

The thoughtful security practitioner: Exploring reflective practice in security risk management

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Abstract

Security risk management is a young, rapidly growing and multifaceted occupation that is concerned with managing internal and external threats to organisations. The occupation is also known and frequently referred to as “corporate security”, “security management” or “in-house security”. Security risk management is part of the private security domain and contributes to the overall security architecture.

Reflective practice is a learning tool, which aims to facilitate professional practice and learning by way of conscious cognitive action focusing on professional practice related issues. It is most prominent in health care and education, and increasingly discussed and utilised across a much larger number of occupations. Available reflective practice frameworks offer processes and structures that assist practitioners in their professional development, especially in challenging workplace situations. Despite substantial existing knowledge about reflective practice across numerous occupations, little is known about reflective practice in the field of security risk management.

This study explored how senior security risk management practitioners experience reflective practice in relation to managing external threats to organisations. Its main aim was to fill a gap in the body of knowledge on reflective practice and security risk management and contribute to security risk management practice by providing practical information about the application of reflective practice in the discipline. It looked specifically at the extent to which the practitioners in the study reflected on their own practice, the ways in which they did so, and the usefulness of reflective practice for security risk management practitioners. To do so, the study used grounded theory methodology to collect and analyse data, including empirical data that was collected by means of semi-structured interviews with 19 purposefully selected senior security risk managers, to explore how security risk management practitioners perceive and utilise reflective practice in the workplace.

The outcome of the study is twofold. From a theoretical perspective, the study provides a substantive theory about how senior security risk management practitioners experience reflective practice in the workplace. The theory holds that senior security risk management practitioners are deliberately thoughtful about their professional practice, and are not simply executors of only technical solutions to practice. Senior security risk management

practitioners have integrated reflective practice into their practice, which signifies a strong commitment to improve professional security risk management practice. From a professional practice perspective, the study offers essential functional information about reflective practice in security risk management. The key findings are that the senior security risk management practitioners in the study regularly and purposefully reflected on professional practice, mainly to improve practice, despite generally little understanding of formal reflective practice or theory. They were found to do this in two ways: on their own and together with others mainly within their organisation. Their organisational reflection appears better structured than their individual reflection, and more linked to existing frameworks and processes. Such practitioners' reflective practice is often triggered by critical situations in the workplace, e.g. incidents or emergencies, and they reflect less during routine practice situations. The study also found that they see value in reflecting on professional practice, as a means of improving their security risk management practice.

The study concludes that, as security risk management is habitually a complex and demanding practice, reflective practice is a valuable tool to improve practice in this field, as it allows practitioners to deliberately engage in professional learning. The thesis therefore makes the following key recommendations: that reflective practice should be more routinely embedded in security risk management; that such practitioners should use reflective practice more fully in routine workplace situations; and that further research should be conducted to test the substantive theory and explore the topic in greater detail.

Declaration

Whilst registered as a candidate for the above degree, I have not been registered for any other research award. The results and conclusions embodied in this thesis are the work of the named candidate and have not been submitted for any other academic award.



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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my deceased father, Hugo Josef Hasenstab, who supported me in all my undertakings in private and work life, including education. Thank you so much, I miss you, and I will always be grateful.

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List of abbreviations

ASIS	American Society for Industrial Security
BGS	Bundesgrenzschutz
BPOL	Bundespolizei
CoESS	Confederation of European Security Services
ECB	European Central Bank
ERM	Enterprise Risk Management
EU	European Union
FHSS	Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
GTM	Grounded Theory Methodology
HSE	Health, safety and environment
IFRC	International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
INGO	International non-governmental organisation
IO	International organisation
IPTF	International Police Task Force
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OSCE	Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe
SRM	Security Risk Management
UEC	Portsmouth University Ethics Committee
UN	United Nations
UNDSS	United Nations Department of Safety and Security
UNMIBH	United Nations Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina
UNMIK	United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo
USA	United States of America
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

1 Introduction

1.1: Background

This study explores reflective practice in security risk management. It aims to contribute to the body of knowledge on reflective practice, a professional learning and development approach that is utilised across numerous occupations, as well as security risk management, this a comparatively new occupational practice that is growing in relevance in a changing corporate landscape. Reflective practice is generally perceived to aid professional practice and learning, especially in complex and demanding practice settings. Security risk management practitioners often find themselves in exactly those situations. Reflective practice may therefore be relevant to senior security risk management practitioners.

