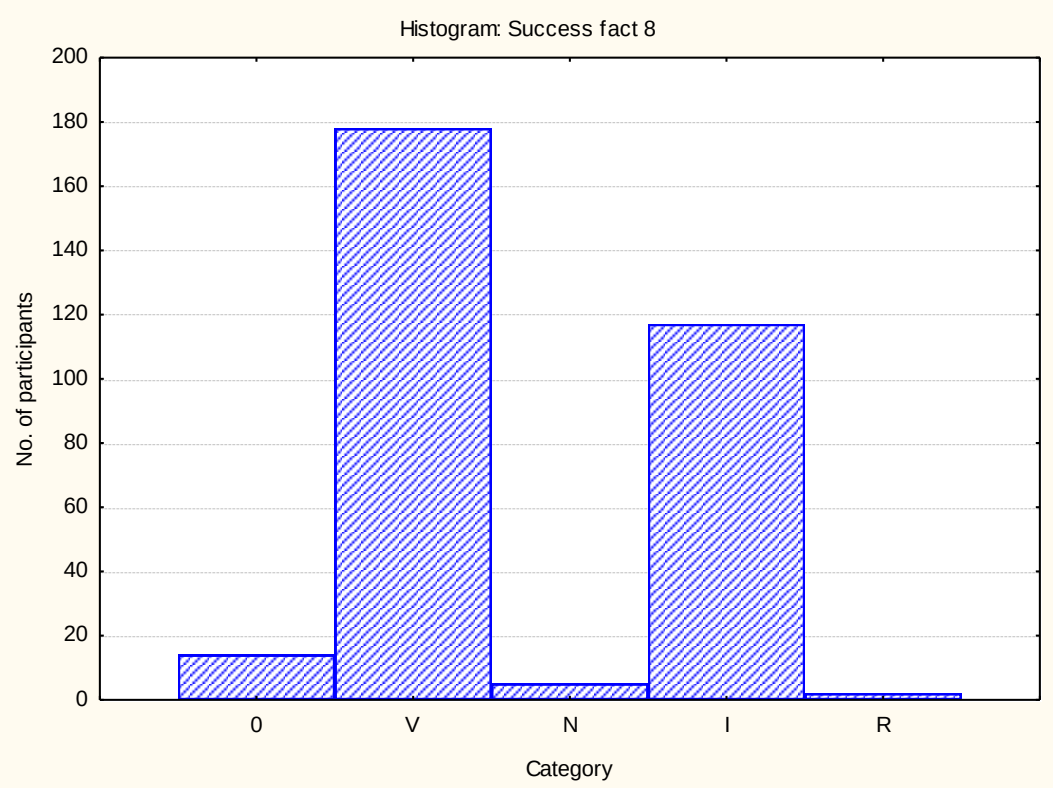

Success Factor 9: Assessments tasks that are closely related to module

N=316	%	Scale	
201	63,6%	V	V-Very important
104	32,9%	I	I –Important
6	1,9%	N	N- Not important
5	1,58%	0	0- No response
0	0,00%	R	R-Irrelevant

96,5% of the respondents felt that this factor had influence on trainees' academic success, 1,9% of the respondents felt that this factor does have important influence on trainees' academic success and 1,58% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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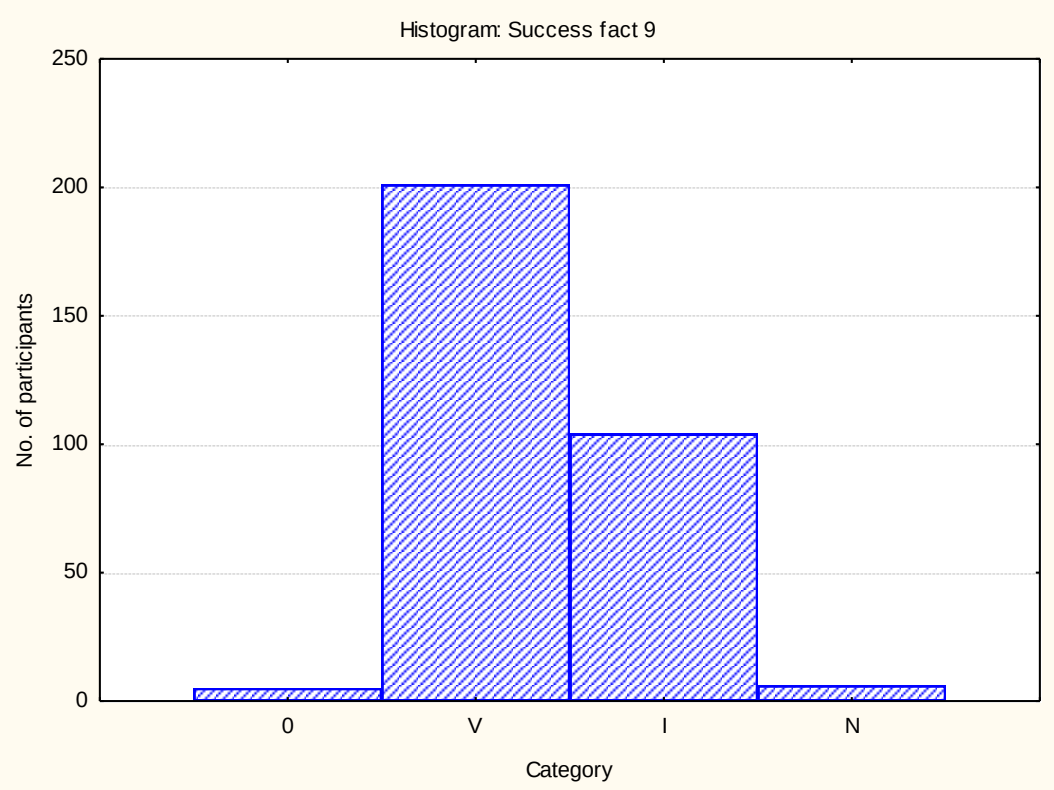

Success Fact 10: Time and regular exam preparation

N=316	%	Scale	
239	75,63%	V	V-Very important
71	22,47%	I	I –important
2	0,63%	N	N- Not important
1	0,32%	R	R- Irrelevant
3	0,95%	0	0- No response

98,1% of the respondents felt that this factor had important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,63% of the respondents felt that this factor does not have important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,3% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 0,95% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

p<.05000

Success 11: Understanding what lecturers expect

N=316	%	Scale	
230	72,78%	V	V-Very important
71	22,47%	I	I –important
10	3,16%	N	N- Not important
4	1,27%	R	R- Irrelevant
1	0,32%	0	0- No response

95,25% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 3,16% of the respondents felt that this factor has got no influence on trainees' academic success, 1,27% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 0,32% of the respondents did not answer this question.

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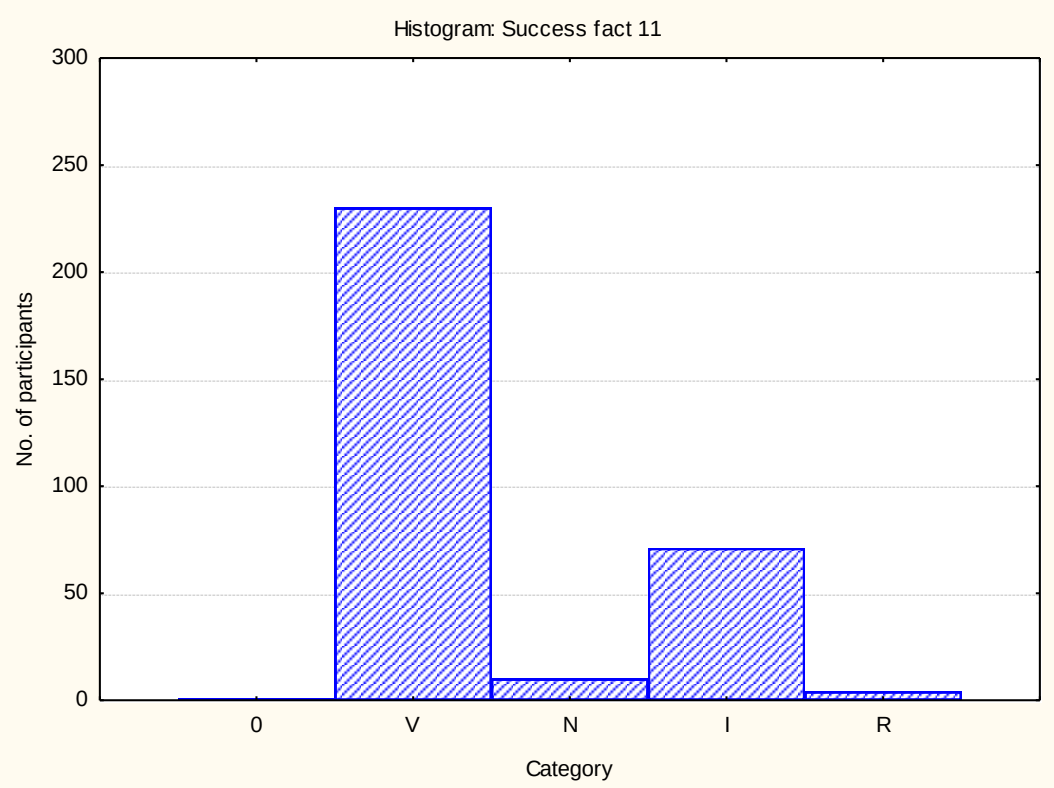

Success Factor 12: Appropriate choice of course of study

N=316	%	Scale	
185	58,54%	V	V-Very important
9	2,85%	I	I –important
113	35,76%	N	N- Not important
3	0,95%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	1,90%	0	0- No response

61,39% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 35,76% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,95% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 1,90% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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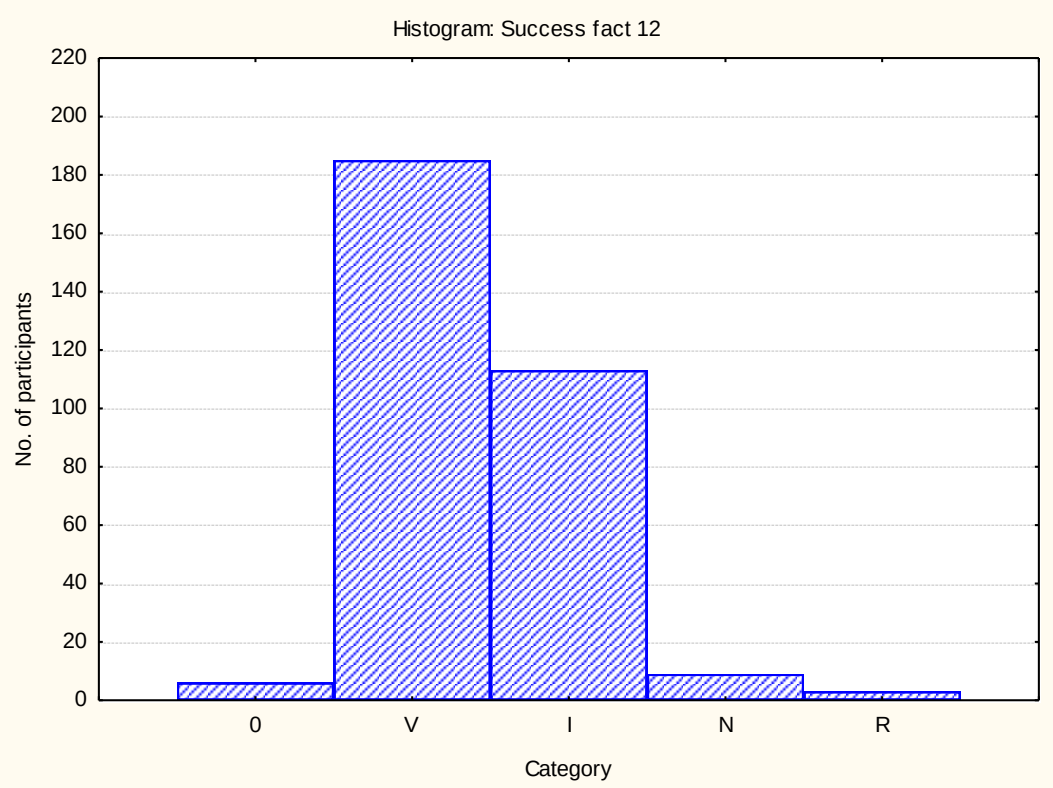

Success Fact 13: Effective examination technique

N=316	%	Scale	
193	61,08%	V	V-Very important
108	34,18%	I	I –important
7	2,22%	N	N- Not important
4	1,27%	R	R- Irrelevant
4	1,27%	0	0- No response

95,26% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 2,22% of the respondents felt that this factor has got no important influence on trainees' academic success, 1,27% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant from trainees' academic success and 1,27% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

p< .05000

Success Fact 14: Relevance of course

N=316	%	Scale	
162	51,27%	V	V-Very important
133	42,09%	I	I –important
10	3,16%	N	N- Not important
4	1,27%	R	R- Irrelevant
7	2,22%	0	0- No response

93,36% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 3,16% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important factor on trainees' academic success, 1,27% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 2,2% of the respondents did not answer this question.

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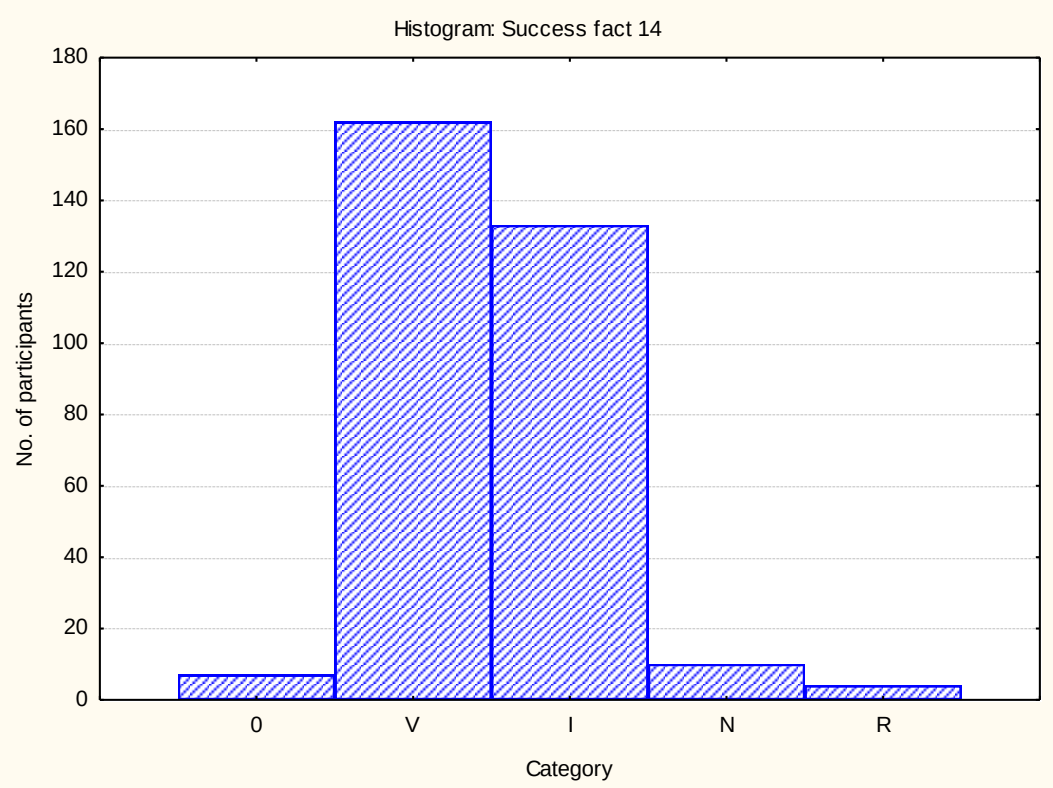

Success Fact 15: Willingness to ask for help from instructors

N=316	%	Scale	
243	76,90%	V	V-Very important
63	19,94%	I	I –important
5	1,58%	N	N- Not important
3	0,95%	R	R- Irrelevant
2	0,63%	0	0- No response

96,8% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 1,58% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,95% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees academic success and 0,63% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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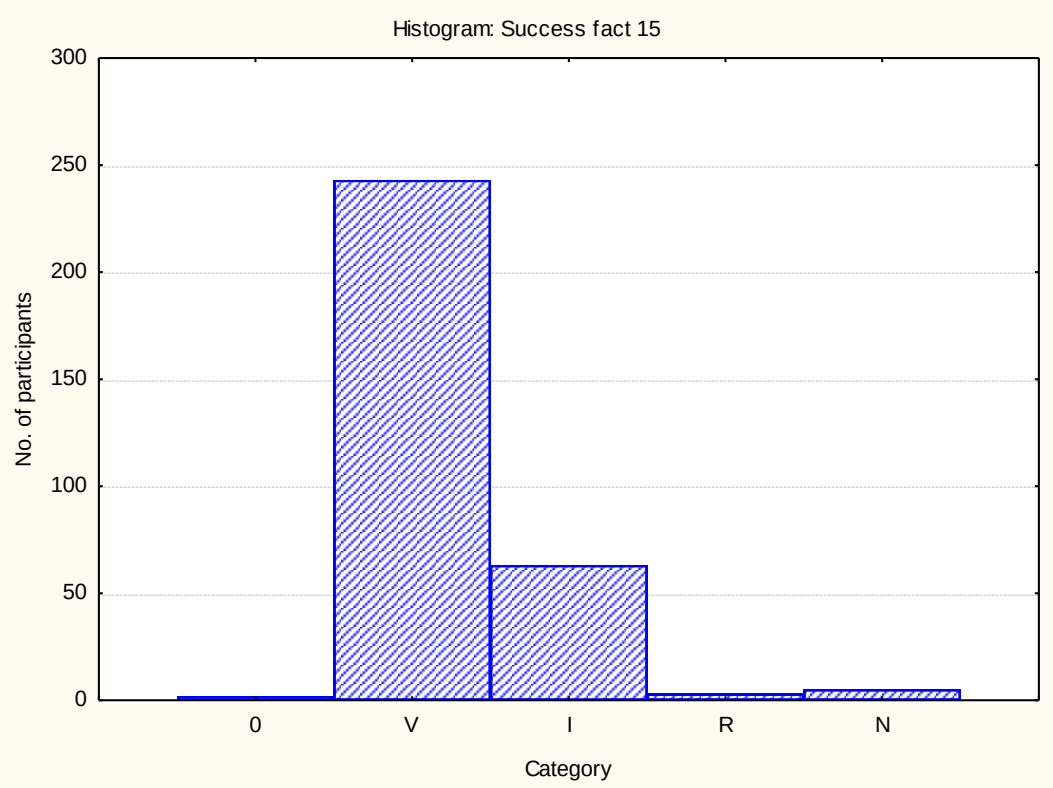

Success Fact 16: Ability to reason logically

N=316	%	Scale	
175	55,38%	V	V-Very important I –important N- Not important R- Irrelevant 0- No response
121	38,29%	I	
9	2,85%	N	
4	1,27%	R	
7	2,22%	0	

93,67% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 2,85% of the respondents felt this factor did not have important factor on trainees' academic success, 1,27% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 2,22% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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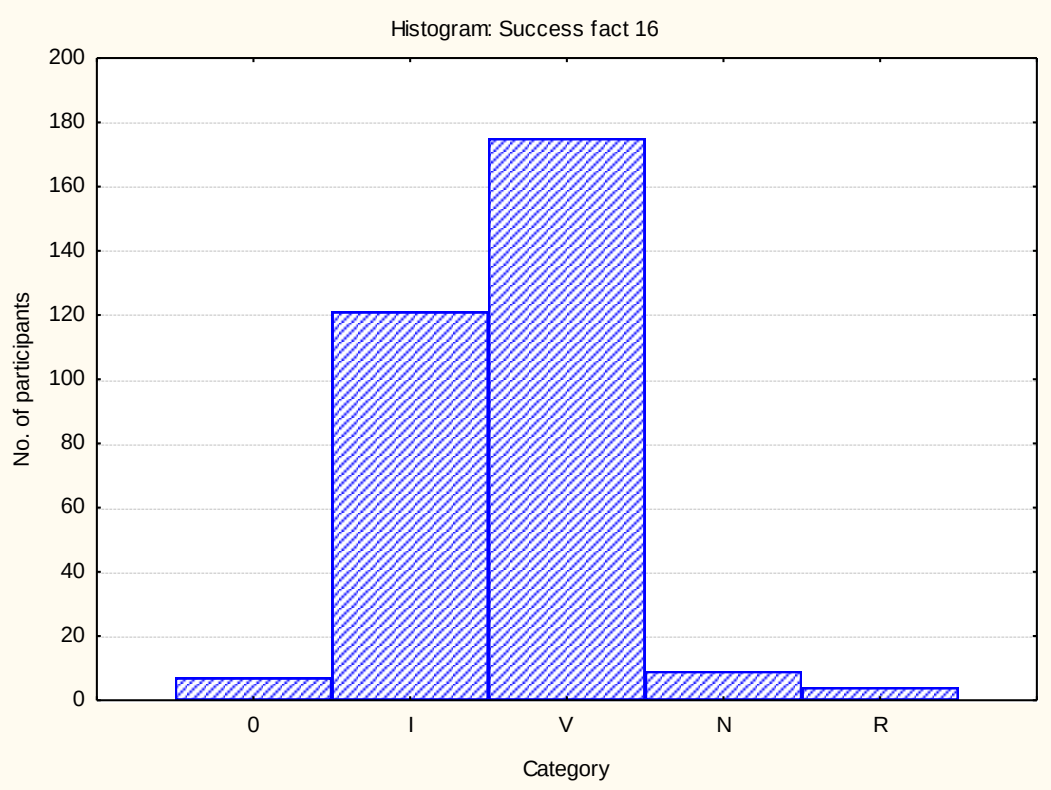

Success Fact 17: General academic ability

N=316	%	Scale	
170	53,97%	V	V-Very important
125	39,68%	I	I –important
14	4,44%	N	N- Not important
6	1,90%	0	0- No response
0	0,00%	R	R-Irrelevant

93,65% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 4,44% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic success and 1,90% of the respondents did not answer this question.

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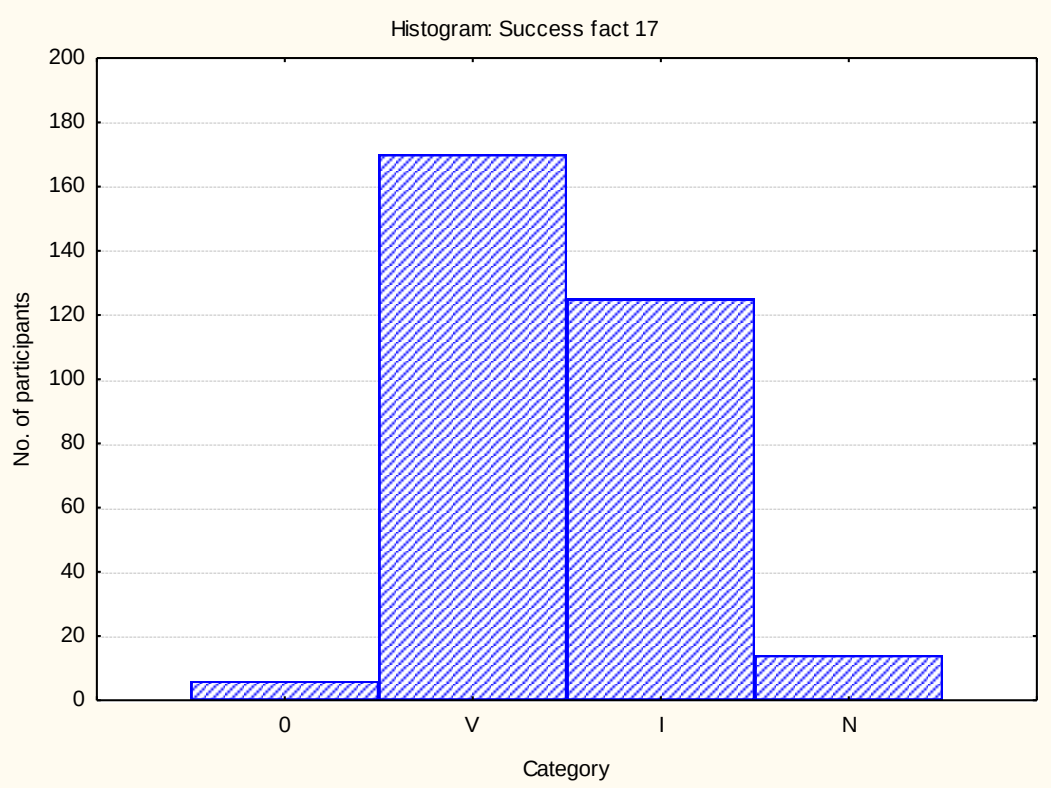

Success Fact 18: Access to libraries

N=316	%	Scale	
145	45,89%	V	V-Very important
104	32,91%	I	I –important
48	15,19%	N	N- Not important
13	4,11%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	1,90%	0	0- No response

78,8% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 15,19% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important factor on trainees' academic success, 4,11% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,90% of the respondents did not answer this question.