Comparatively young, but nonetheless rapidly growing, security risk management (SRM) is an occupational practice that aims to mitigate internal and external threats primarily to organisations. The occupation encompasses a variety of skilled roles and tasks, making it a multifaceted activity. This includes, but is not limited to, facility protection, travel or expatriate security, information security, intellectual property protection, and emergency and crisis management (see BASF, 2016; Fraport, n.d.). In the context of organisations, security risk management is also known and frequently referred to as “corporate security”, “security management” or “in-house security”. SRM is situated within the wider domain of private security (Brooks & Corkill, 2014, p. 232), which also embraces the “commercial security” sector that provides services to businesses, governments and individuals.

Private security is a long-established field of employment, dating back hundreds of years (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2007, pp. 132-133), which evolved in the past 60 years perhaps more rapidly than in previous years. Today, private security activity is firmly established in many countries around the globe, and often represents an integral part of many nations' security architecture. Many factors play a role in the growth of private security activity. This includes the withdrawal of nation states from security provisions to the public and the ensuing trend of outsourcing previously state-controlled or state-owned security functions, changes in public risk perception and the security environment (including a growing awareness of national and international issues, e.g. terrorism, corporate espionage, foreign government surveillance and transnational crime), and a concentration on high-profile incidents (e.g. in USA 9/11, France and Mali 2015, Belgium and Indonesia 2016).

In the 1950s, at the outset of its re-emergence, private security management activity was mainly a guarding function. Since then the occupation has evolved rapidly. The fact that security risk management is an increasingly recognised feature within organisations was highlighted already a decade ago by Borodzicz and Gibson (2006). The authors stated that security risk management is 'a key aspect of contemporary organisational management, in both public and private sectors' (Borodzicz, 2006, p. 181). Security risk management now covers a sizeable range of security and security-related functions across industries, including but not limited to physical security, information security, cash handling services and security consultancy (see Confederation of European Security Services, 2011).

Providing security risk management services in an overall changing and demanding environment (e.g. political, social, corporate and security environments) often places considerable stress on its practitioners. To keep up with occupational challenges security

risk management practitioners require appropriate tools that facilitate and enhance professional practice and learning.

As a learning tool reflective practice has received considerable attention, mainly because it is perceived to aid both professional practice and learning. For that reason, the second dimension of this study is reflective practice. Reflective practice as a learning method has its origins in the education discipline and is now, due to its considerable popularity, widely discussed and utilised across disciplines.

Ray-Bennett, Masys, Shiroshita, and Jackson (2014, p. 103) comment that ‘Reflection is quintessential to all human beings’. Bruster and Peterson argue that reflective practice ‘facilitates the ability to apply theory to practice and to learn from experience’ (2013, p. 171). Reflective practice perhaps stands in clear contrast to the concept of technical rationality, which assumes ‘that professionals possess specific, scientific, and standardized knowledge’ (Hannigan, 2001, p. 279) that applies to all workplace situations.

From the time when John Dewey introduced the concept of learning from experience in the early 20th century, reflective thinking has become ‘increasingly incorporated not only into professional and management development in an organisational context but also in formal education’, states Reynolds (2011, p. 6). It is widely recognised that workplace situations are not always clear-cut, and that they can be ‘confusing messes incapable of technical solution’, which ‘usually involve problems of greatest human concern’ (Schön, 1983, p. 42). From Schön’s perspective, these situations demand distinct responses from practitioners which are formulated through learning processes such as by reflecting on practice. According to Thompson and Pascal (2012, p. 313), reflective practice offers a

more integrated approach to professional practice and learning. Security risk management practitioners may find such an approach fitting to their needs.

1.2: Researcher's motivation

Given the focus of this thesis on reflection, it is fitting to adopt a reflective and reflexive approach and say a little about my professional background and motivation to carry out this study. There have been two phases to my career: I have been a police officer for about 13 years and a security risk manager for almost 14 years. I chose to research reflective practice in security risk management because I wanted to understand to what extent senior security risk managers purposefully reflect on professional practice. I consider myself a reflective security practitioner, who was first introduced to reflection on professional practice while attending the German Federal Border Police's staff training college. This introduction was appealing and in many ways also useful, but it was rather unstructured and shallow. Nevertheless, reflection and reflective learning became important aspects in my work life. My first comprehensive engagement in reflection and reflective practice took place in Part 1 of Stage 2 of the professional doctorate programme in which reflection was an integral part of study. Following this, I developed an earnest interest in the concept's theoretical and practical aspects. Researching reflective practice for the purpose of my doctoral thesis also promised to offer a unique opportunity to deepen my understanding of reflective practice and security risk management.

I began my training and security career in the German Federal Border Police (Bundesgrenzschutz [BGS]) in 1990. The BGS, which was renamed in 2005 to Bundespolizei (BPOL [Federal Police]), is a 'multi-functional' federal police force in Germany (Schütte-Bestek, 2015, p. 249) which is responsible for border security

(including land, air, and sea borders), railway security and civil aviation security. The force also protects German diplomatic and consular missions abroad as well as important federal government institutions at home, provides an anti-terrorism and disaster response capability, and takes part in international police missions (e.g. those led by the United Nations, European Union, and Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe). During my time as a federal police officer, I served in various roles such as member in a formed police unit, patrol officer, border control officer and crime investigator. I was also seconded to several international police missions (i.e. United Nations International Police Task Force in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo, and the Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia). Serving in these roles, in my home country and abroad, provided many reasons and opportunities to reflect on professional practice. Dealing with victims of crime or greater atrocities (e.g. armed conflict or ethnic cleansing) and perpetrators of crime and violence as well as with the systems and processes that govern how law enforcement officers approach and deal with unlawful and anti-social behaviour, especially in international police missions, were essential experience towards my critical questioning of established professional practices.

Since 2004, I have held various positions in security risk management, mostly in the international development and humanitarian aid sector and in post- or active-conflict areas, where security threats were abundant and the ensuing security risks were high. Changing occupation from being a police officer to being a security risk manager as well as working in volatile and insecure environments presented further reasons and opportunities to reflect on professional practice issues. Working in high threat and risk environments requires a constant awareness of what is going on and a constant re-examination of strategies such as risk mitigation. “Thinking on one’s feet” is a decisive skill that enables a security risk

manager to be on top of a situation. When I began work as a security risk manager, I had no specialised education in security risk management; reflecting on professional practice therefore helped me overcome some limitations and helped me to make use of relevant skills and knowledge that I obtained during my years in the police.

In 2004, I entered higher education in an attempt to tackle weaknesses in my theoretical understanding about security risk management. For the dissertations in my undergraduate and Masters degree courses, I researched security risk management in humanitarian aid agencies. These empirical studies strengthened informal observations at my workplace, which made me wonder whether senior security risk managers utilise purposeful reflection in the workplace for the benefit of practice. In the main my informal observations suggested to me that senior security risk managers might systematically and purposefully reflect on professional practice. Little information could be obtained from the very limited literature available on the topic of reflection or reflective practice on security risk management. Therefore, I expected that exploring reflective practice in security risk management in a structured and formalised way would help to answer to what extent senior security risk managers reflect on professional practice, and how they go about it.

1.3: Research aims

In the absence of research on the use of reflective practice by security risk managers, little is known about how security risk management practitioners experience reflective practice in the workplace. Reflective practice is widely regarded to benefit professional practice. By exploring how senior security risk management practitioners perceive and utilise reflective practice in relation to managing external threats, this study aims to fill a gap in the body of knowledge on reflective practice and security risk management, and to

contribute to professional practice by providing practical information about the application of reflective practice in security risk management. In addressing these aims, the research is oriented around the following three research questions:

1. To what extent do security risk management practitioners reflect on their own practice?
2. In what ways do security risk management practitioners reflect on their own practice?
3. How useful is reflective practice for security risk management practitioners?

1.4: Thesis structure

The remainder of the thesis is laid out as follows. Chapter **two** introduces the grounded theory research methodology that underpins this study and the specific procedures that were used to carry out this research. This insider study used theoretical sampling and semi-structured interviews to identify and interview 19 senior security risk management practitioners about how they utilise and perceive reflective practice in their professional lives. In this study both reading and empirical research took place in parallel as part of an iterative process with the data analysed on an ongoing basis and fed back into the research design.

Chapter **three**, which presents the first of three thematic chapters of this thesis, provides the context for this research study to offer a basis for the interpretation of the study's findings. The chapter discusses the two main dimensions of this study, looking first at the evolution of the field of security risk management, and then the nature and application of reflective practice. It was found that the first main dimension, security risk management, is

a young, rapidly-growing and multifaceted occupation that aspires to mitigate internal and external threats to organisations. In recent years shifts have taken place, not only in terms of how security risk management activity is viewed but also how security risk management might better contribute to organisational or business objectives. Today, security risk management is an important feature in relation to enabling organisational undertakings by mitigating security risks to employees, assets and operations. The second main dimension is reflective practice. Although reflection is a longstanding activity, reflective practice is a comparatively new approach, which has attracted considerable interest during that time period by both practitioners and academics across a variety of occupational disciplines. Reflective practice remains most prominent in the disciplines of health care and education, with it becoming more widely applied in other occupations.