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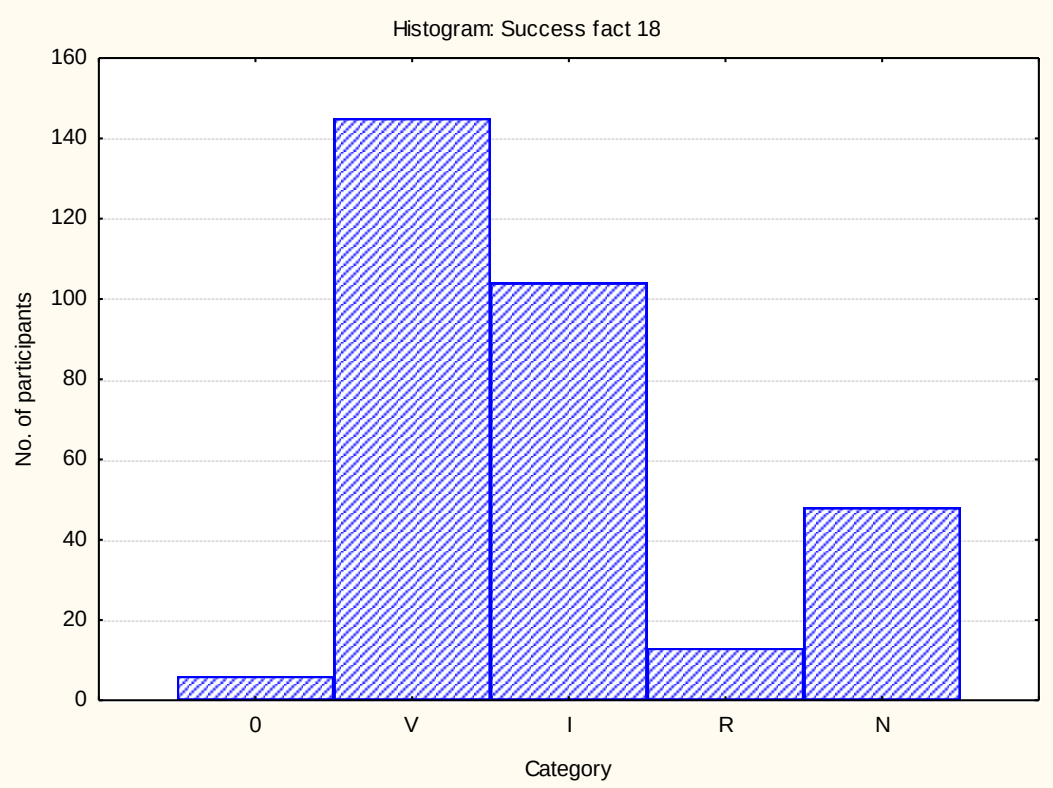
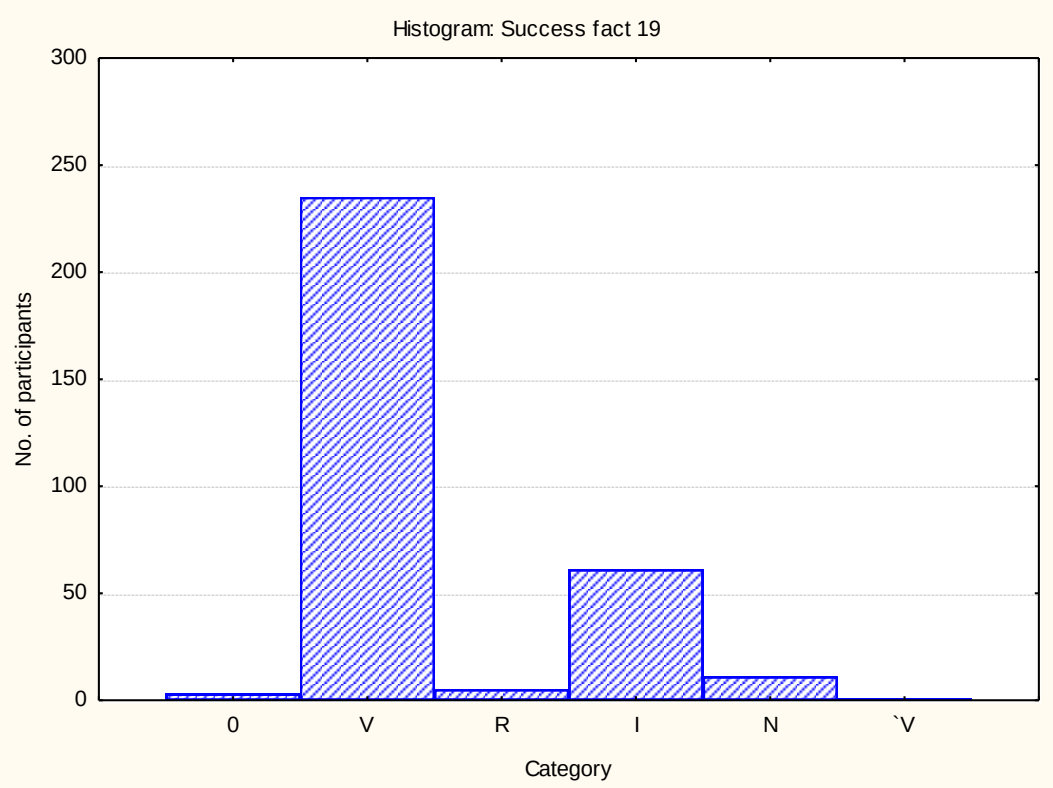


Success Fact 19: Ability to manage stress

N=316	%	Scale	
235	74,37%	V	V-Very important
61	19,30%	I	I –important
11	3,48%	N	N- Not important
5	1,58%	R	R- Irrelevant
3	0,95%	0	0- No response

93,67% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 3,48% of the respondents felt that this factor has got no important influence on trainees' academic success, 1,58% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 0,95% did not respond to this question.

p< .05000



Success Fact 20: Self- confidence

N=316	%	Scale	
271	85,76%	V	V-Very important
36	11,39%	I	I –important
4	1,27%	N	N- Not important
1	0,32%	R	R- Irrelevant
4	1,27%	0	0- No response

97,15% 0f the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 1,27% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,32% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 1,27% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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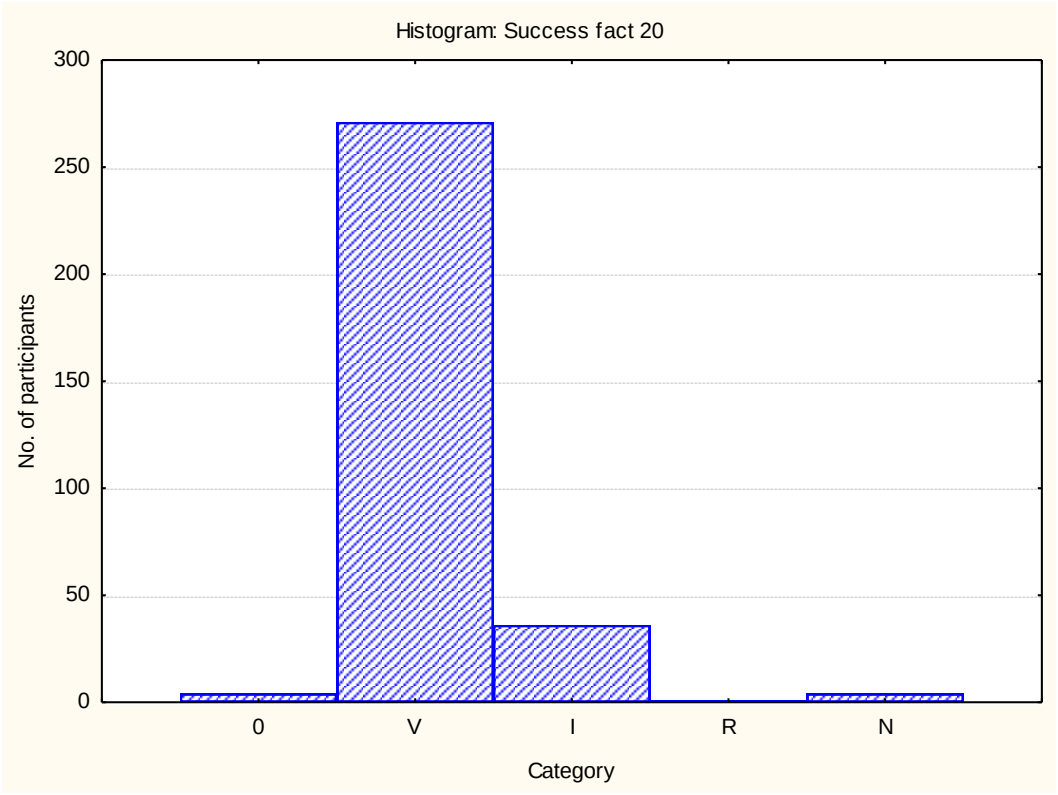

Success Fact 21: Study guide with clearly defined outcomes

N=316	%	Scale	
199	62,97%	V	V-Very important
103	32,59%	I	I –important
10	3,16%	N	N- Not important
2	0,63%	R	R- Irrelevant
2	0,63%	0	0- No response

95,56% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 3,2% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important factor on trainees' academic success, 0,63% of the of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 0,63% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

p< .05000

Success Fact 22: Regular and comprehensive feedback on progress from instructors

N=316	%	Scale	
191	60,44%	V	V-Very important
114	36,08%	I	I –important
7	2,22%	N	N- Not important
2	0,63%	R	R- Irrelevant
2	0,63%	0	0- No response

96,52% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 2,22% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,63% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 0,63% did not respond to this question.

p< .05000

Success Fact 23: Dedication to a career goal

N=316	%	Scale	
239	75,87%	V	V-Very important
70	22,22%	I	I –important
3	0,95%	N	N- Not important
1	0,32%	R	R- Irrelevant
2	0,63%	0	0- No response

98,09% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,95% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees', 0,32% felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 0,63% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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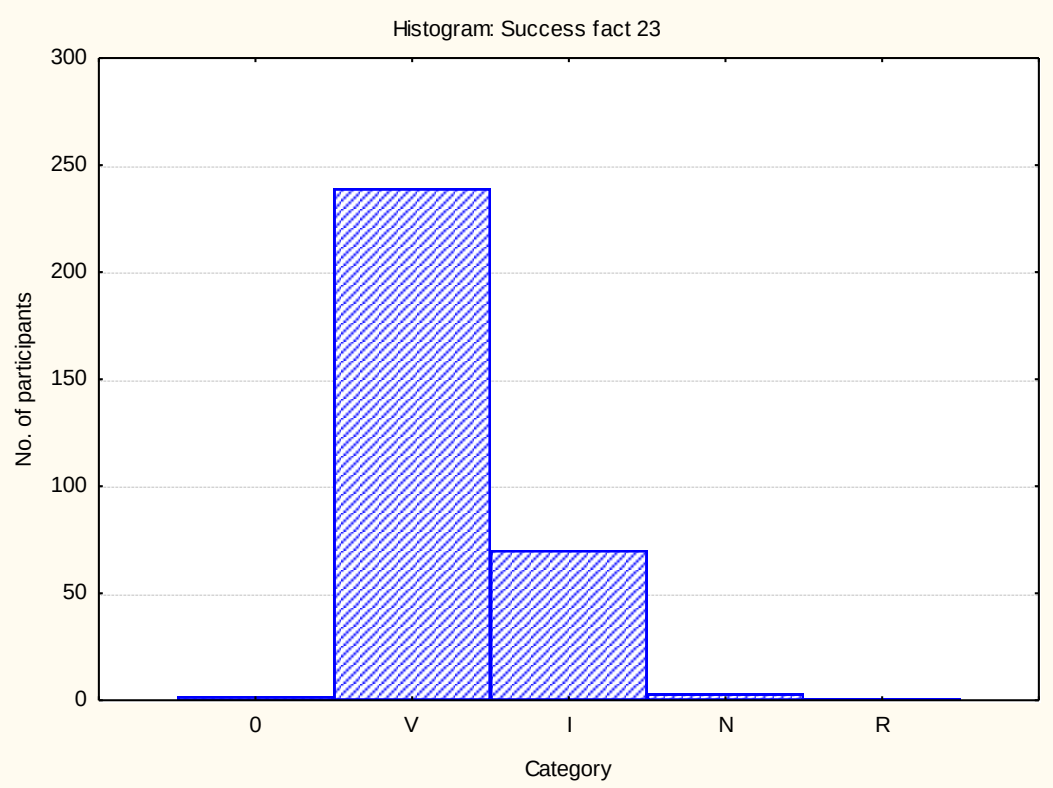

Success Fact 24: Willingness to accept a challenge

N=316	%	Scale	
232	73,42%	V	V-Very important
73	23,10%	I	I –important
4	1,27%	N	N- Not important
1	0,32%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	1,90%	0	0- No response

96,52% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 1,27% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic success , 0,32% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 1,90% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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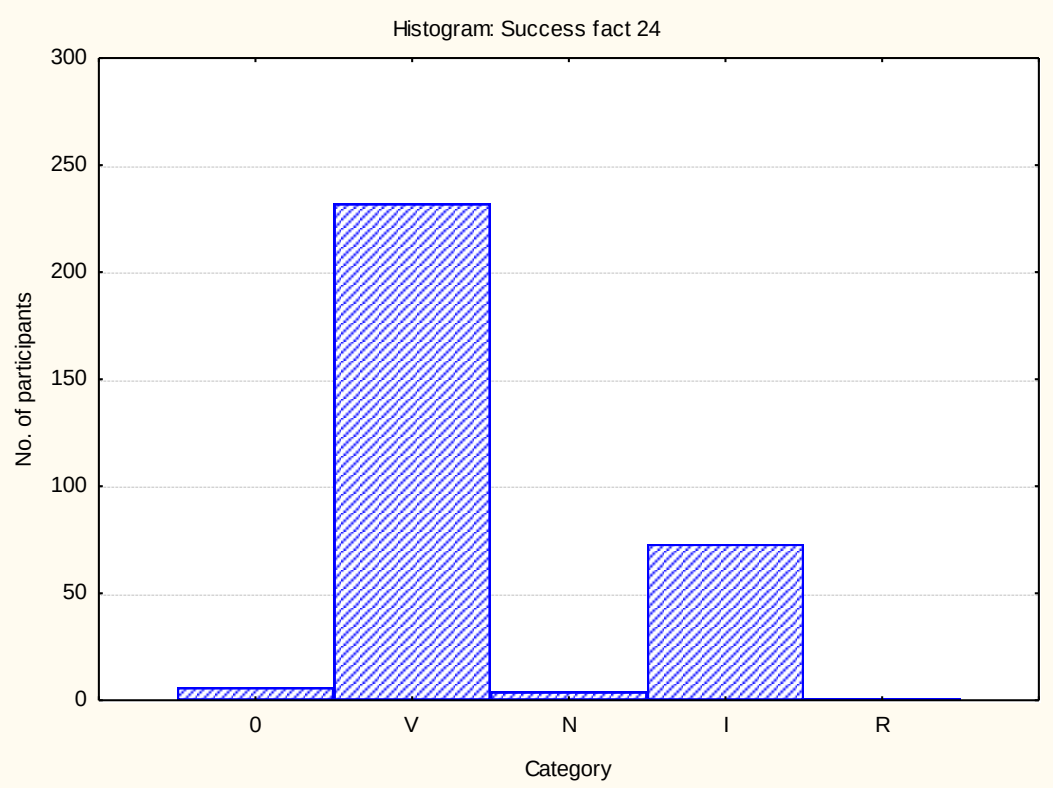
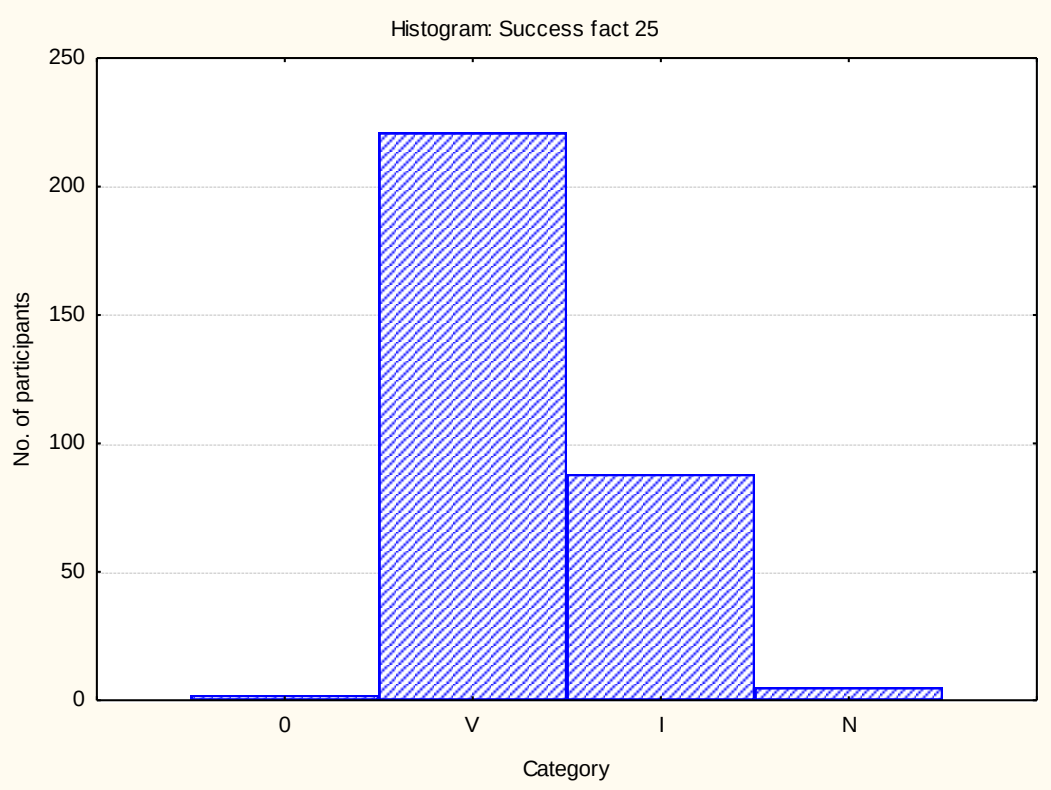


Success Fact 25: Ability to apply the subject to a work situation

N=316	%	Scale	
221	69,94%	V	V-Very important
88	27,85%	I	I –important
5	1,58%	N	N- Not important
2	0,63%	0	0- No response
0	0,00%	R	R-Irresponsible

97,79% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 1,58% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,63% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

p< .05000



Success Fact 26: Effective written communication skills

N=316	%	Scale	
178	56,33%	V	V-Very important
119	37,66%	I	I –important
8	2,53%	N	N- Not important
3	0,63%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	2,85%	0	0- No response

93,99% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 2,53% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,63% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 2,85% of the respondents did not answer this question.

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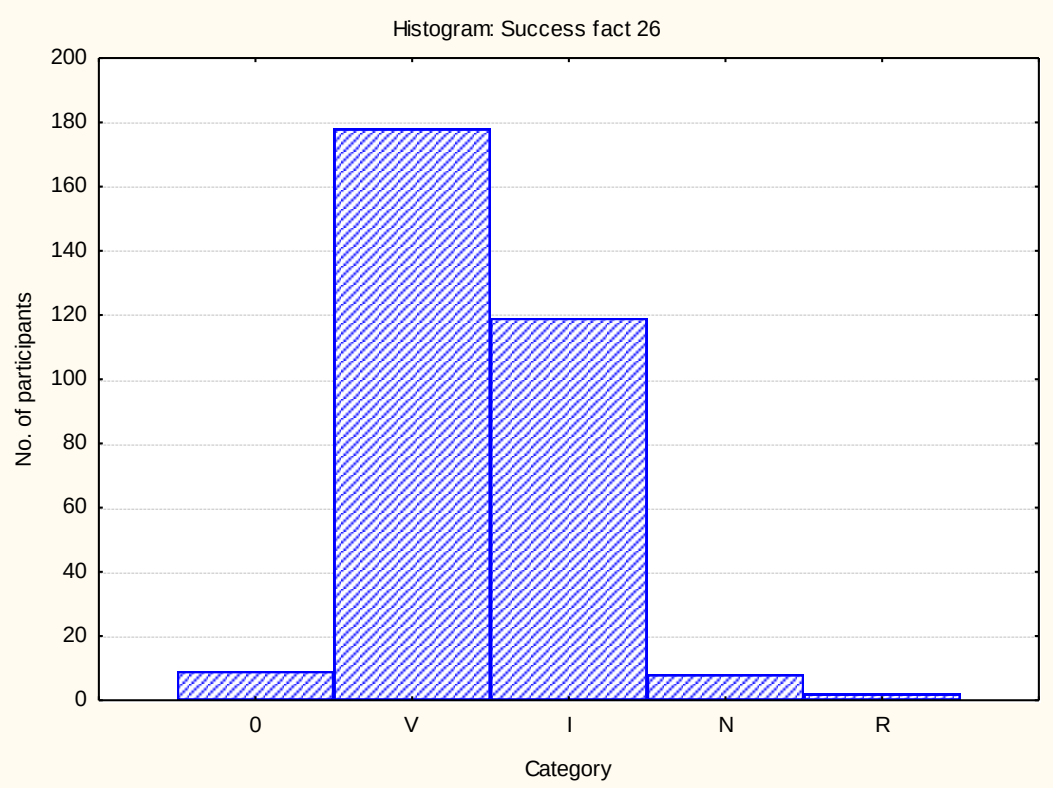

Success Fact 27: Availability of high- quality study resources

N=316	%	Scale	
199	62,97%	V	V-Very important
95	30,06%	I	I –important
13	4,11%	N	N- Not important
3	0,95%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	1,90%	0	0- No response

93,03% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 4,11% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic success, 0,95% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 1,90% of the respondents did not answer this question.

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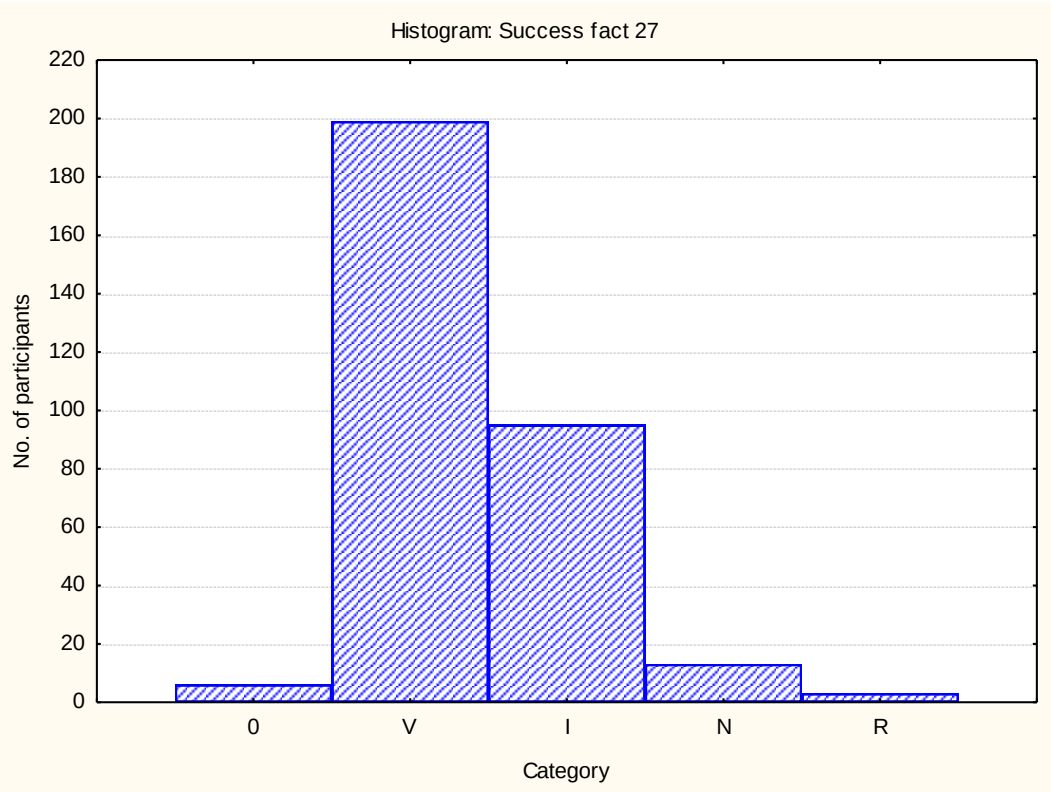
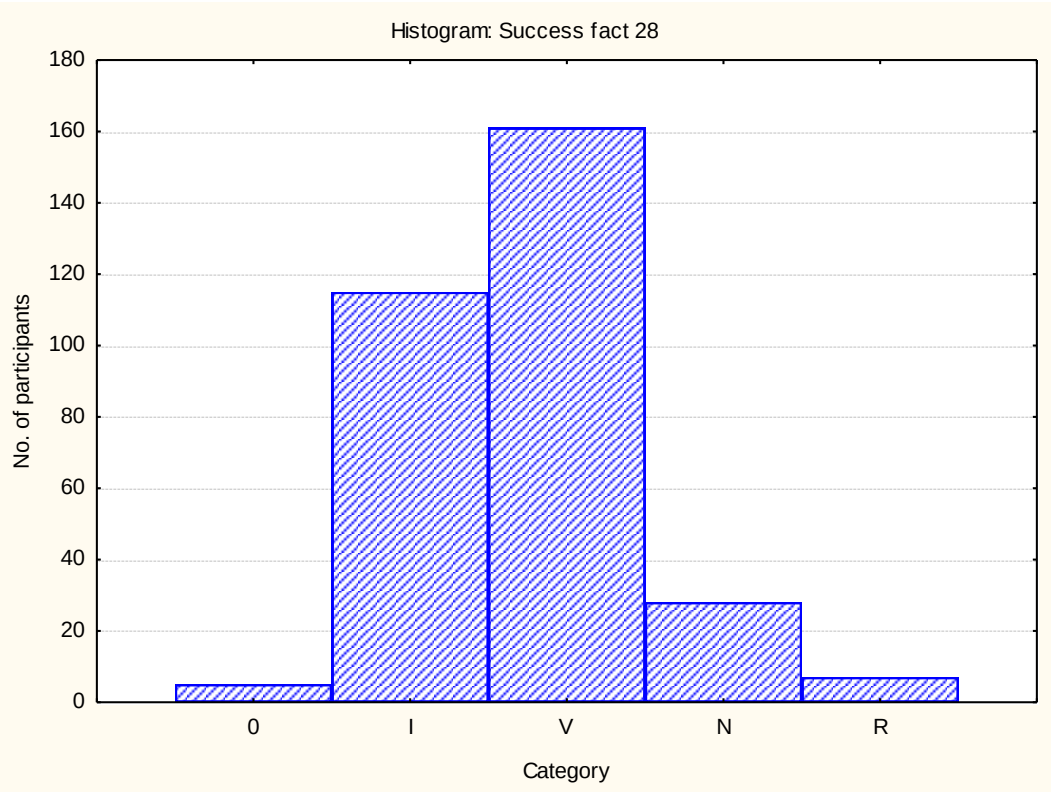


Success Factor 28: Study group support

N=316	%	Scale	
161	50,95%	V	V-Very important
115	36,39%	I	I –important
28	8,86%	N	N- Not important
7	2,22%	R	R- Irrelevant
5	1,58%	0	0- No response

87,34% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 8,86% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic success, 2,22% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant on trainees' academic success and 1,58% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

p< .05000



Success Fact 29: A stable private life

N=316	%	Scale	
118	37,34%	V	V-Very important
114	36,08%	I	I –important
65	20,57%	N	N- Not important
110	3,16%	R	R- Irrelevant
9	2,85%	0	0- No response

73,42% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 20,57% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important factor on trainees' academic success, 3,16% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 2,85% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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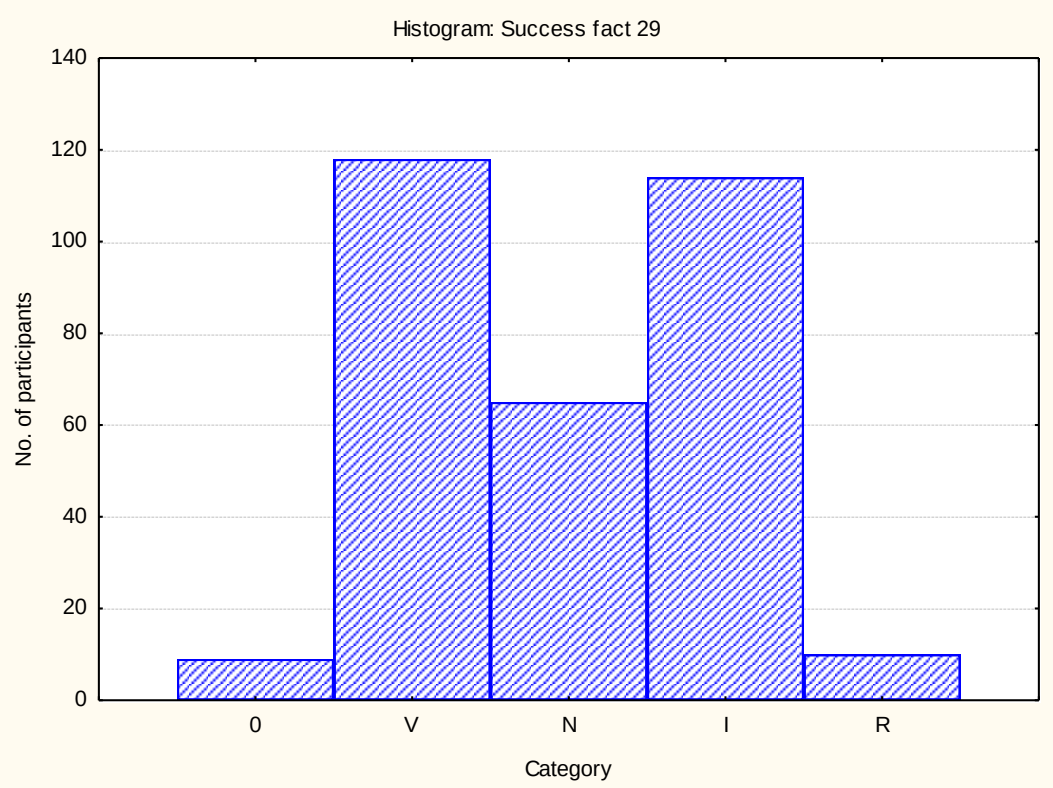

Success Fact 30: Satisfactory accommodation

N=316	%	Scale	
157	49,68%	V	V-Very important
113	35,76%	I	I –important
31	9,81%	N	N- Not important
11	3,48%	R	R- Irrelevant
4	1,27%	0	0- No response

85,44% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 9,8% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic success, 3,48% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 1,27% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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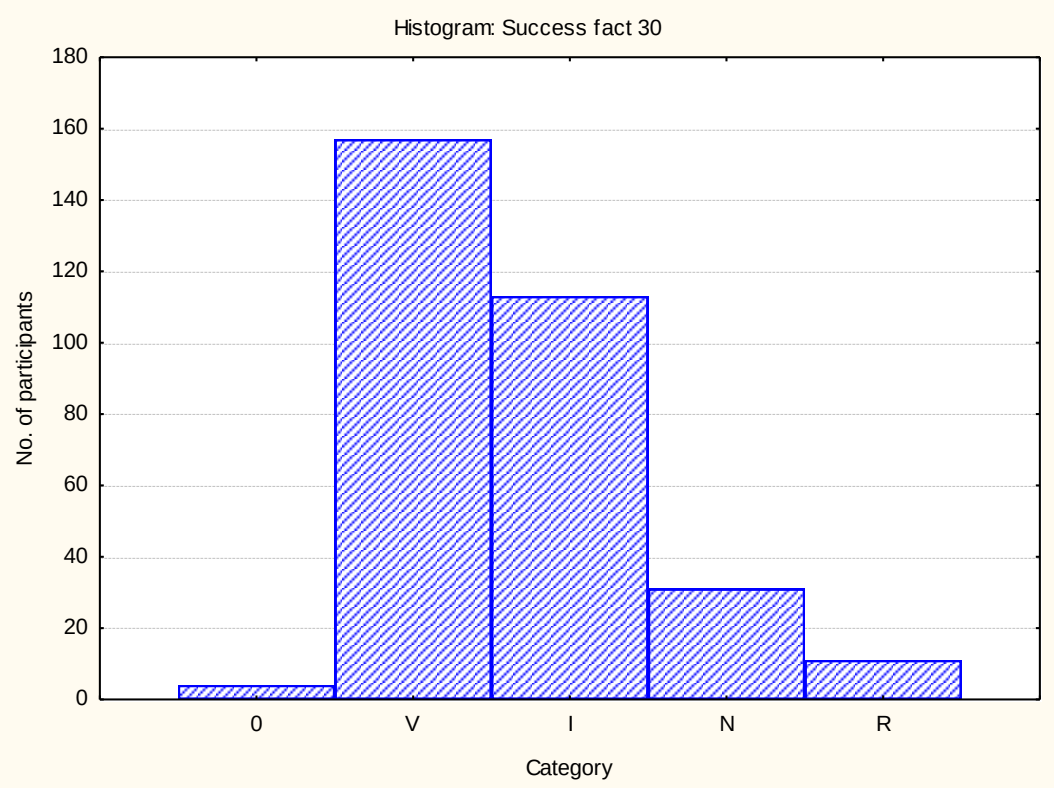

Success Fact 31: Maturity

N=316	%	Scale	
170	53,97%	V	V-Very important
110	34,92%	I	I –important
19	6,03%	N	N- Not important
7	2,22%	R	R- Irrelevant
9	2,86%	0	0- No response

88,89% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 6,03% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic success, 2,22% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 2,86% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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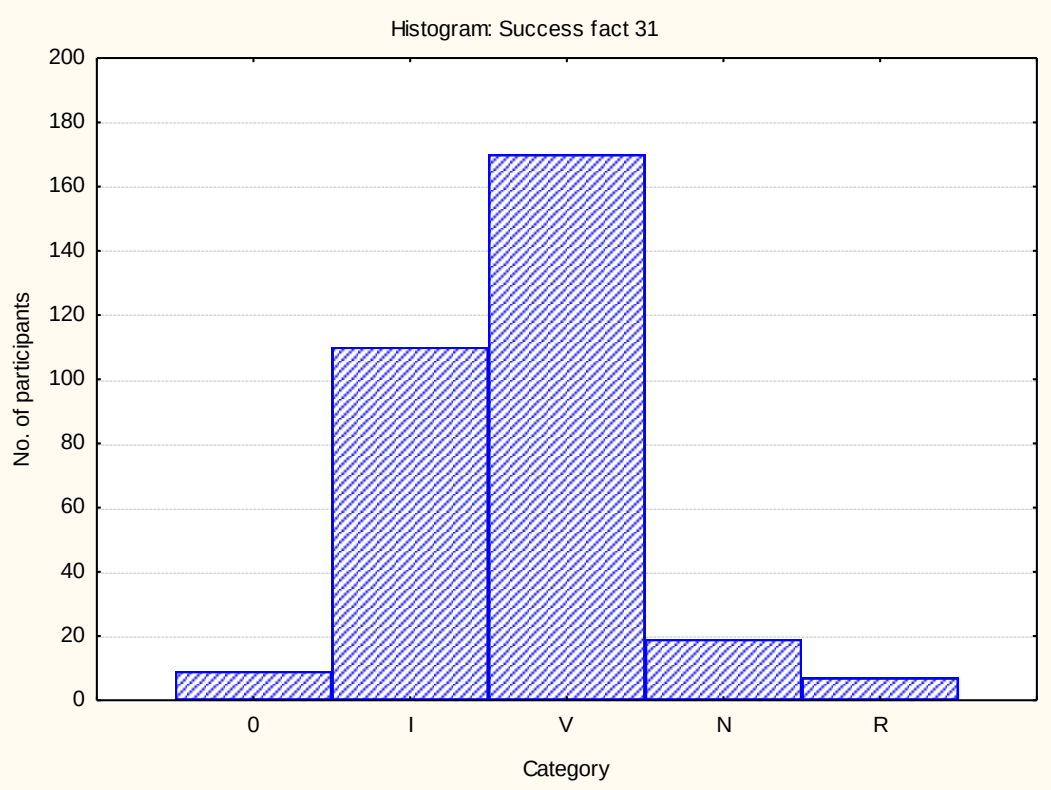

Success fact 32: Access to internet

N=316	%	Scale	
152	48,10%	V	V-Very important
98	27,85%	I	I –important
44	11,71%	N	N- Not important
20	4,43%	R	R- Irrelevant
2	0,32%	0	0- No response

75,95 % of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 11,71% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic success, 4,43% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 0,32% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

p< .05000

Success Fact 33: Enough time to relax

N=316	%	Scale	
176	55,70%	V	V-Very important
88	27,85%	I	I –important
37	11,71%	N	N- Not important
14	4,43%	R	R- Irrelevant
1	0,32%	0	0- No response

83,55% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic success, 11,71% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important factor on trainees' academic success, 4,43% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic success and 0,32% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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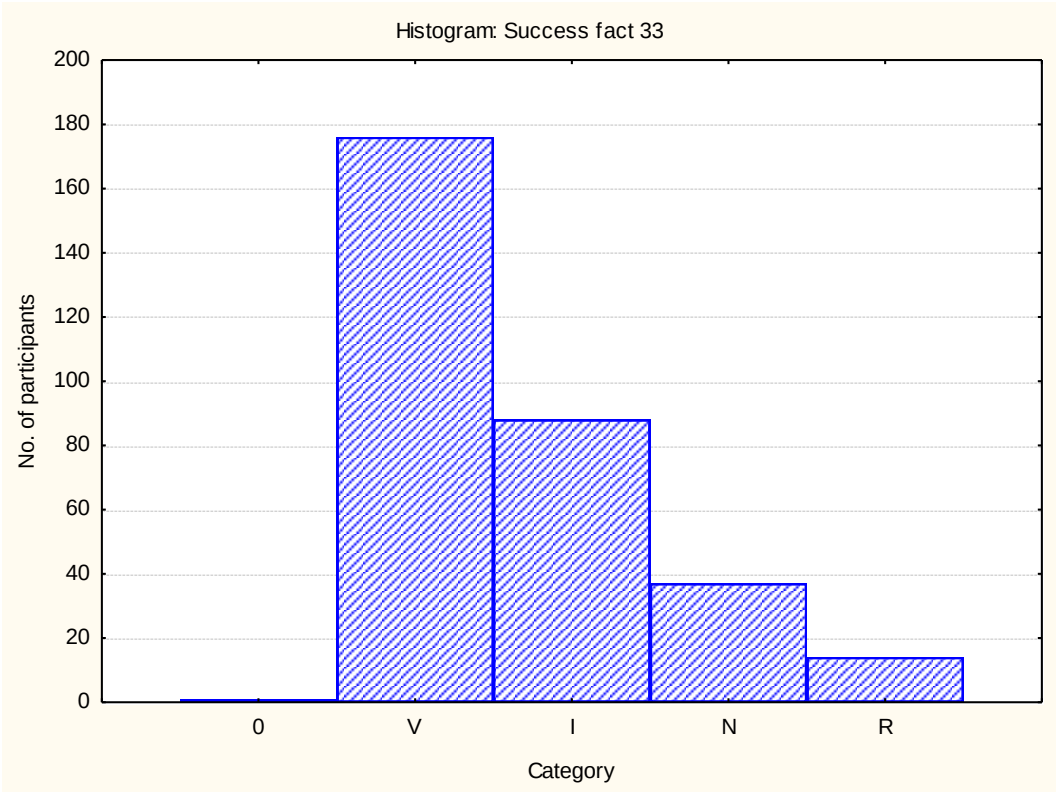

4.6 Significant success scale

The following table no. 1 presents factors mentioned as significant in their sequence.

Description	**Percentage**
1. Self-discipline	99,69%
2. Self-motivation	98,42%
3. Dedication to a career goal	98,09%
4. Time and regular examination preparation	98,1%
5. Ability to apply the subject to a work situation	97,79%
6. Interest in the course	97,15%
7. Self-confidence	97,15%
8. Family support	96,52%
9. Willingness to accept a challenge	96,52%
10. Willingness to ask for help from instructors	96,8%
11. Assessments tasks that are closely related to module	96,5%
12. Study guides with clearly defined outcomes	95,56%
13. Effective examination technique	95,26%
14. Understanding what lecturers' expectations	95,25%
15. Effective written communication skills	93,99%
16. Ability to manage stress	93,67%
17. General academic ability	93,65%

18. Consistent effort of learners	93,36%
19. Relevance of course	93,36%
20. Appropriate balance between academic commitments and social life	93.33%
21. Availability of high-quality study resources	93,03%
22. Regular and comprehensive feedback on progress from instructors	92,52%
23. Maturity	88,89%
24. Ability to work independently	87.97 %
25. Study group support	87,34%
26. Satisfactory accommodation	85,44%
27. Enough time to relax	83,55%
28. Access to the internet	79,11%
29.Access to libraries	78,8 %
30. A stable private life	73, 42 %

The percentages of the 'very important responses' and 'important responses' were added up, hence the total sum on the table. Only factors which scored 70% and above were recognised as significant factors.

4.7 Failure Scale Results

1. Failure fact 1: Insufficient effort (e.g. study, exam preparation)

N=316	%	Scale	
170	53,80%	V	V-Very important I –important N-Not important R- Irrelevant 0- No response
73	23,10%	I	
38	12,03%	N	
29	9,18%	R	
6	1,90%	0	

76.9% of the respondents felt that this factor contributed to trainees' failure, 12,03% felt that this factor was not important and 9,18% of the respondents felt that this factor was not relevant to trainees' academic non-performance and 1,90% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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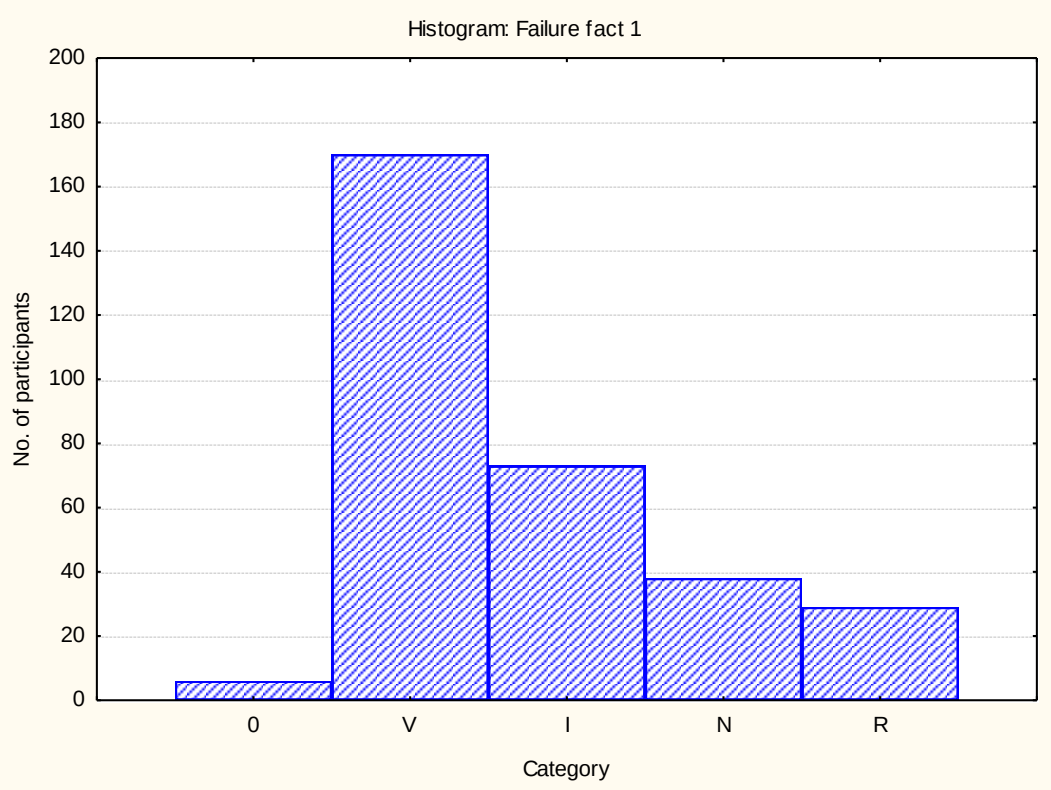

Failure fact 2: Poor exam preparation

N=316	%	Scale	
135	42,72%	V	V-Very important
86	27,22%	I	I –important
56	17,72%	N	N- Not important
34	10,76%	R	R- Irrelevant
5	1,58%	0	0- No response

69,94% of the respondents felt this factor had an important influence in trainees' academic non-performance, 17,72% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 10,76% felt this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic non-performance and 1,58% did not answer the question.

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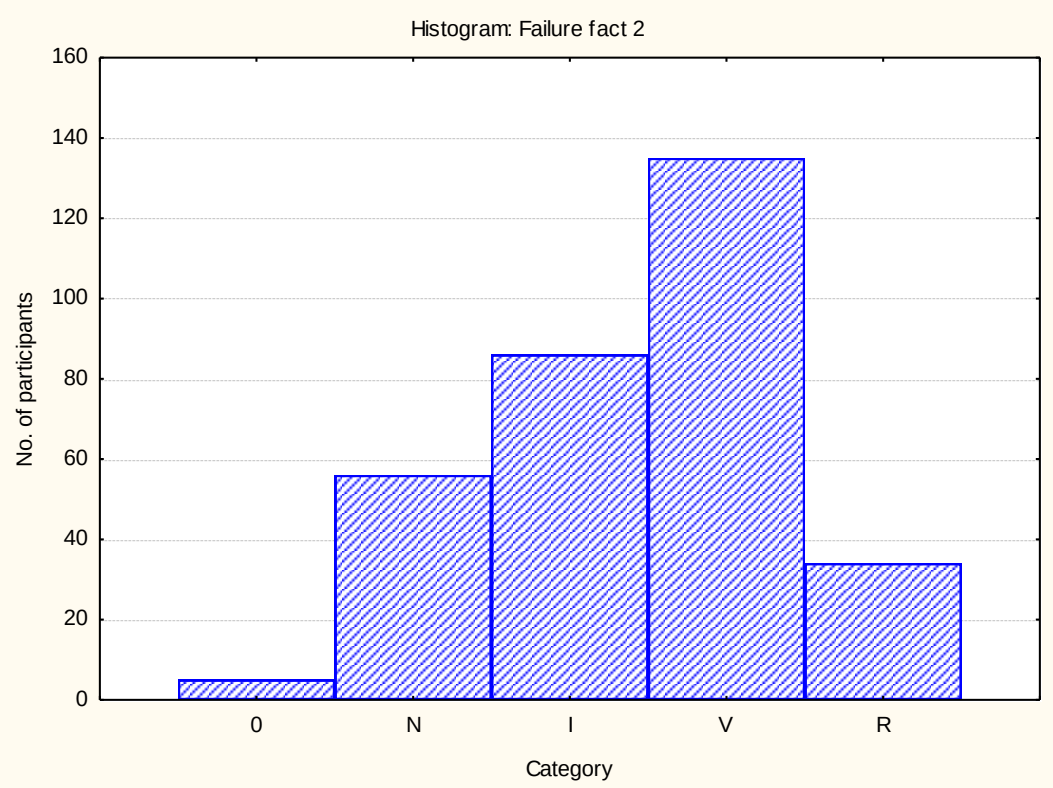

Failure Fact 3: Lack of self-motivation

N=316	%	Scale	
51	50,63%	V	V-Very important
60	18,99%	I	I –important
60	18,99%	N	N- Not important
34	10,76%	R	R- Irrelevant
2	0,63%	0	0- No response

69,62% of the respondents felt that this factor had important influence to trainees' academic non-performance, 18,99% felt that this factor did not have influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 18,99% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 0,63% did not respond to this question.

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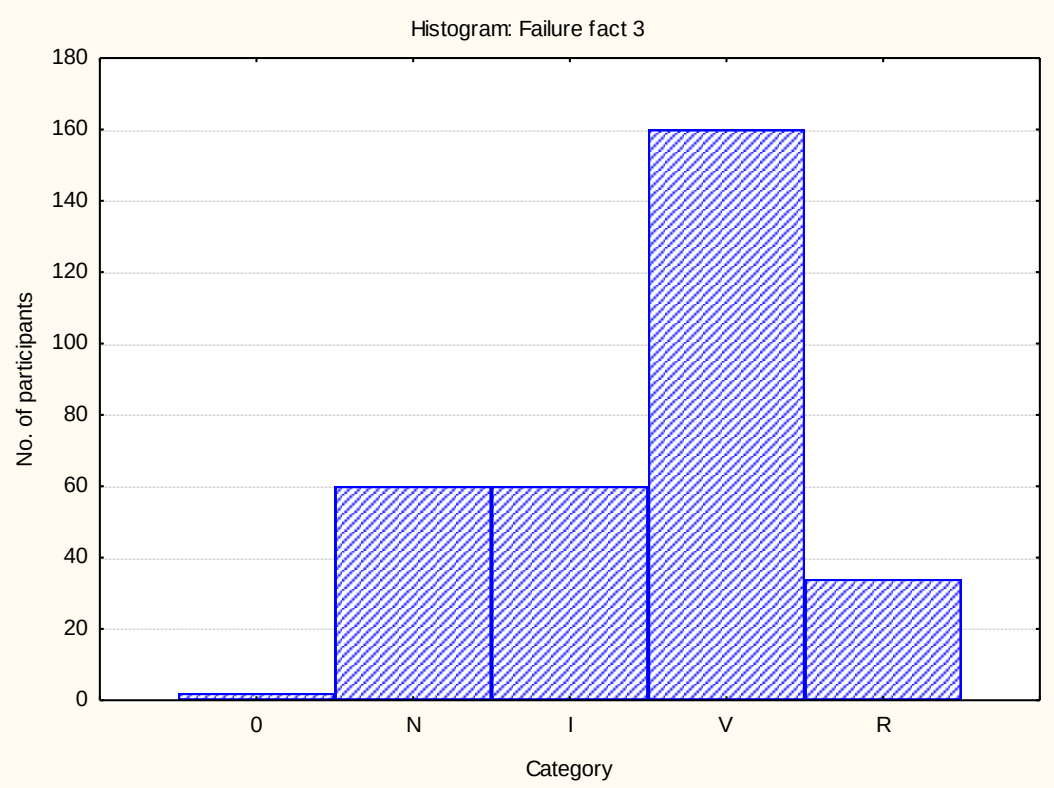

Failure Fact 4: Lack-of self-discipline

N=316	%	Scale	
170	53,80%	V	V-Very important
47	14,87%	I	I –important
57	18,04%	N	N- Not important
40	12,66%	R	R- Irrelevant
2	0,63%	0	0- No response

68,67% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 18,04% felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 12,66% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 0,63% did not respond to this question.

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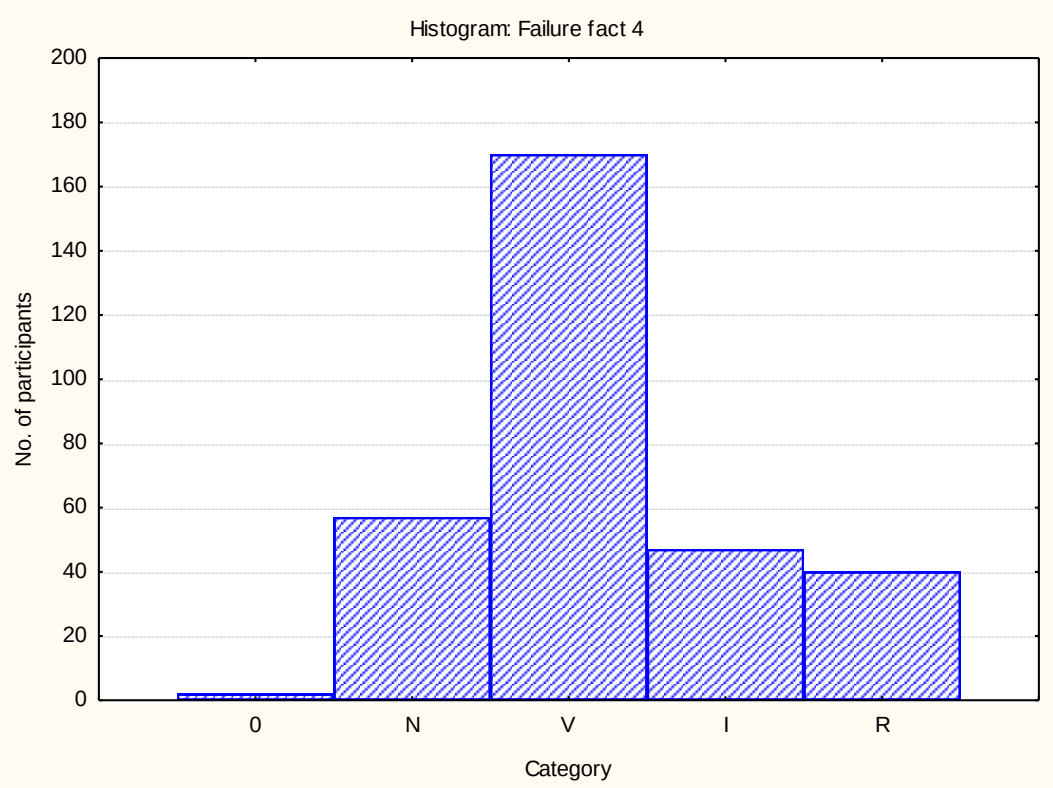

Failure Fact 5: Laziness or apathy

N=316	%	Scale	
131	41,59%	V	V-Very important
66	20,95%	I	I –important
64	20,32%	N	N- Not important
47	14,92%	R	R- Irrelevant
7	2,22%	0	0- No response

62,54% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 20,95% felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 14,92% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 2,22% did not respond to this question.

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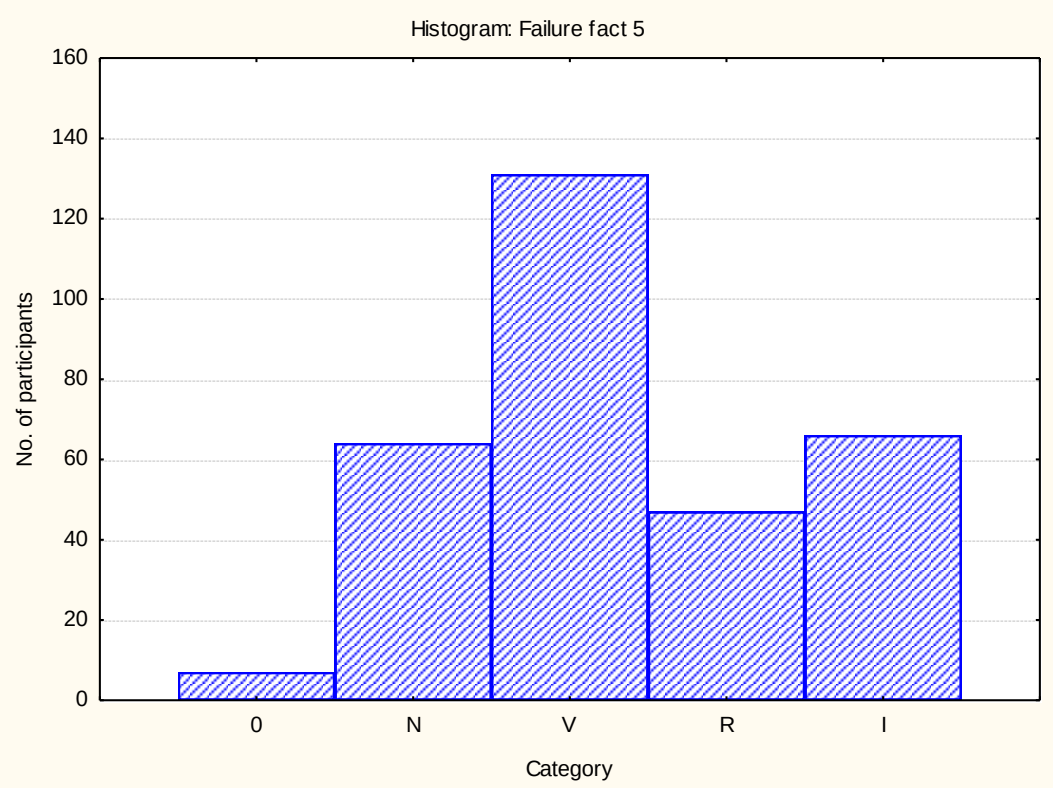

Failure Fact 6: Inability to balance study and social life

N=316	%	Scale	
144	45,57%	V	V-Very important
88	27,85%	I	I –important
47	14,87%	N	N- Not important
33	10,44%	R	R- Irrelevant
4	1,27%	0	0- No response

73,42% of the respondents felt that this factor had important influence to trainees' academic non-performance, 14,87% felt that this factor was not important, 10,44% felt that this factor was not relevant to trainees' academic non-performance and 1,27% did not respond to this question.

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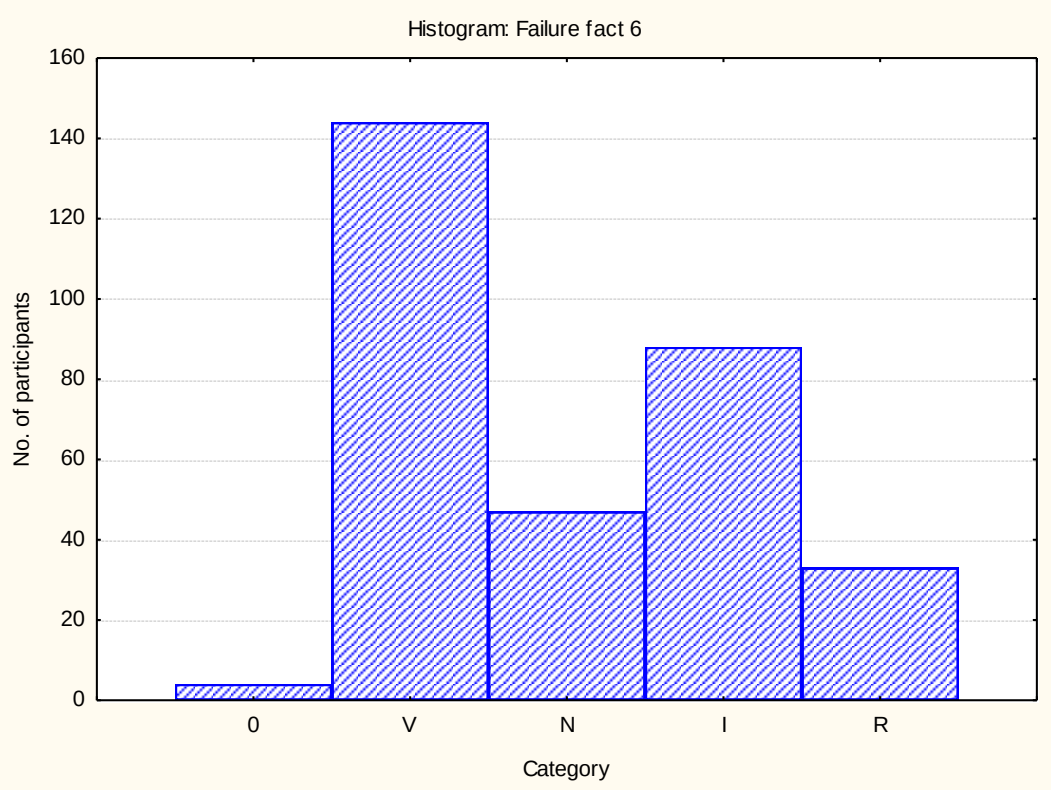

Failure fact 7: Inefficient time management

N=316	%	Scale	
131	41,77%	V	V-Very important
96	30,38%	I	I –important
53	16,77%	N	N- Not important
32	10,13%	R	R- Irrelevant
3	0,95%	0	0- No response

72,15% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 16,77% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 10,13% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic non-performance and 0,95% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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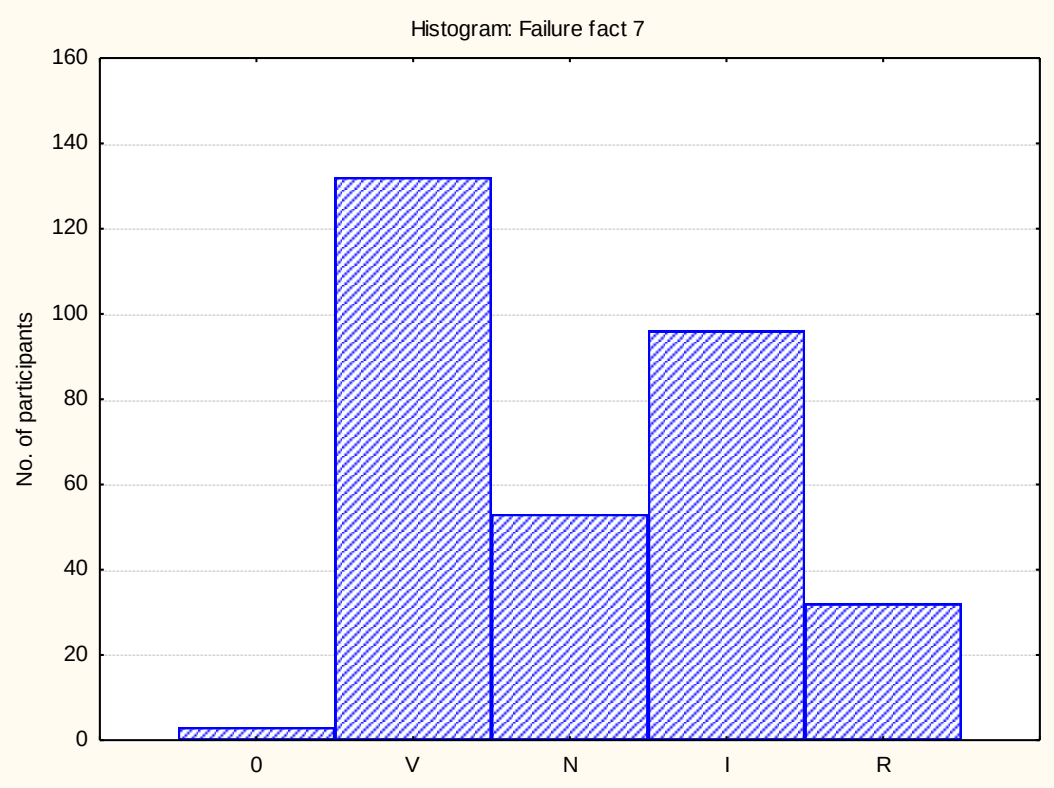

Failure Fact 8: Failure to reach the depth of understanding required at tertiary level

N=316	%	Scale	
99	31,33%	V	V-Very important
109	34,49%	I	I –important
43	13,61%	N	N- Not important
59	18,67%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	1,90%	0	0- No response

65,82% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 13,61% felt that this factor was irrelevant, 18,67% felt that this factor did not have influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 1,90% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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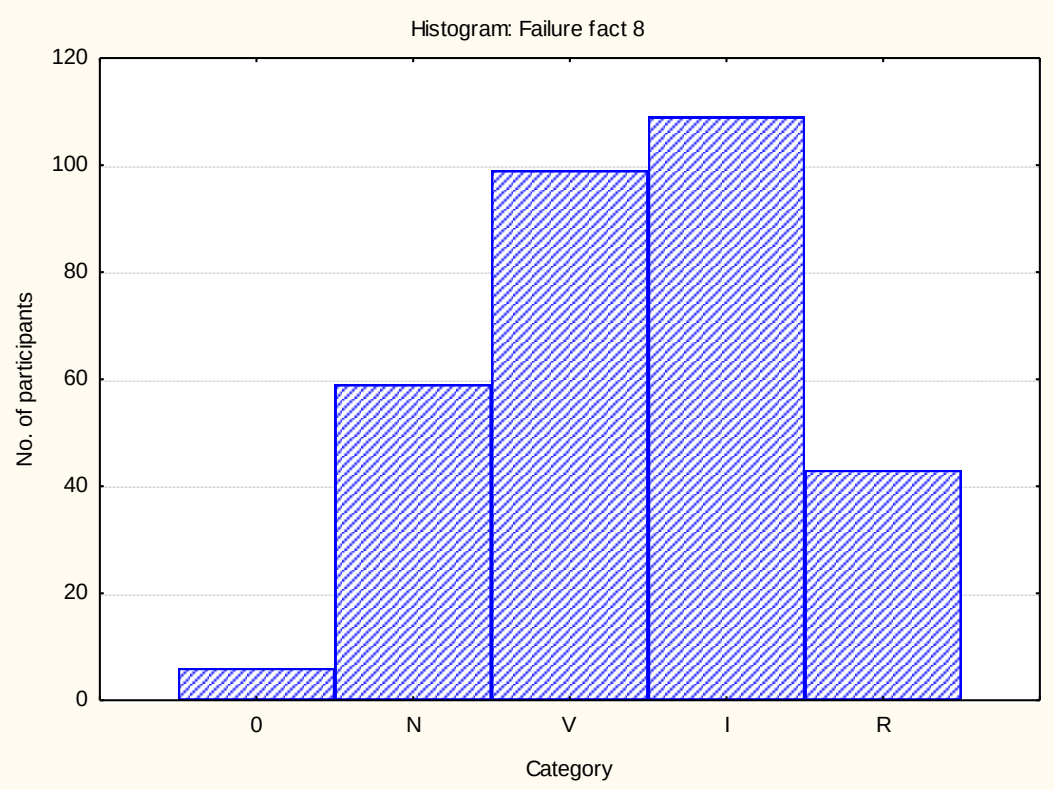

Failure Fact 9: Poor study techniques

N=316	%	Scale	
113	35,76%	V	V-Very important
97	30,70%	I	I –important
66	20,89%	N	N- Not important
37	11,71%	R	R- Irrelevant
3	0,95%	0	0- No response

66,46% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 20,89% felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 11,71% of the respondents felt that it was irrelevant and 0,95% did not respond to this question.

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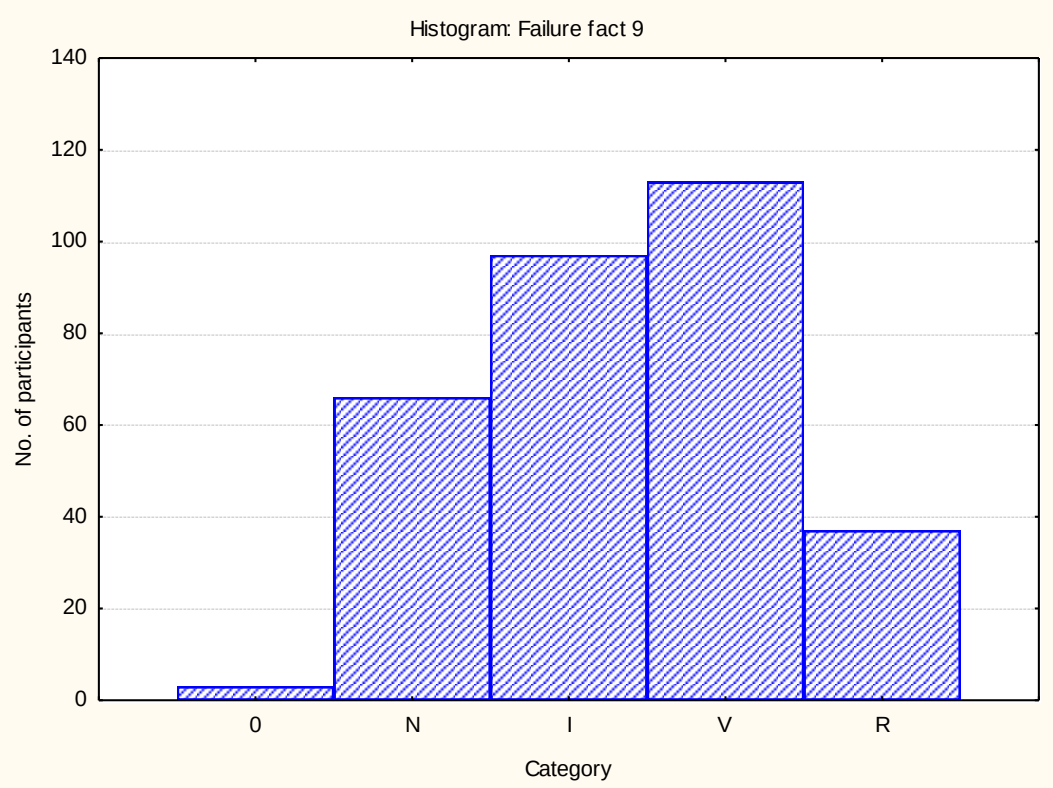

Failure Fact 10: Inability to use high order thinking skills

N=316	%	Scale	
111	35,13%	V	V-Very important
102	32,28%	I	I –important
65	20,57%	N	N- Not important
5	1,58%	R	R- Irrelevant
32	10,13%	0	0- No response

67,41% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 20,57% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 1,58% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 10,13% of the respondents did not answer this question.

p< .05000

Failure Fact 11: Lack of academic ability

N=316	%	Scale	
106	33,54%	V	V-Very important
97	30,70%	I	I –important
70	22,15%	N	N- Not important
40	12,66%	R	R- Irrelevant
3	0,95%	0	0- No response

64,24% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important factor to trainees' academic non-performance, 22,15% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non- performance, 12,66% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 0,95% did not respond to this question.

p<.05000

Failure fact 12: Inability to persevere.

N=316	%	Scale	
109	34,49%	V	V-Very important
105	33,23%	I	I –important
59	18,67%	N	N-Not important
36	11,39%	R	R- Irrelevant
7	2,22%	0	0- No response

67,72% of the respondents felt that this factor had important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 18,67% felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 11,39% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 2,22% did not respond to this question.

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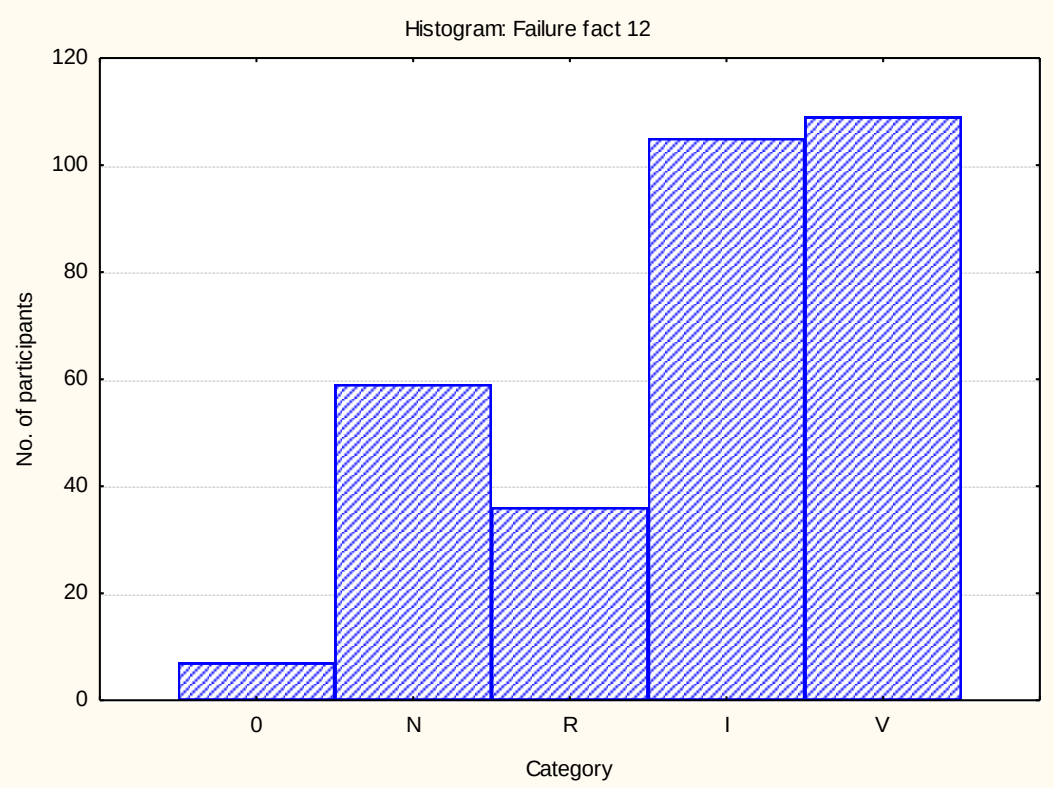

13. Failure Fact 13: Poor literacy skills.

N=316	%	Scale	
108	34,18%	V	V-Very important
100	31,65%	I	I –important
71	22,47%	N	N- Not important
31	9,81%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	1,90%	0	0- No response

65,83 % of the respondents felt that this factor contributed to trainees' academic non-performance, 22,47% felt that this factor is not important in trainees' academic-non performance, 9,81 % felt that factor was irrelevant and 1,90% did not answer the question.

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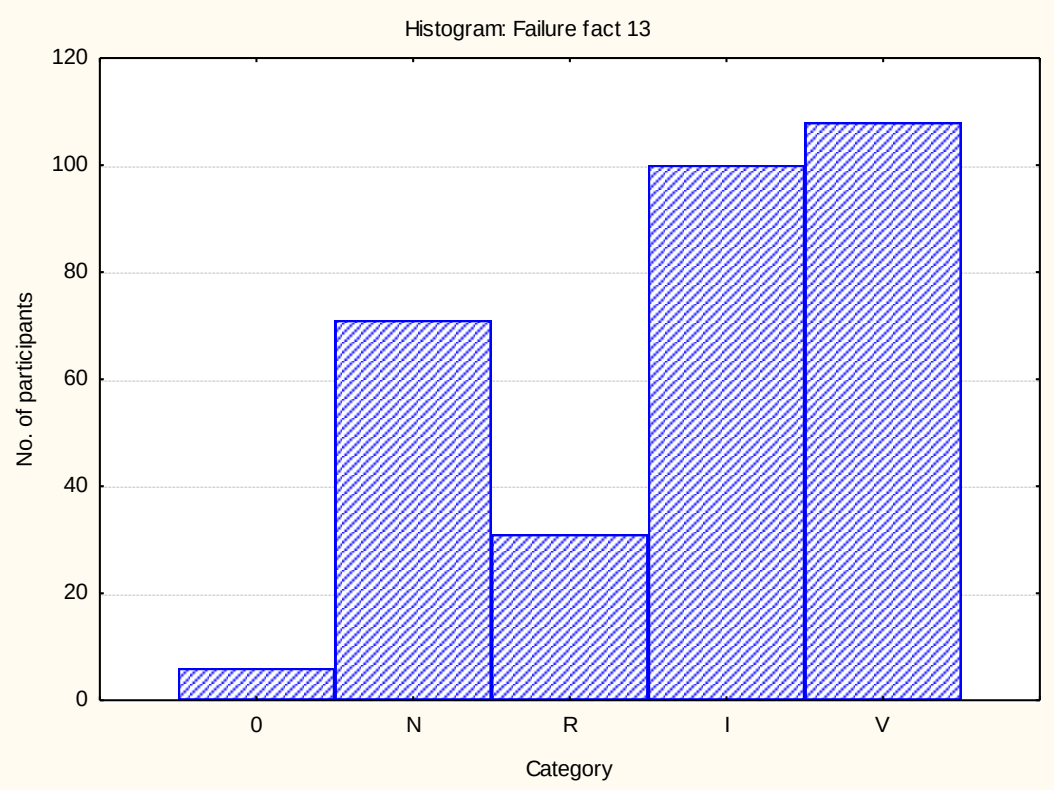

Failure fact 14: Personal or family crisis

N=316	%	Scale	
140	44,30%	V	V-Very important
82	25,95%	I	I –important
65	20,57%	N	N- Not important
27	8,54%	R	R- Irrelevant
2	0,63%	0	0- No response

70,25% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 20,57% felt that this factor is not important in trainees' academic non-performance, 8,54% felt it was irrelevant and 0,63% did not answer the question.

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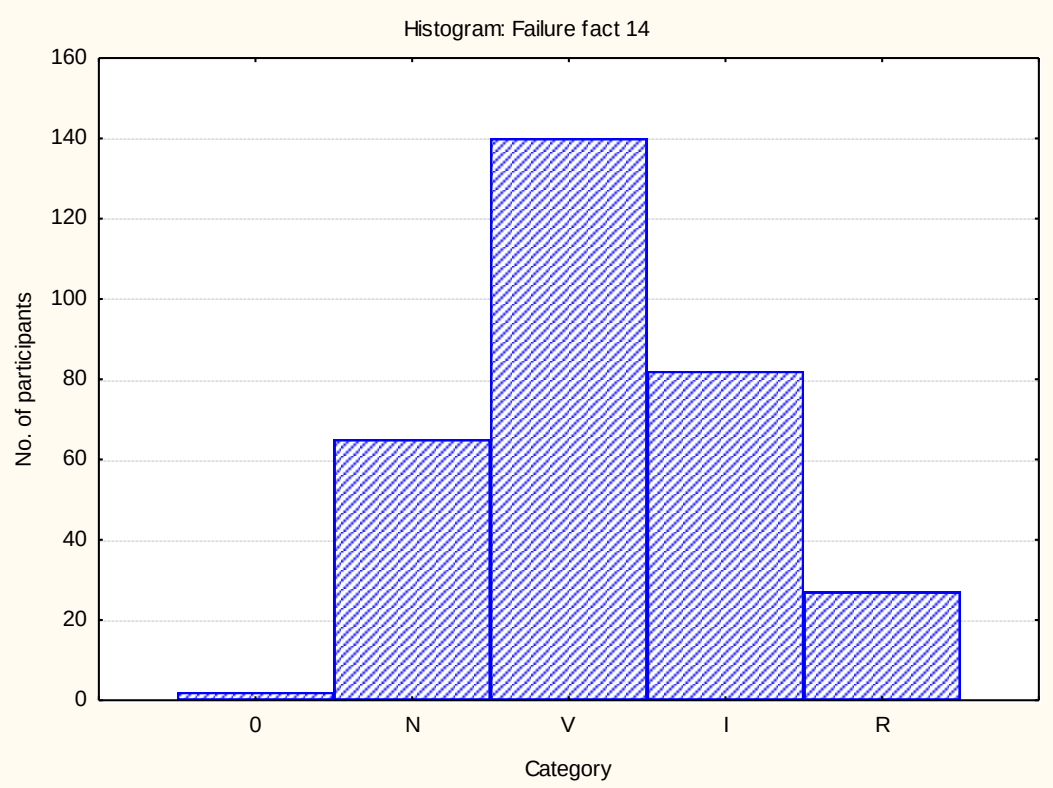

Failure fact 15: Failure to approach instructors.

N=316	%	Scale	
119	37,66 %	V	V-Very important
88	27,85%	I	I –important
64	20,25 %	N	N- Not important
37	11,71 %	R	R- Irrelevant
8	2,53 %	0	0- No response

65,51 % felt that this factor contributed to trainees' academic non-performance, 20,25% felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 11,71% felt it was irrelevant and 2,53% did not answer this question.

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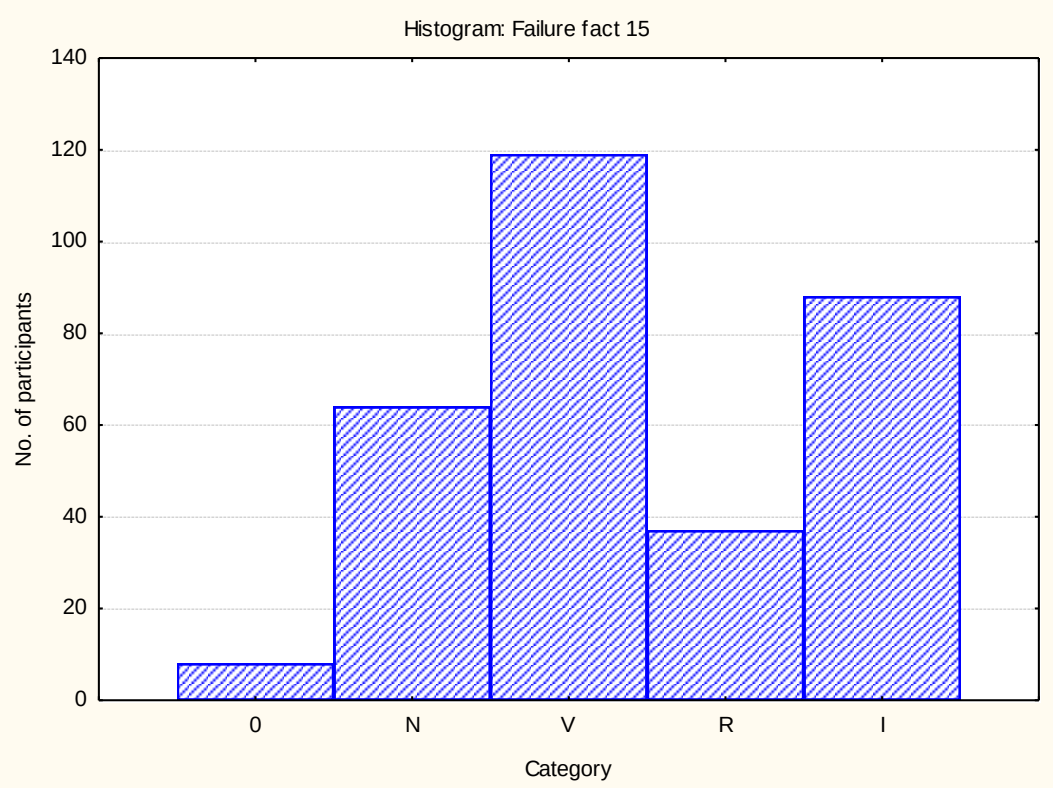

Failure fact 16: Lack of insight into the field of study.

N=316	%	Scale	
109	34,49 %	V	V-Very important
111	35,13 %	I	I –important
58	18,35 %	N	N- Not important
34	10,76 %	R	R- Irrelevant
4	1,27 %	0	0- No response

69,62 % of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 18,35% felt that this factor does not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 10,76% felt that this factor was irrelevant from factors that could hinder trainees' academic non-performance and 1,27% did not respond to this question.

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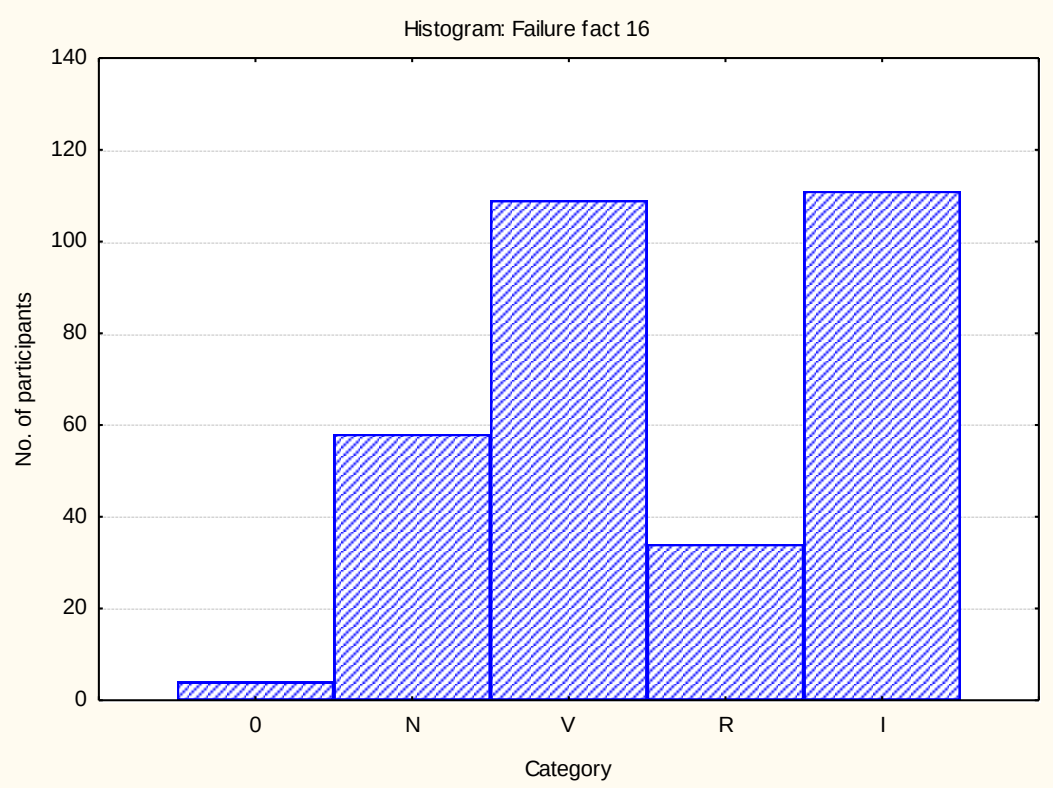

17. Failure fact 17: Assignments without clear standards or uncertainty about instructors' expectations

N=316	%	Scale	
117	37,03%	V	V-Very important
94	29,75%	I	I –important
61	19,30%	N	N- Not important
37	11,71%	R	R- Irrelevant
7	2,22%	0	0- No response

66,78% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 19,30% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 11,71% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 2,22% of the respondents did not answer this question.

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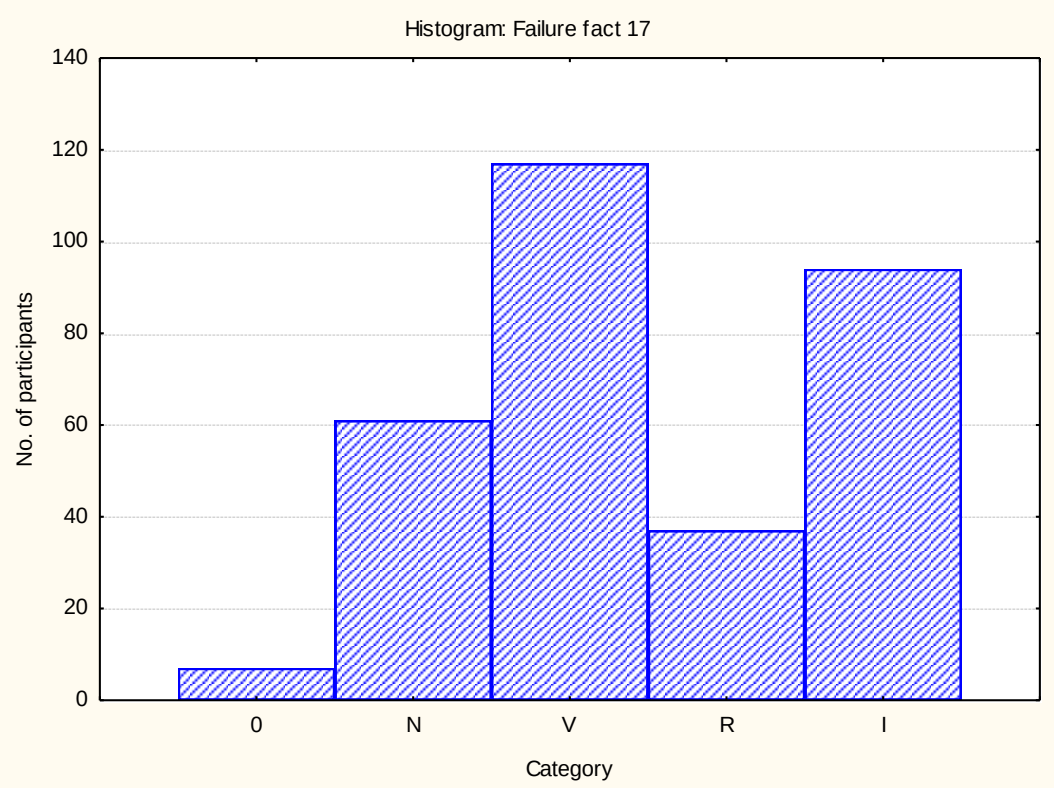

Failure fact 18: Inability to perform well in examination.

N=316	%	Scale	
138	43,67%	V	V-Very important
91	28,80%	I	I –important
50	15,82%	N	N- Not important
33	10,44%	R	R- Irrelevant
4	1,27%	0	0- No response

72,47% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 15,82% felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 10,44% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,27% did not respond to this question.

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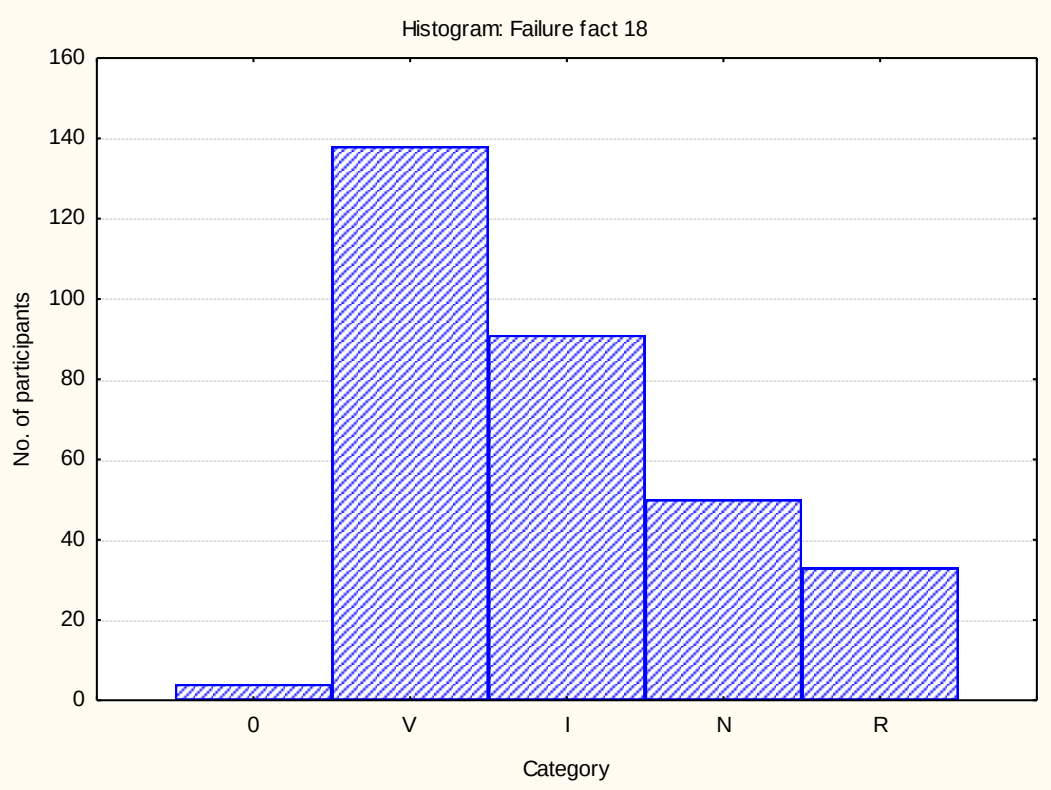

Failure fact 19: Inability to distinguish between important or unimportant information

N=316	%	Scale	
148	46,98%	V	V-Very important
82	26,03%	I	I –important
56	17,78%	N	N- Not important
27	8,57%	R	R- Irrelevant
2	0,63%	0	0- No response

73,01% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 17,78% felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 8,57% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 0,63% did not respond to this question.

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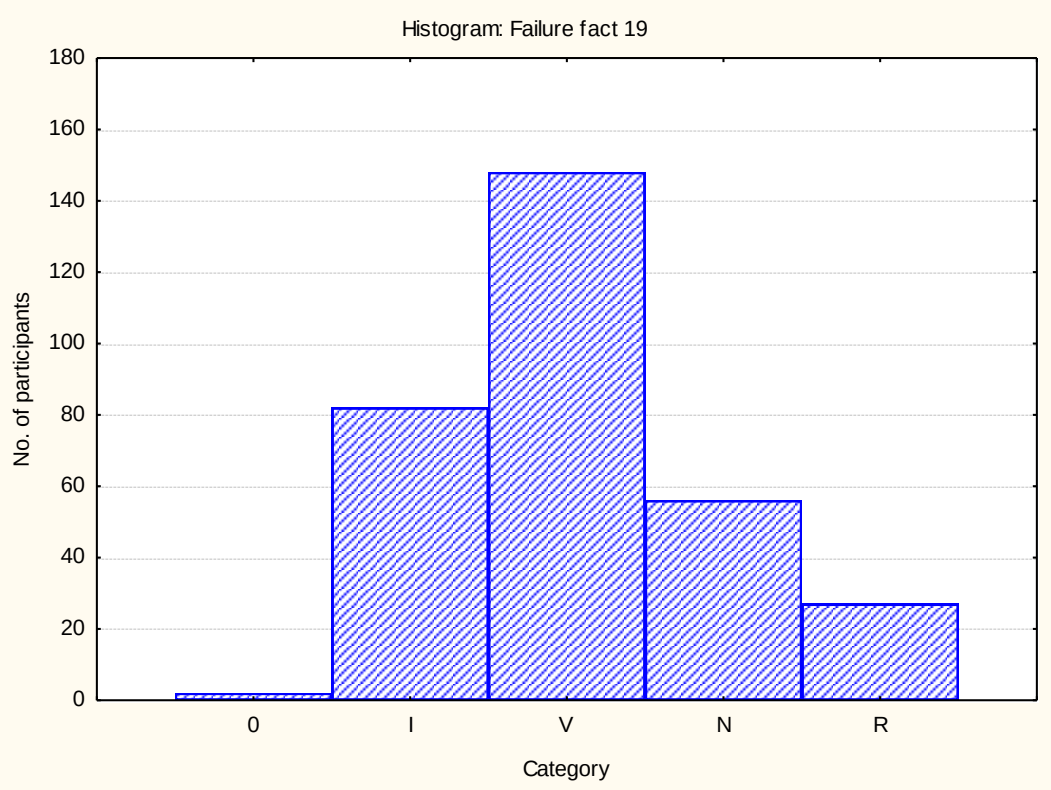

Failure fact 20: Lack of a bridge between theory and practice

N=316	%	Scale	
115	36,39%	V	V-Very important
107	33,86%	I	I –important
60	18,99%	N	N- Not important
30	9,49%	R	R- Irrelevant
4	1,27%	0	0- No response

70,25% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 18,99% felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 9,49% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,27% did not respond to this question.

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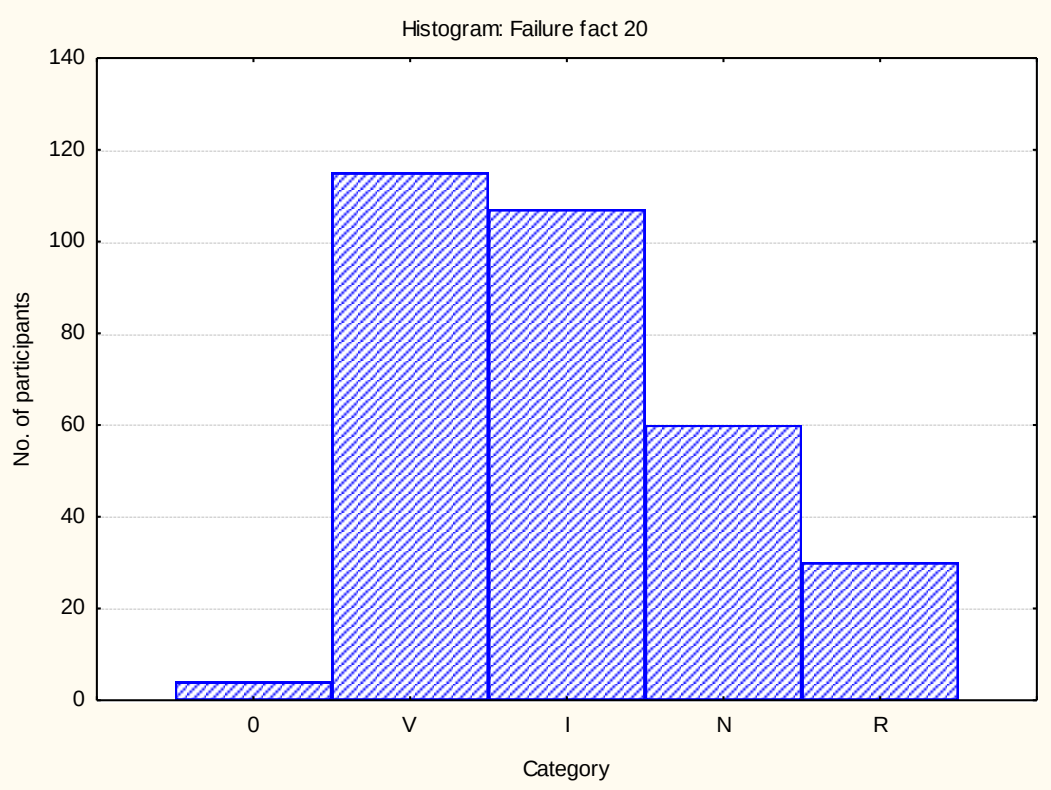

Failure 21: Inability to cope with stress.

N=316	%	Scale	
148	46,84%	V	V-Very important
78	24,68%	I	I –important
52	16,46%	N	N- Not important
32	10,13%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	1,90%	0	0- No response

71,52% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 16,46% of the respondents felt that this factor has got no influence on trainees' academic non-performance,10,13% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,90% did not respond to this question.

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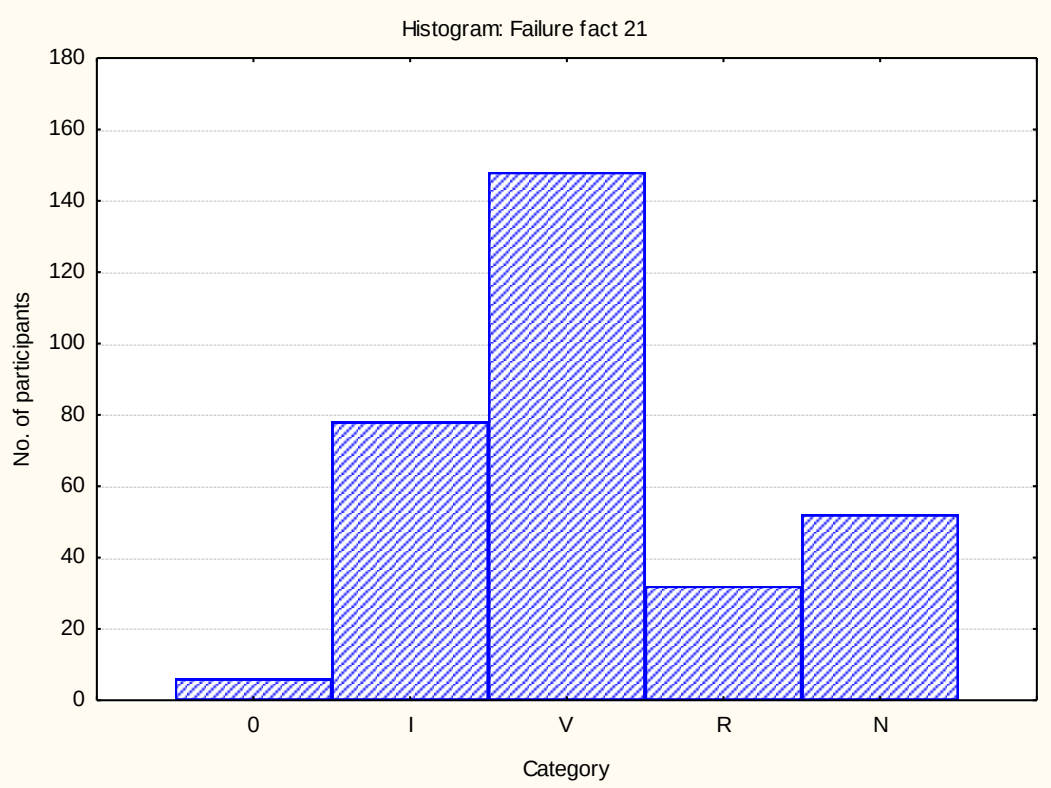
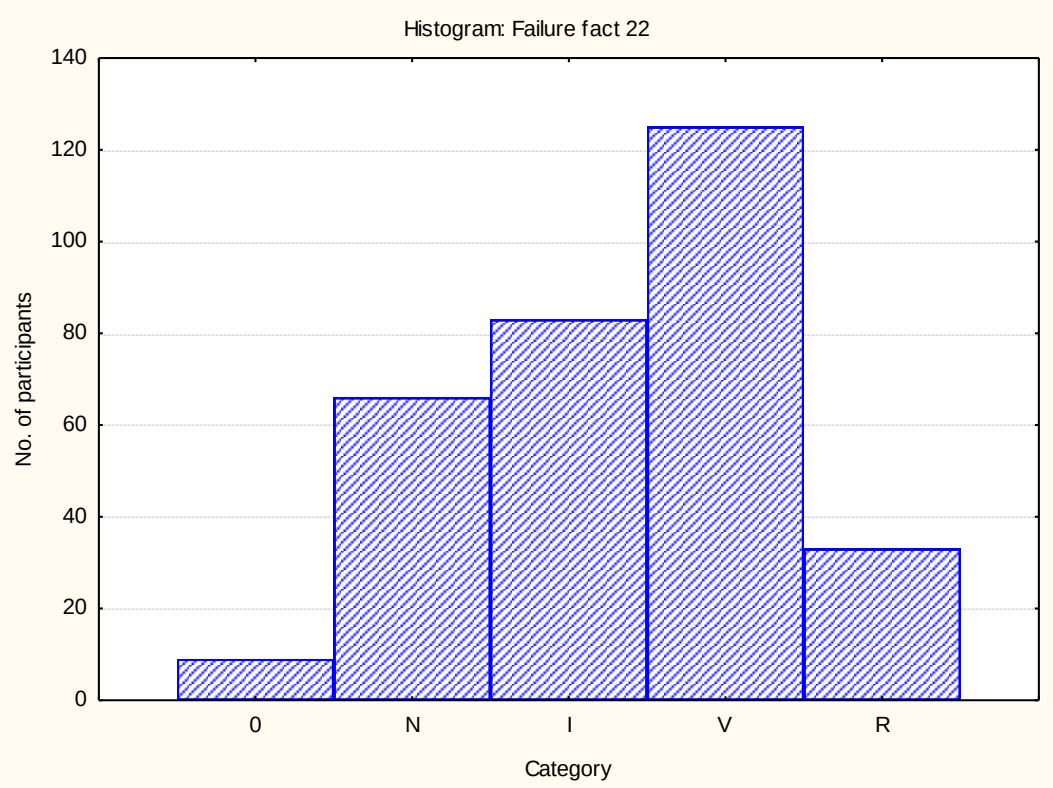


Failure Fact 22: Lack of a clear career goal.

N=316	%	Scale	
125	39,56%	V	V-Very important
83	26,27%	I	I –important
66	20,89%	N	N- Not important
33	10,44%	R	R- Irrelevant
9	2,85%	0	0- No response

65, 83% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic-non-performance. 20, 89% felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance 10, 44% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 2, 85% did not respond to this question.

p< .05000



Failure Fact 23: Inappropriate assessment procedures used by instructors.

N=316	%	Scale	
109	34,49%	V	V-Very important
97	30,70%	I	I –important
72	22,78%	N	N- Not important
34	10,76%	R	R- Irrelevant
4	1,27%	0	0- No response

65,19% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 22,78% felt that this factor has no important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 10,76% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,27% of the respondents did not answer this question.

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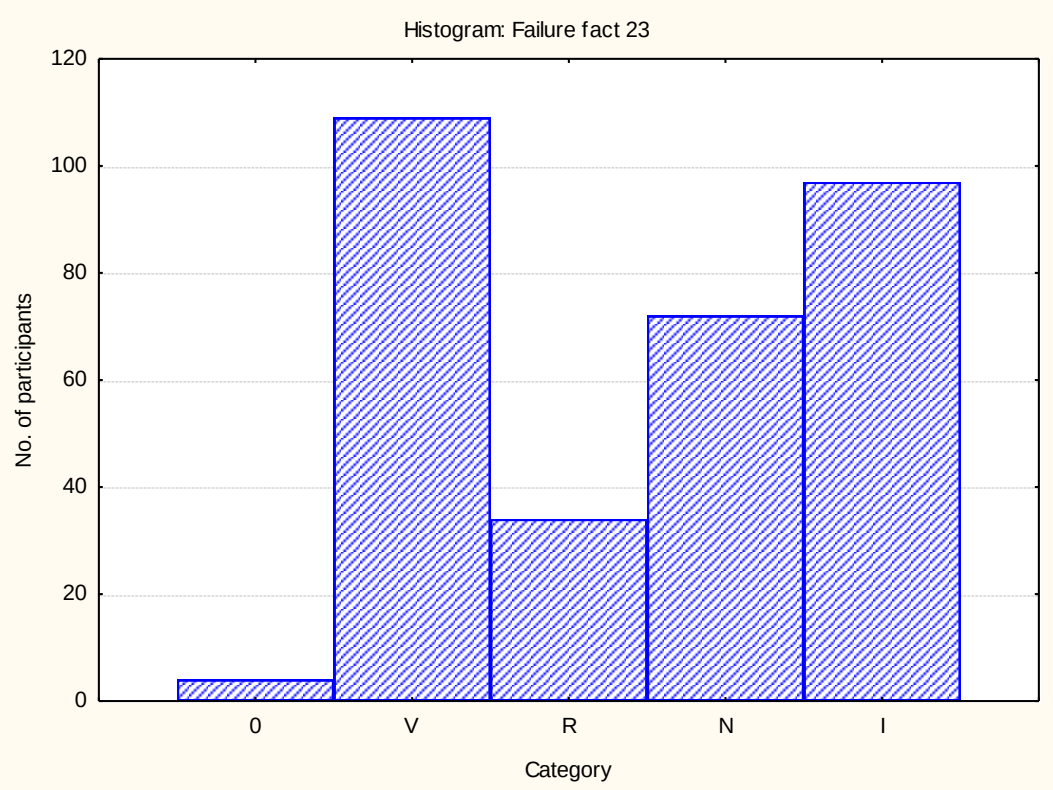

Failure Fact 24: Low self-esteem

N=316	%	Scale	
131	41,59%	V	V-Very important
84	26,67%	I	I –important
66	20,95%	N	N- Not important
28	8,89%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	1,90%	0	0- No response

68,26% of the respondents felt that this factor had important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 20,95% felt that this factor has no important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 8,89% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,90% of the respondents did not answer this question.

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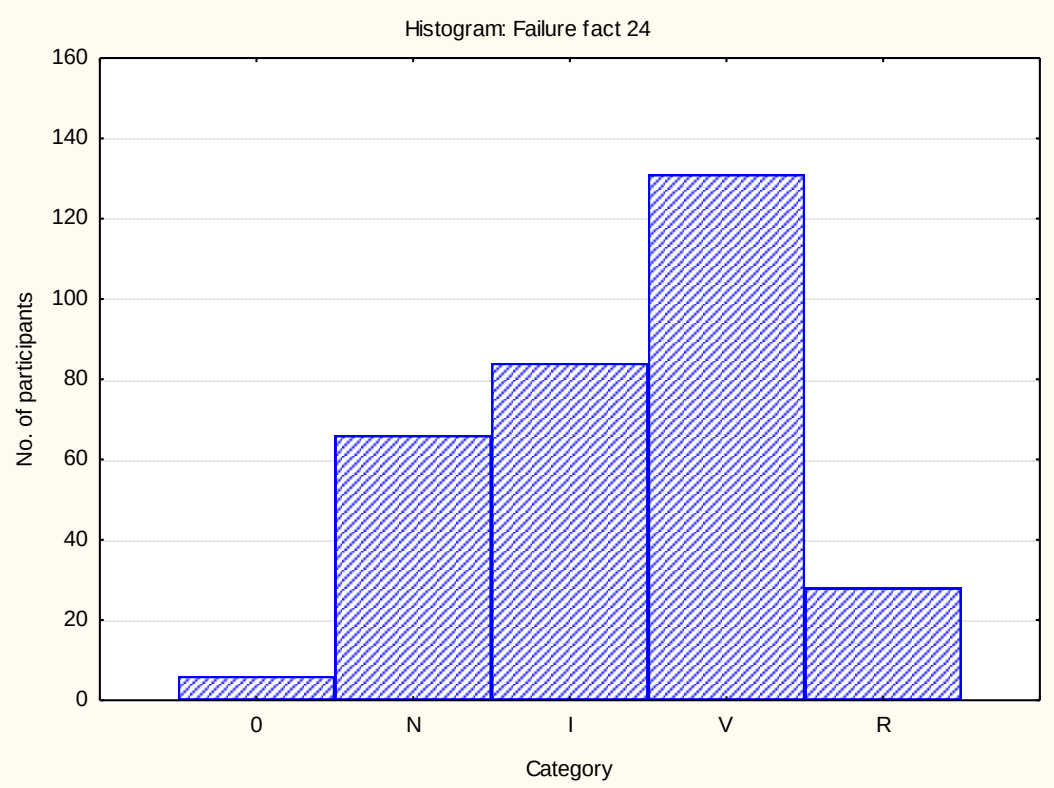

Failure Fact 25: Stress caused by financial problems.

N=316	%	Scale	
112	35,44%	V	V-Very important
71	22,47%	I	I –important
82	25,95%	N	N- Not important
47	14,87%	R	R- Irrelevant
4	1,27%	0	0- No response

57,91% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 25,95% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on non-performance,14,87% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant from trainees' academic non-performance and 1,27% of the respondents did not answer this question.

p< .05000

Failure Fact 26: Heavy workload

N=316	%	Scale	
111	35,35%	V	V-Very important
92	29,30%	I	I –important
74	23,57%	N	N- Not important
29	9,24%	R	R- Irrelevant
8	2,53%	0	0- No response

64,65% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 23,57% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 9,24% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 2,53% of the respondents did not answer this question.

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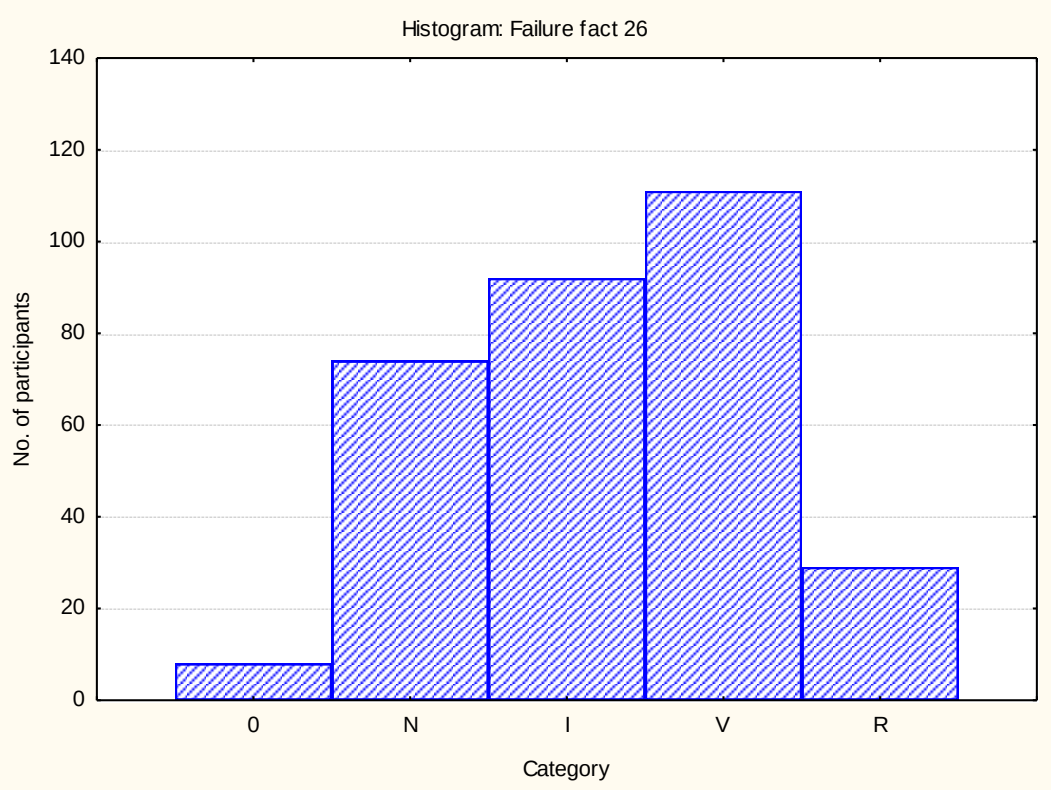

Failure Fact 27: Too many demands on trainees' time (work, study, physical training).

N=316	%	Scale	
131	41,46%	V	V-Very important
77	24,37%	I	I –important
67	21,20%	N	N- Not important
33	10,44%	R	R- Irrelevant
8	2,53%	0	0- No response

65,83% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 21,20% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 10,44% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 2,53% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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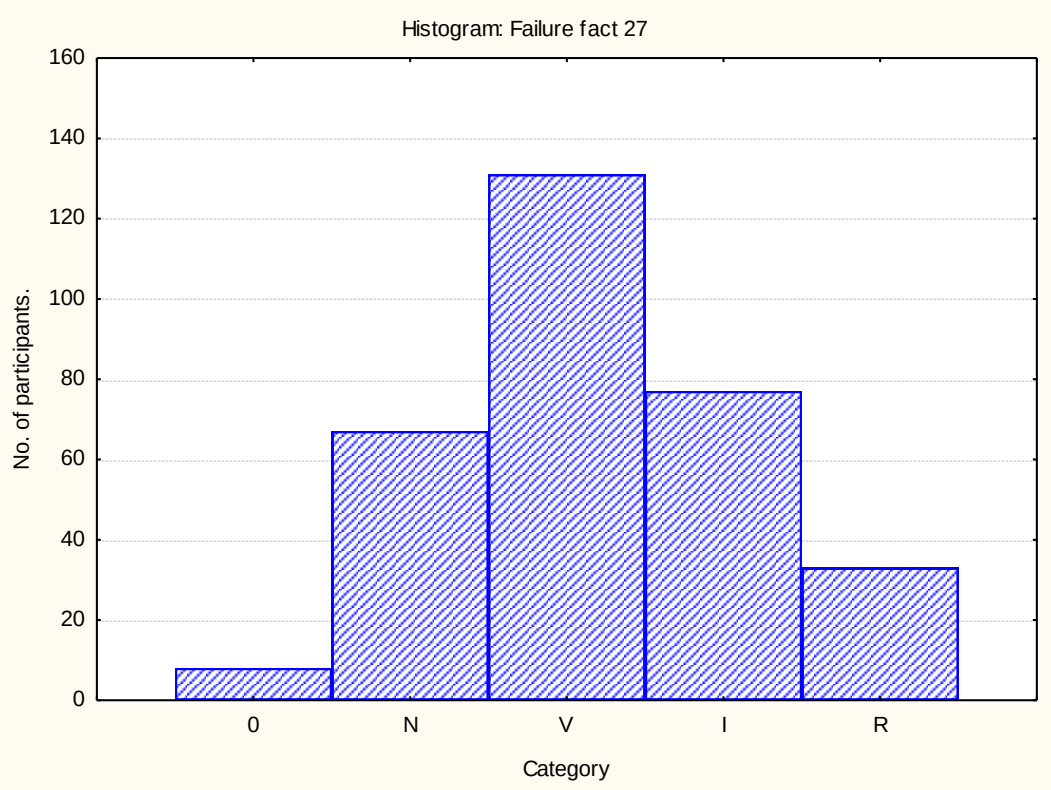

Failure Fact 28: Lack of confidence.

N=316	%	Scale	
138	43,67%	V	V-Very important
79	25,00%	I	I –important
64	20,25%	N	N- Not important
32	10,13%	R	R- Irrelevant
3	0,95%	0	0- No response

68,67 % of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 20,25% felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 10,13% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic non-performance, 0,95% did not respond to this question.

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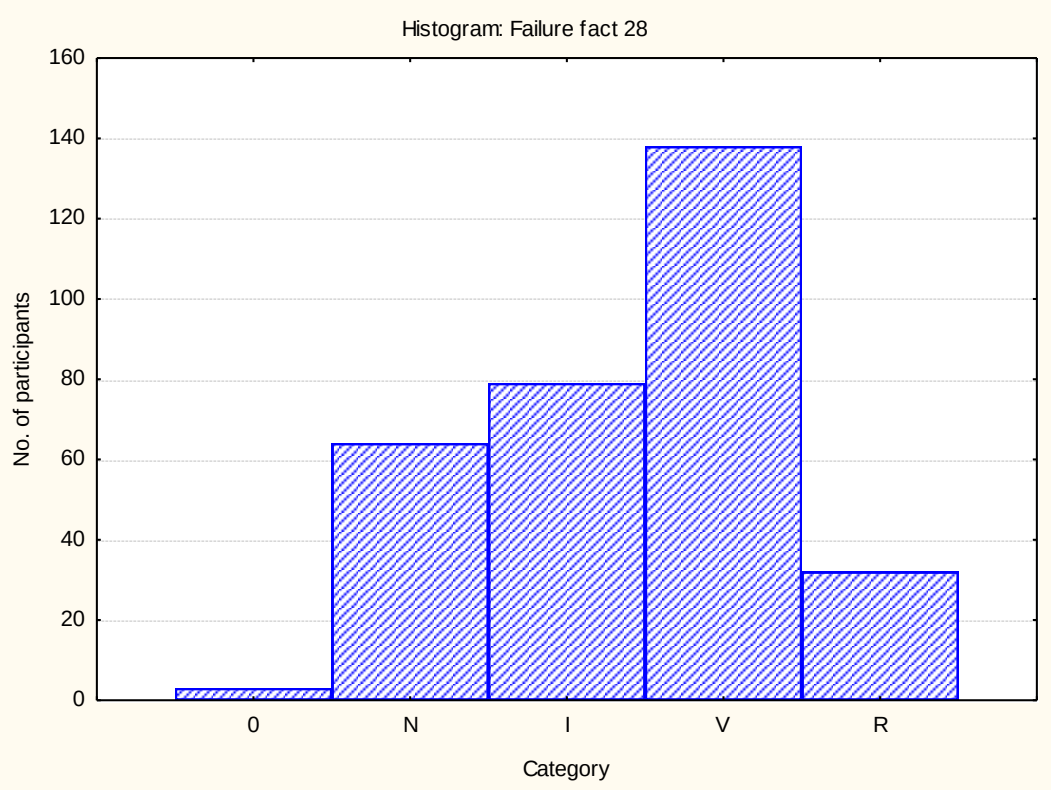

Failure Fact 29: A perceived lack of relevance of course content.

N=316	%	Scale	
107	33,97%	V	V-Very important
108	34,29%	I	I –important
66	20,95%	N	N- Not important
29	9,21%	R	R- Irrelevant
5	1,59%	0	0- No response

68,26% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 20,95% felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 9,21% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic non-performance, 1,59% did not respond to this question.

p< .05000

Failure Fact 30: Inadequate college library facilities.

N=316	%	Scale	
89	28,16%	V	V-Very important
76	24, 05%	I	I –important
88	27,85%	N	N- Not important
46	14,56%	R	R- Irrelevant
17	5,38%	0	0- No response

52,21% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 27,85% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance 14,56% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 5,38% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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Failure Fact 31: Uncertain about relevance of course content.

N=316	%	Scale	
88	27,85%	V	V-Very important
116	36,71%	I	I –important
72	22,78%	N	N- Not important
32	10,13%	R	R- Irrelevant
8	2,53%	0	0- No response

64,56% felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 22,78% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 10,13% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant to trainees' academic non-performance and 2,5% did not respond to this question.

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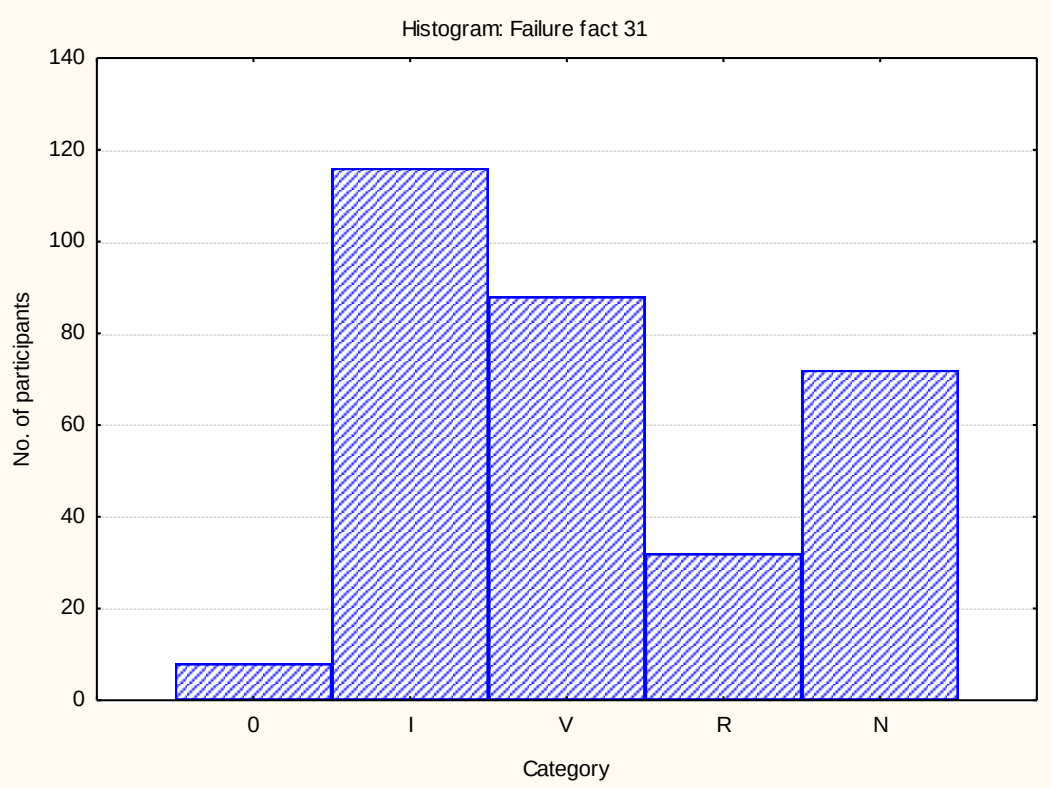

Failure Fact 32: Lack of maturity.

N=316	%	Scale	
98	31,01%	V	V-Very important
95	30,06%	I	I –important
73	23,10%	N	N- Not important
45	14,24%	R	R- Irrelevant
5	1,58%	0	0- No response

61,07% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 23,10% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important factor on trainees' academic non-performance, 14,24% of the respondents felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,58% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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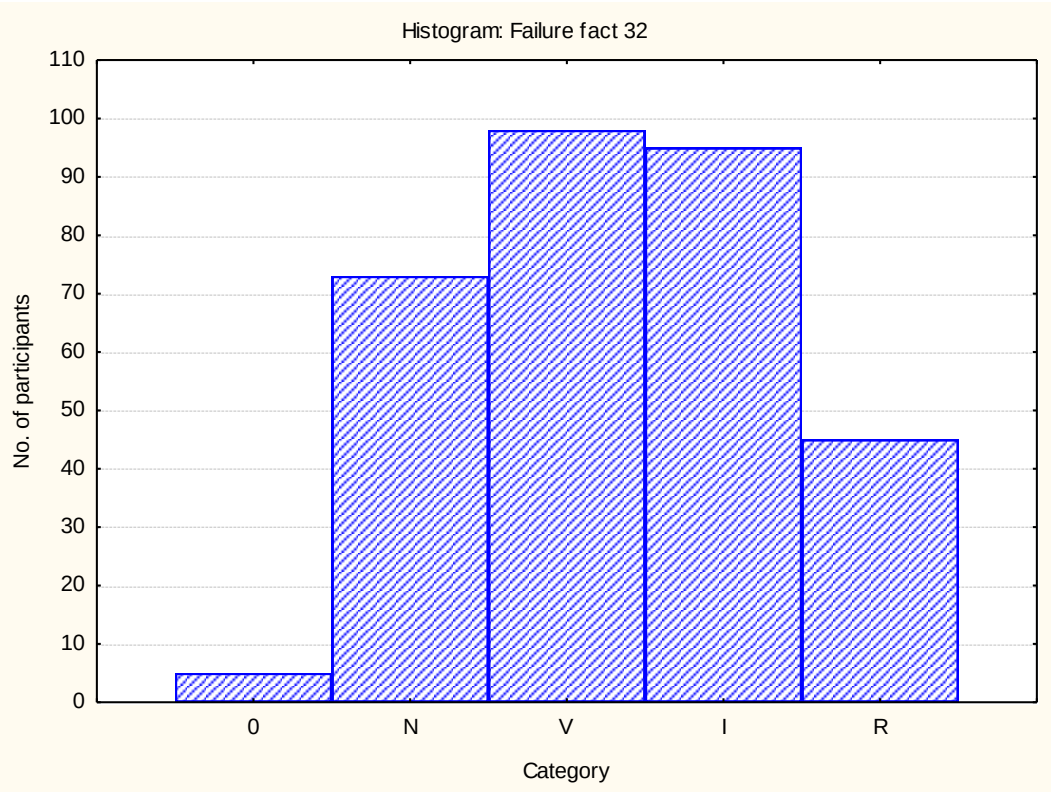

Failure Fact 33: Instructors who does not understand the students needs.

N=316	%	Scale	
125	39,56%	V	V-Very important
73	23,10%	I	I –important
71	22,47%	N	N- Not important
38	12,03%	R	R- Irrelevant
9	2,85%	0	0- No response

62,66% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 22,47% of the respondents felt that this factor did not have important factor on trainees' academic influence, 12,03% felt that this factor was not irrelevant to trainees' academic non-performance and 2,85% did not respond this question.

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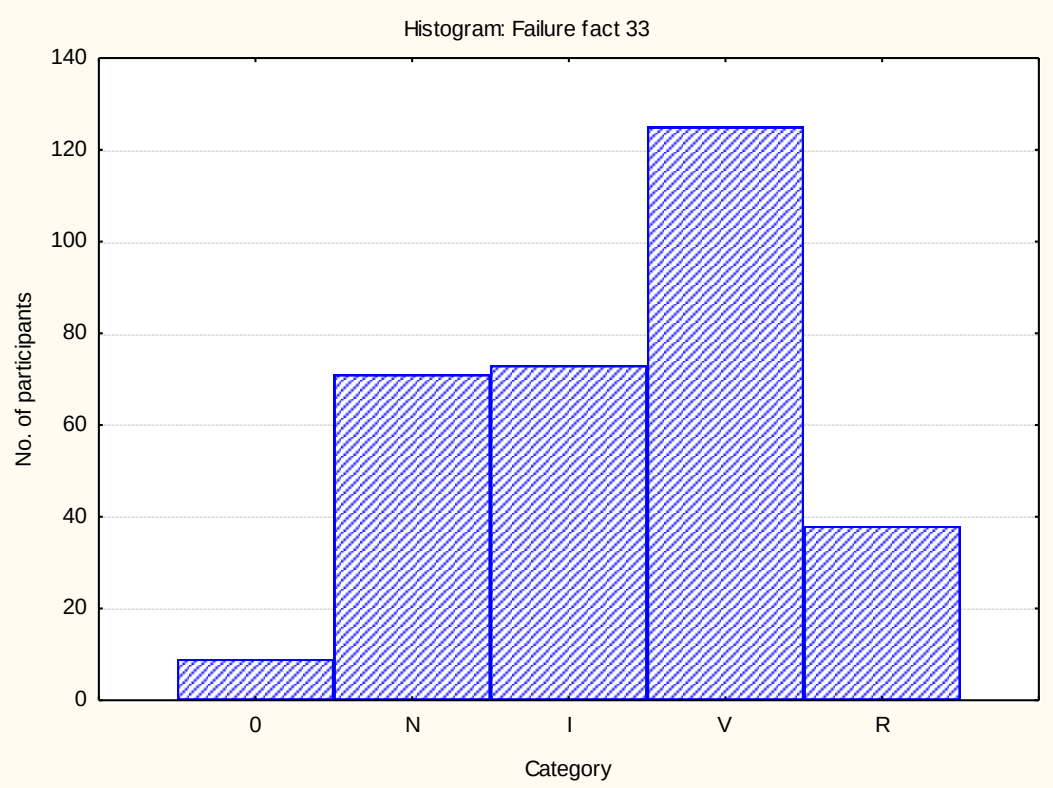

Failure Fact 34: Fear of failure

N=316	%	Score	
121	38,29%	V	V-Very important
83	26,27%	I	I –important
67	21,20%	N	N- Not important
38	12,03%	R	R- Irrelevant
7	2,22%	0	0- No response

64,56% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 21,20% felt that this factor did not have an important factor on trainees' academic non-performance, 12,03% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 2,22% of the respondents did not respond to this question.

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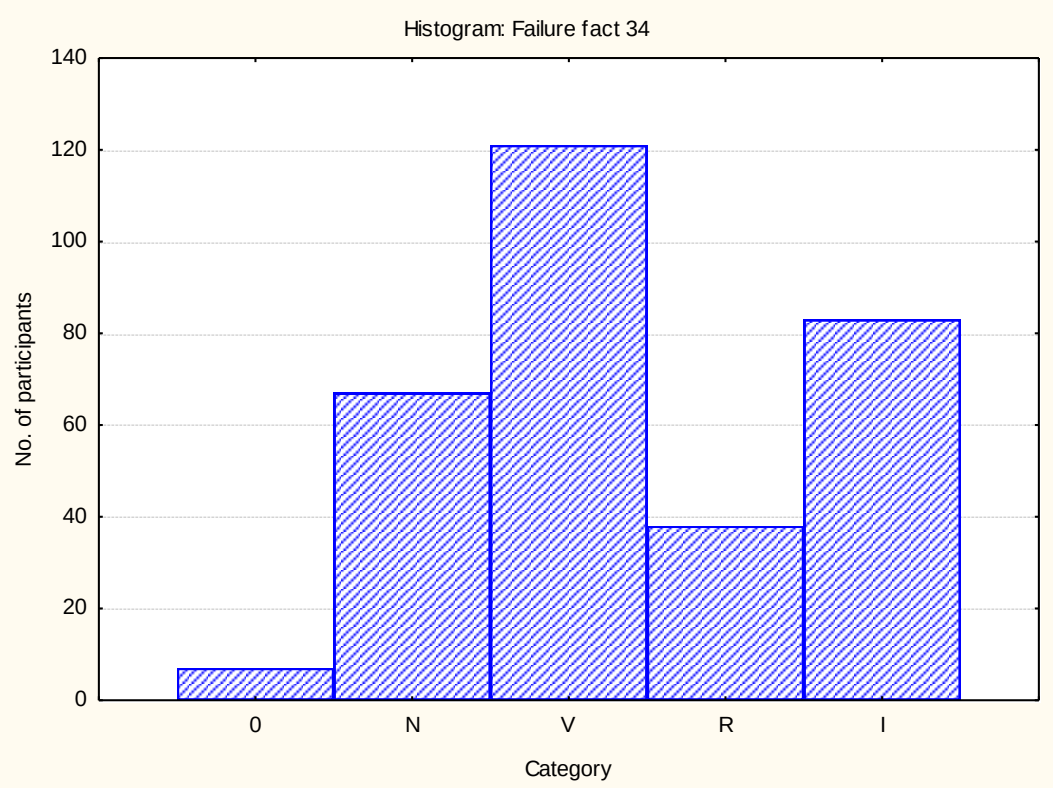

Failure Fact 35: Textbooks available in only one language.

N=316	%	Scale	
90	28,48%	V	V-Very important I –important N- Not important R- Irrelevant 0- No response
65	20,57%	I	
81	25,63%	N	
71	22, 47%	R	
9	2,85%	0	

49,05% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 25,63% felt that this factor did not have an important factor on trainees' academic non-performance, 22,47% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 2,85% of the respondents did not respond this question.

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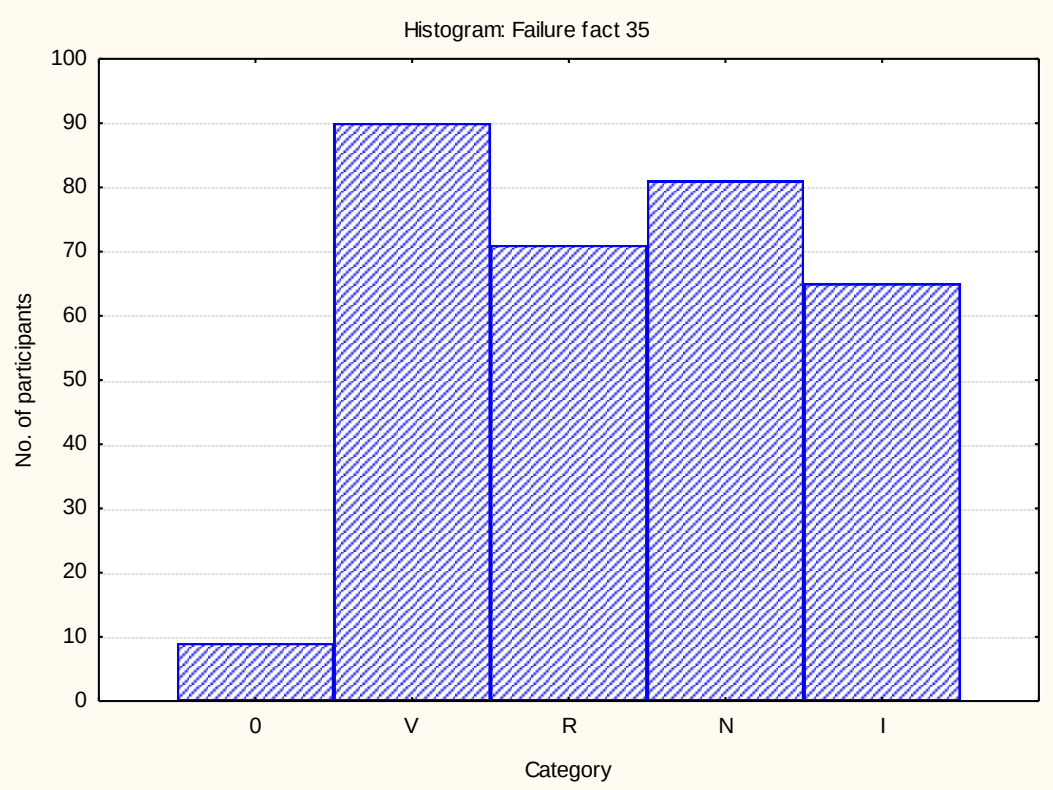

36. Instructors with unrealistically high expectations.

N=316	%	Scale	
111	35,13%	V	V-Very important
81	25,63%	I	I –important
75	23,73%	N	N- Not important
43	13,61%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	1,90%	0	0- No response

60,76 % of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance, 23,73% felt that this factor did not have an important factor on trainees' academic non-performance, 13,61% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,90% of the respondents did not respond this question.

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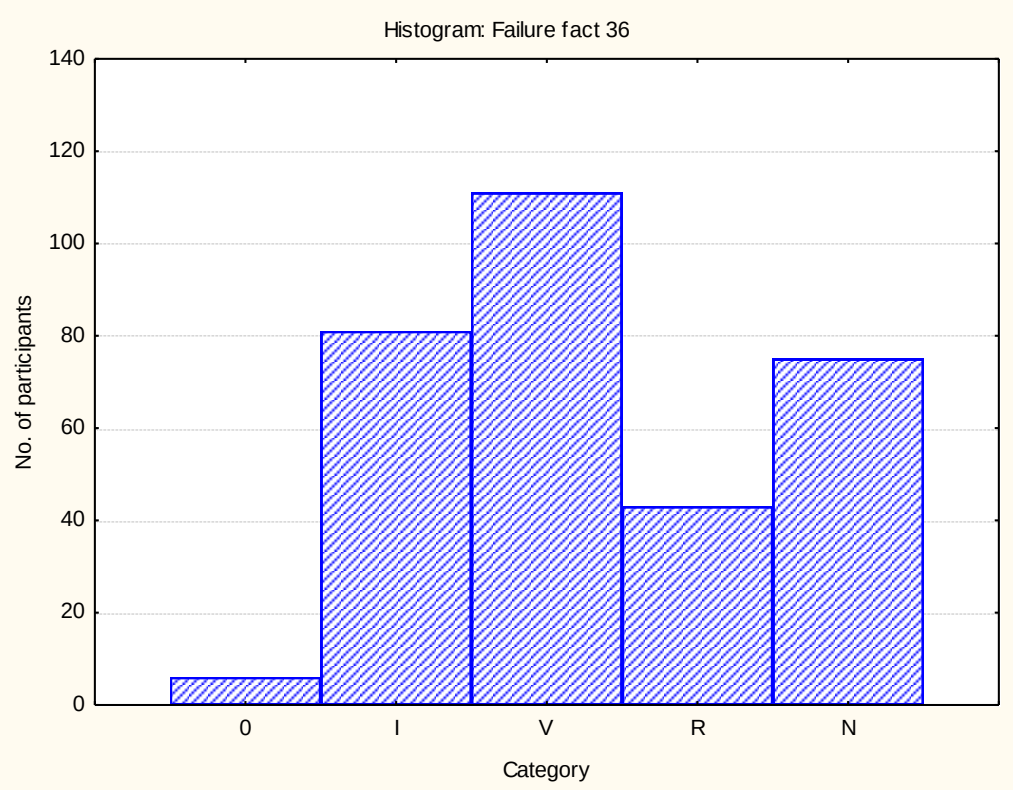

37. Insufficient time to relax.

N=316	%	Scale	
131	41,46%	V	V-Very important
82	25,95%	I	I –important
57	18,04%	N	N- Not important
40	12,66%	R	R- Irrelevant
6	1,90%	0	0- No response

67,41% of the respondents felt that this factor had an important influence on trainees' academic non-performance; 18,04 % felt that this factor did not have an important factor on trainees' academic non-performance; 12,66% felt that this factor was irrelevant and 1,90% of the respondents did not respond this question.

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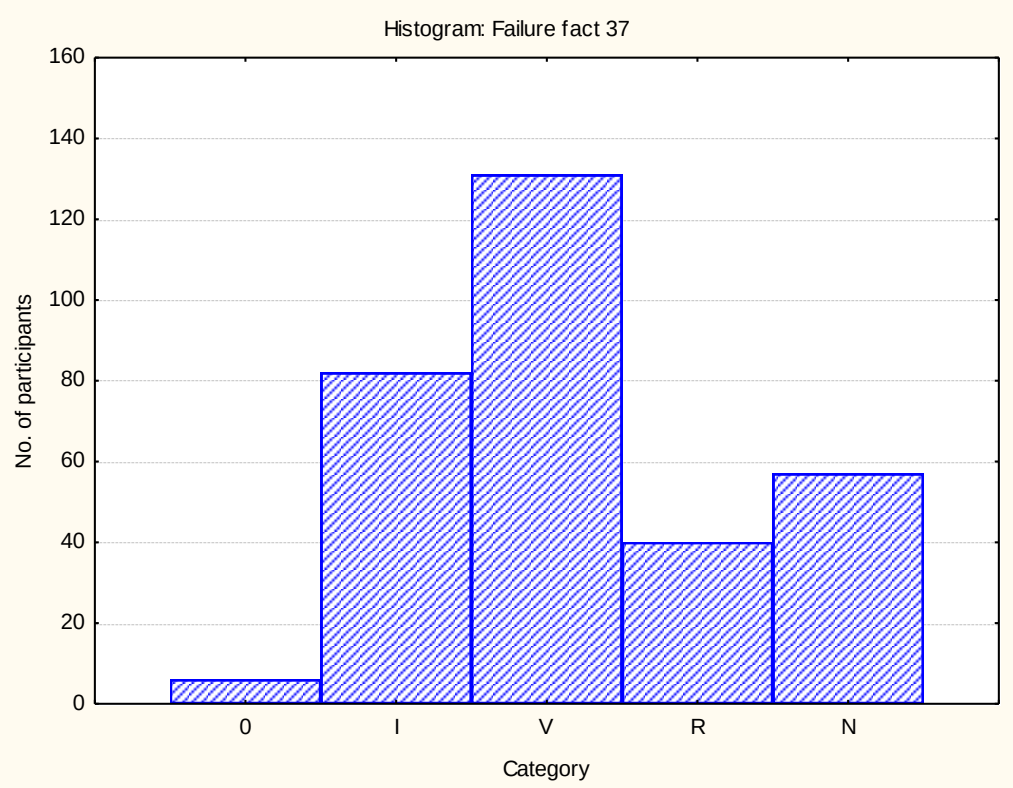

4.8 Significant failure scale

Only 34 factors on the failure scale were found to be significant. The following table indicates the significant factors in their sequence:

Description	**Percentages**
1. Insufficient effort (e.g. study, exam preparation)	76,9 %
2. Inability to balance study and social commitment	73, 42 %
3. Inability to distinguish between important or unimportant information.	73, 01%
4. Inability to perform well in examination.	72,47 %
5. Inefficient time management	72, 15 %
6. Inability to cope with stress	71,52 %
7. Personal or family crisis	70,25 %
8. Lack of a bridge between theory and practice	70,25 %
9. Lack of insight to the field of study	69,62 %
10. Lack of self-motivation	69,62 %
11. Lack of confidence	68,67 %
12. Lack of self-discipline	68,67 %
13. Low self-esteem	68,26 %

14. A perceived lack of relevance of course content	68,26 %
15. Inability to persevere	67, 72 %
16. Inability to use high order thinking skills.	67,41 %
17. Insufficient time to relax	67,41 %
18. Assignments without clear standards or uncertainty about instructors' expectations.	66,78 %
19. Poor study techniques	66,46 %
20. Poor literacy skills	65,83 %
21. Too many demands on students' time (work, study, practical)	65, 83%
22. Lack of a clear career goal	65,83%
23. Failure to reach the depth of understanding required at tertiary level.	65,82 %
24. Failure to approach instructors	65,51 %
25. Inappropriate assessment procedures used by instructors	65,19 %
26. Heavy course work load	64,65 %
27. Uncertain about relevance course content	64,56 %
28. Fear of failure	64,56 %
29. Lack of academic ability	64,24 %
30. Poor examination preparation.	62,94 %
31. Instructors who do not understand the students' needs.	62,66 %
32. Laziness or apathy.	62,54 %
33. Lack of maturity.	61,07 %
34. Instructors with realistically high expectations of students.	60,76 %

In the above table only those factors which were from 60% upwards were regarded as significant. Most of the factors which reflected on both scales which scored below 70% on failure scale scored more than 80% on the success scale.

4.9 FOCUS GROUPS THEMES

As it was stated earlier on that the researcher conducted the focus group interviews ,the responses were as follows:

Group1	Group 2	Group 3
The training is not easy.	The training is not easy	The training is not easy
Trainees woke up as early as 3am and cleaned their bungalows (dormitories)		Trainees woke up as early as 3am and cleaned their bungalows (dormitories)
Trainees had their breakfast at 5am	Trainees had their breakfast at 5 am	

Trainees started with their training after breakfast. They then attended classes, physical training, drill and musketry (shooting course or practical).	Trainees started with their training after breakfast. They then attended classes, physical training, drill and musketry (shooting course or practical).	Trainees started with their training after breakfast. They then attend classes; do physical training, drill and musketry (shooting course/ practical).
There is considerable physical training between academic classes.	There is considerable physical training between academic classes.	There is considerable training between academic classes.
Trainees ran 5km everyday during the week and 10 km on Saturdays.	Trainees ran 5km everyday during the week and 10 km on Saturdays.	Trainees ran 5km everyday during the week and 10 km on Saturdays.
Instructors did not consider weather conditions, trainees had to run exactly those kilometres even if it is raining.	Instructors did not consider weather conditions, trainees had to run exactly those kilometres even if it is raining.	Instructors did not consider weather conditions, trainees had to run exactly those kilometres even if it is raining.
The switch-off time was at 21H00 (sleeping time), so trainees only had six hours to sleep and this was only their relaxing time during the week.	The switch-off time was at 21H00 (sleeping time), so trainees only had six hours to sleep and this was only their relaxing time during the week.	The switch-off time was at 21H00 (sleeping time), so trainees only had six hours to sleep and this was only their relaxing time during the week.
Most of the bungalows were just an open hall with no privacy hence trainees called them a 'hospital ward'.	Most of the bungalows were just an open hall with no privacy hence trainees called them a 'hospital ward'.	Most of the bungalows were just an open hall with no privacy; hence trainees called them a 'hospital ward'.
There were 36 or 37 trainees of the same sex per platoon. They are allocated in the same class and bungalow and they did all the training activities together.		
They were only permitted to go to town once after 3 months, they left college at 9h00 and they all had to be back at 12H00.	They were only permitted to go to town once after 3 months, they left college at 9h00 and they all had to be back at 12H00	They were only permitted to go to town once after 3 months, they left college at 9h00 and they all had to be back at 12H00

From the experiences which were shared by the participants, the following themes were found to be common from all focus groups:

- ***Physical training***

Trainees complained that there was excessive physical training (e.g. drill) between academic classes. They also had to run 5 kilometres every day during the week and 10 kilometres on week-ends, irrespective of weather conditions. This physical training was exhausting. This exhaustion led to lack of concentration and drowsiness in class.

- ***Lack of concentration***

The trainees' complained that they would only sleep for only sleep 6 hours, Fleming (2010) agrees that fatigue from deprivation of sleep can cause inability to concentrate. Donatelle (2005) emphasises that the body parts exercised need at least a day of rest.

- ***Switch off-time***

Trainees complained that the *switch- off time* at 21h00 affected them because some of them preferred to study at night and some in the early hours of the morning. This is the new evidence that was never found in theory.

- ***Privacy***

Trainees complained that there's no privacy in most of the bungalows. Some other trainees need their own space when studying or revising. This is the new evidence which was not found in theory.

- ***Punishment***

Trainees complained a lot about punishment measures which were applied to them. This finding is also supported by Jackson (1991), where he states that continual censure and punishment creates a state of anxiety and makes it dangerous for the learner to try.

- ***Usage of vulgar and derogative statements***

Trainees complained that instructors insulted them and they also threatened them that if they failed they would be expelled from college. According to the trainees, usage of derogative statements is so discouraging and emotional abusive and it destroys someone's self-esteem. Being insulted at creates lack of respect, anger and resentment. Usage of vulgar made trainees to be harsh. One of the trainees pointed out that instructors taught them to treat the public with respect, but they are harsh with them. So this is a big contradiction to them because instructors were not practising what they preached. This treatment would lead them to go out to the public and treat them the same way the instructors treated them at college. This kind of treatment promoted lack of respect and aggression.

Trainees complained that instructors said that the disciplinary measures were there to correct trainees' behaviour; therefore they called punishment the corrective measure. The main concern was how one corrects a bad behaviour by doing or applying another bad or worse behaviour? This kind of correcting behaviour was perceived by the researcher as causing confusion and resentment to trainees. Trainees further stated that this made them to be reluctant to approach the instructors. The researcher believes that this is one of the reasons why trainees stated that they did not know what was wrong or right

- ***Expectations of others***

Trainees complained that they did not understand what instructors expected from them. Fraser & Killen (2005) found that there is a problem if lecturers' expectations are not made explicit.

- ***Interpersonal relationships***

Trainees were not allowed to have intimate relationships at college and also if their partners came to visit them, they were not allowed to touch each other (no hugs and kisses) hence this creates a great conflict between the trainees and their partners. This evidence was not fond in theory.

- ***Access to libraries and internet***

  According to the researcher, trainees used libraries and internet to search for more information regarding their courses. They also used both sources for their assignments and in preparing for examinations.

- ***Insufficient time to relax***

  According to trainees, the lack of sufficient time to relax made them feel sleepy in class and they also could not concentrate due to exhaustion. They, therefore, could not understand all the information which was delivered during the lectures. Several authors such as Donattelle (2005) have recommended that the body need enough rest. Trainees stated that it is frustrating that they do not go to town as often as they want to on week-ends. Every Saturday they clean the College yard and do their washing. This evidence was not found in theory.

4.10 Resumé

Usage of derogative statements, expectations of other as well as insufficient time to relax are some of the hindering factors which were found out. Punishment seemed to be a big problem because it created a non-conducive environment and made trainees to live in fear of the unknown and it also spoilt their self-esteem. Trainees are also separated from the real world. The recommendations on how to change the training environment will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the present study on the basis of data collected, and the literature reviewed. The summary according to the aims and limitations of the study will be discussed and recommendations for future research will be made.

5.2 Summary of results

5.2.1 **Aim 1**: To find out about factors that promotes academic success on new-entry constables.

According to the respondents the following factors contribute to trainees' academic success:

- Students should work independently.
- Study groups should form support groups.
- Accommodation needs to be satisfactory and conducive to a learning atmosphere.
- There needs to be ample time for relaxation.
- There need to be access to the internet.
- There ought to be access to good library facilities.
- There ought to be a stable family and private relationship.

5.2.2 **Aim 2:** To find out about factors that hinder academic success of new-entry constables.

The main significant factors that hinder academic success for new-entry constables at SAPS Training Institutions were found to be as follows:

- It was established that there was failure to approach instructors.
- There was insufficient time for relaxation.

- Trainees were threatened to be expelled from college if they fail their courses.
- Instructors set unrealistically high expectations for trainees.
- Punishment was established and there was usage of derogative statements.
- It was established that some of the trainees had personal or family crisis.
- There was usually insufficient and poor examination preparation.
- The atmosphere lacked balance between study time and social life.
- It was difficult to distinguish between important or unimportant information.
- The atmosphere did not give trainees time to perform to the best of their abilities during examinations.
- There was absence and inefficient time management.
- Trainees failed to cope with stress that the colleges exerted on them.
- Trainees failed to clearly distinguish between theory and practice owing to poor management practised in the training.

5.2.3 Discussion of results

The Basic Training staff should properly orientate the trainees on their arrival at the College. Trainees should be able to work independently and also form study groups. Effective study methods should be applied. The organization should provide trainees with a satisfactory accommodation. At least 4 trainees should be accommodated in one bungalow as compared to 37 trainees in one bungalow. Study groups should also be formed, this is where trainees would be able to assist one another in the difficult areas of learning. Studying in a group might also help those trainees who fail to approach the instructors. The trainees should learn to distinguish the important information in all courses. The instructors should give the trainees ample time for relaxation. This would help to improve the trainees' concentration during the study time instead of them falling asleep whilst studying. Trainees should also teach themselves to use all information resources that are available to prepare for the exams. Trainees with family and relationship problems should utilize Employee Assistant Services personnel which are placed in each Training Institution.

Trainees who seem not to perform well should be encouraged to study hard rather than being threatened to be expelled. Punishment and usage of derogative statements should be banished. Trainees pointed out that punishment inflicts pain and creates anger whereas usage of derogative statements is embarrassing and creates anger as well. Efficient time management is very significant. If time is managed properly, trainees would be able to strike the balance between their study and social time. It is important to design the whole training programme in such a way that it is not going to exert too much pressure on trainees.

5.3 Comparison of the two groups

The results of the two groups were compared with the aim of identifying exclusive significant factors. The researcher found out that both not yet competent and highly competent groups identified the same factors as promoters of academic success as well as hindrances. Therefore there was no exclusivity.

5.4 Limitations of the study

- Only trainees who were referred to as not yet competent and those who were highly competent during the first semester were selected to participate in the study. The average trainees were not selected.
- This study was only based on the results of the first assessment. During the first term trainees were still trying to cope and adapt at the college.
- Only 3 out of 10 South African Police Basic Training Institutions were selected to participate. The training institutions which were selected were amongst those ones which had a high failure rate compared to other institutions.
- One institution withdrew from participating in the study without stating the reason.

5.5 Recommendations

1. ***Proper orientation***

Most of the trainees do not expect to do study courses (theory) at SAPS Training institution. They only expect to do physical training and musketry (shooting) course. It is,

therefore, suggested that all short listed applicants should be alerted over the phone when they are invited for psychometric testing that should they pass psychometric test and physical fitness assessment, they would be sent to college. At college they would attend academic classes, do physical training as well as musketry (shooting classes). This would help the successful candidates to know what to expect at college. Most of the trainees initially do not make a connection about studying theory in policing career. They only realise the need and the importance of it when they start attending classes.

2. ***Punishment***

Punishment should be banished. An injury to one is an injury to all kinds of punishment is not acceptable. It was stated that if one member of the platoon breaks the rules, the whole platoon would be punished. This kind of punishment creates conflict and resentment among the trainees.

3. ***Usage of vulgar language and derogative statements***

Instructors should discontinue using derogative statements and vulgar language. Instead they should use positive criticism. Positive criticism would encourage the trainees to think and act positively and get rid of bad behaviour.

4. ***Qualified teachers should be hired***

South African Police Service organisation should hire qualified teachers to teach trainees the theory and practice. It is just not any police officer who would become an instructor should he or she be placed in that post. Instructors with no teaching background and qualifications should only do physical training with trainees. One should take into cognisance that most of the trainees have a senior matric certificate and only a few of them have post-matric qualifications. If qualified educators are hired, they would be able to also accommodate slow learners and handle them in the right manner of approach.

5. ***Encourage an atmosphere that helps trainees to begin to understand and appreciate the training***

A standardised presentation which would frequently provide facts about various training challenges and those presentations should provide necessary information. This information may not engage the individual on a personal level. What needs to be created

is an atmosphere conducive to discussions and questions about policing, training and training environment to help trainees to become more aware of what the policing career entails. Trainees would also be aware of the challenges of the training and the policing career. This would help them to start checking the adjustment areas and to explore the adjustment procedures. A presentation format that facilitates discussions that would than imply there are no wrong or right answers. This would help engage participants individually and also improve their English language communication skills.

6. Instructor and trainee behaviour during orientation

The orientation leaders should first establish rapport with the trainees. They should spend the majority of orientation time answering trainees' questions. They should also ask trainees' training and career related questions. In addition to this they would also devote more time to open discussions regarding police career and the organisation as such. They need to engage trainees in group role-play and evaluate trainees or group performance. Trainees should also lead group discussions and facilitate role-plays. This would help the trainees to be able to identify some areas of adjustments. All the trainees would take full participation during orientation. They should also ask many constructive clarity seeking questions as they can.

7. The intervention by Educational and Counselling or Clinical psychologist

The Educational psychologist would help the trainees who feel that they have significant problems related to studying (coping skills). The Counselling or Clinical psychologist would help the trainees to resolve their past unresolved issues, to adjust to the environment. It is, therefore, advisable for SAPS management to deploy at least one Educational psychologist as well as one Counselling psychologist or Clinical psychologist per College.

8. Preparing for examination

Trainees need to put more effort on studying and preparing for examination. They would also form study groups, which, should also direct trainees to other sources of information (e.g. previous exam papers). Encouragement of clarity seeking questions in class would be of great assistance to the morale of trainees.

9. ***Reinforcement***

All trainees who obtained 70% and above in two or more courses should be awarded certificates after every assessment. Any form of reward encourages the recipient to put more effort on his or her performance. If non-reward occurs after a prolonged period of reward, one would ordinarily experiences primary frustration.

10. ***English Classes***

English language should be included in the all academic courses. This would help the trainees to be fluent in this language since it is the medium of instruction. Police officials write statements in English and they also testify in court in English and also their clients are from diverse racial groups. In other words English is the official language in the work place.

11. ***Lack of concentration***

According to the findings, this is caused by more than enough physical training, which is done between academic classes. The lack of rest was also found to be another contributing factor which causes lack of concentration. It is, therefore, suggested that trainees do a 5km run in the morning. Drill and other physical training activities should be done after academic classes. On week-ends they need not do any physical training.

12. ***Switch off time***

The management should do away with the switch off time because some trainees' prefer to study at night and others in the early ours of the morning. Turning off the lights at 10H00 pm seemed to affect other trainees.

13. Based on these findings, self-empowerment programme had been developed by Employee Health and Wellness team which consist of chapters on effective study skills, time management, motivation, locus of control etcetera.

5.6 Conclusion

The importance of knowing factors that contribute to trainees' success and failure at SAPS Basic Training Institutions is of vital importance. If the management of the

Training Division could look at the recommendations of the current study and implement them, they are likely to see the difference in trainees' academic performance. The management of the division should also take a closer look at the disciplinary measures which are applied at these institutions. If trainees realise the importance of using resource centre, studying as a group as well as being able to work independently, would likely to lead to success at SAPS Basic Training Institutions.

In closing, there is so much to be gained from further recommended research based on the academic qualifications of the instructors.

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ANNEXTURE A

Dear participant. University of Zululand Department of Psychology is conducting research on **"Factors that promote or hinder success on new-entry constables during their first six months of basic training within South African Police Service."** The main aim of the study is to find out factors that promote or hinder success of new-entry constables in their first six months of basic training within SAPS in order to assist trainees. You are requested to volunteer to participate in this study. Please note that you may at any point withdraw from participating in this study. All information will be treated with strictest confidentiality. Please do not fill in your name as the information will be analysed and interpreted anonymously. Only the analysed findings (which cannot be traced back to you) will be available to South African Police Service Management.

ANNEXTURE B

CONSENT FORM

I, surname & initials……..id number……

Persal number…….hereby take note of the following:

1. I am fully aware why I am being evaluated.
2. I will complete the questionnaire honestly and to the best of my ability.
3. It is my responsibility to ask the person administering the evaluation questionnaires if I encounter any difficulties with answering the questions.
4. I am aware that the person administering the evaluation is compelled t

treat my information confidentially and ethically.

SIGNATURE:…….

PLACE:……

DATE:……..

ANNEXTURE A

Dear Participant. The University Of Zululand Department Of Psychology is conducting research on **"Factors that promote or hinder success on new-entry constables during their first six months within the South African Police Service."** The main aim of the study is to find out factors that promote or hinder success of new-entry constables in their first six months of basic training within SAPS. You are requested to volunteer to participate in this study. Please note that you may at any point withdraw from participating in this study. All information will be treated with strictest confidentiality. Please do not fill in your name as the information will be analysed and interpreted anonymously. Only the analysed findings (which cannot be traced back to you) will be available to South African Police Service Management.

PART A: Biographical information

PART A: Biographical information Instruction: Put X in an appropriate column.

1. Age

Younger than 25 years	
25 to 29 years	
30 years and older	

2. Marital status

Single	
Married	
Separated	
Widowed	
Divorced	

3. Language

Afrikaans	
English	
Sotho	
Tswana	
Tsonga	
Venda	
Zulu	
Other	

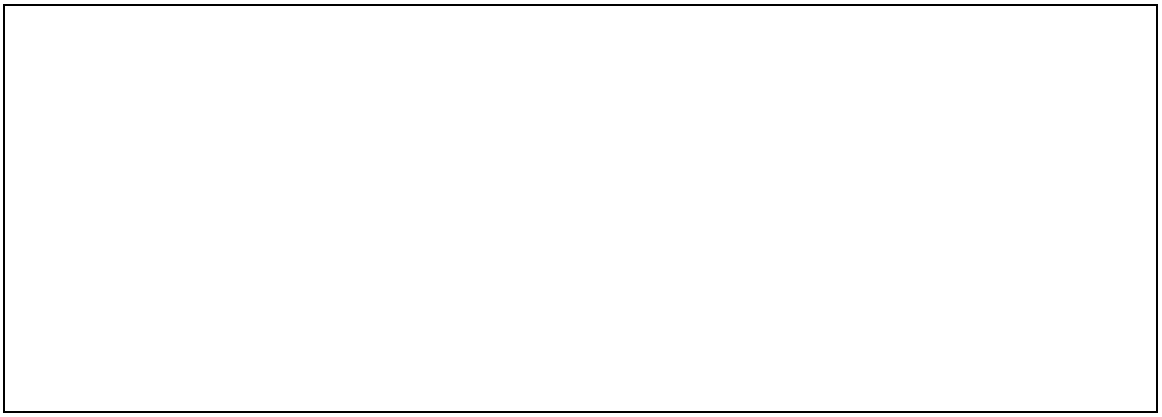
4. Environment in which you grew up

Urban	
Rural	

5. Matric certificate value

Exemption or conditional exemption	
Senior certificate	

6. Disturbances that happened during studying



PART B (i): Questionnaire

Factors that could contribute to students' **success** at SAPS Basic Training Institution

Factors	**Very important**	**Important**	**Not important**	**Irrelevant**
1. Self discipline.				
2. Effective study methods.				
3. Family support.				
4. Appropriate balance between academic commitments and social life.				
5. Self –motivation.				
6. Ability to work independently.				
7. Interest in the course.				
8. Consistent effort of learners.				
9. Assessment tasks that are closely related to module.				
10. Time and regular examination preparation.				
11. Understanding what lectures expect.				
12. Appropriate choice of course of study.				
13. Effective examination techniques.				
14. Relevance of course.				
15. Willingness to ask for help from lecturers/ instructors.				
16. Ability to reason logically.				
17. General academic ability.				
18. Access to libraries.				
19. Ability to manage stress.				
20. Self-confidence.				
21. Study guides with clearly defined outcomes.				
22. Regular and comprehensive feedback on progress from lecturers.				
23. Dedication to a career goal.				
24. Willingness to accept a challenge.				
25. Ability to apply the subject to a work situation.				
26. Effective written communication skills.				
27. Availability of high –quality study resources.				
28. Study group support.				
29. A stable private life.				
30. Satisfactory accommodation.				
31. Maturity.				
32. Access to the internet.				

PART B (ii)

Factors that could contribute to students' **failure** at SAPS Basic Training Institution

Factors	**Very important**	**Important**	**Not important**	**Irrelevant**
1. Insufficient effort (e.g. study, exam preparation).				
2. Poor exam preparation.				
3. Lack of self-motivation.				
4. Lack of self-discipline.				
5. Laziness or apathy.				
6. Inability to balance study and social commitment.				
7. Inefficient time management.				
8. Failure to reach the depth of understanding required at tertiary level.				
9. Poor study techniques.				
10. In ability to use high order thinking skills.				
11. Lack of academic ability.				
12. Inability to persevere.				
13. Poor literacy skills.				
14. Personal or family crisis.				
15. Failure to approach instructors.				
16. Lack of insight into the field of study.				
17. Assignments without clear standards or uncertainty about instructors' expectations.				
18. Inability to perform well in examination.				
19. Inability to distinguish between important or unimportant information				
20. Lack of a bridge between theory and practice.				
21. Inability to cope with stress.				
22. Lack of a clear career goal.				
23. Inappropriate assessment procedures used by instructors.				
24. Low self-esteem.				
25. Stress caused by financial problems.				
26. Heavy course workload.				
27. Too many demands on students' time (work, study, practical).				
28. Lack of confidence.				
29. A perceived lack of relevance of course content.				
30. Inadequate college library facilities.				
31. Uncertain about the relevance course content.				

32. Lack of maturity.				
33. Instructors who does not understand the students' needs.				
34. Fear of failure.				
35. Textbooks available in only one language.				
36. Instructors with unrealistically high expectations of students.				

Thank you for your time

Researcher

Department of Psychology

University of Zululand

ANNEXTURE B

CONSENT FORM

I, surname & initials……..id number……

Persal number…….hereby take note of the following:

1. I am fully aware why I am being evaluated.

2. I will complete the questionnaire honestly and to the best of my ability.

3. It is my responsibility to ask the person administering the evaluation questionnaires if I encounter any difficulties with answering the questions.

4. I am aware that the person administering the evaluation is compelled by Act 56 of 1974 to treat my information confidentially and ethically.

SIGNATURE: …….

PLACE: ……

DATE: ……..