Whilst there is a considerable body of knowledge available on reflective practice, no research was identified that addresses reflective practice in security risk management. In its final section, the chapter provides selected professional perspectives of research participants, for the purpose of providing practitioner and practice-related context for the interpretation of the study. It is noted that often security risk management practitioners join the occupation from adjacent disciplines where they have gained extensive skills or knowledge that relates in one way or another to their current occupational activity.

The chapter illustrates how security risk management has evolved in recent years due to greater responsibilities and greater professionalisation within the discipline. Contemporary security risk management is noticeably different, as it evolved from being a discipline that was often seen to constrain business activities in order to mitigate risks, into a more business-focused function that would enable businesses to take risks. Security risk managers are confronted with numerous operational challenges day in, day out. Some of

the greatest concerns relate to resource mobilization and building security cultures in their respective organisations. Security risk management managers also deal with a multitude of security related concerns, which are of both an external and internal nature, and make security risk management a much more multifaceted and sophisticated activity than hitherto.

Chapter **four** examines how security risk management practitioners experience reflective practice. Three main categories emerged from the data, which are entitled “reflect to improve”, “trying when pressing”, and “facilitating practice”. The key findings in this chapter are that the senior security risk management practitioners in the study regularly and purposefully reflected on professional practice, mainly to improve practice, despite a generally weak understanding of formal reflective practice or theory. They were found to do this in two ways: on their own and together with others, mainly within their organisation. Their organisational reflection appeared better structured than their individual reflection, and to be linked to existing frameworks and processes. It was identified that their reflective practice was often triggered by critical situations in the workplace, e.g. incidents or emergencies. The study further found that senior security risk managers saw a value in reflecting on professional practice, as it can contribute to improve security risk management practice.

Chapter **five** presents and discusses the grounded theory main and core categories, as well as the substantive theory of this thesis concerning how security risk management practitioners experience reflective practice in the workplace. Following a synopsis of the theoretical main categories, the chapter offers a discussion about the ‘basic social problem’, which represents the underlying challenge that senior security risk management practitioners experience in the workplace every day. This underlying problem is to keep up

with practice demands and complexities. The chapter then addresses the ‘basic social process’, which characterises the response of senior security risk management practitioners to the basic social problem, which is effectively resorting to reflective action. The emergence of these key conceptual categories enabled the generation of a substantive theory, which holds that senior security risk management practitioners are thoughtful in relation to their professional practice, and are not simply executors of technical approaches to practice. The theory also holds that senior security risk management practitioners have moved towards integrating reflective practice into their professional practice, which signifies the existence of an improved approach to professional security risk management practice.

Chapter **six** presents the conclusion of thesis. In this study, I have explored something that I felt was happening in security risk management but could not prove earlier. The findings of this study substantiate my earlier notion, which is that reflective practice can be very helpful with regard to improving practice. Obtaining supportive confirmation from other senior security risk management practitioners was encouraging for me personally and, I believe, especially so for the occupation. The research achieved its aims and objectives in filling a marked gap in the body of knowledge on reflective practice and security risk management, and contributing to professional practice by providing practical information about reflective practice in security risk management. Engaging in reflective practice presents an added value to professional security risk management.

To yield the benefits that reflective practice offers the thesis makes some important recommendations. To improve senior security risk management practitioners’ knowledge of reflective practice theory, it is suggested that reflective practice theory should be systematically introduced to security risk management education and training programmes.

To broaden the application of reflective practice, it is recommended to introduce reflective practice also into routine security risk management practice. Routine practice assumes the largest portion of the security risk managers' time and effort in the workplace. Finally, more research is recommended to test the substantive theory of this thesis and explore the topic in greater detail. Security risk management is a rapidly growing and multifaceted practice, and more research into the two dimensions of this study is recommended that investigates the utilisation of reflective practice within the occupation in greater detail. A better understanding of how reflective practice is employed across the broad spectrum of the occupation will likely further enhance its application within security risk management.

2 Research methodology

2.1: Introduction

This chapter addresses the research methodology by discussing the research design and the specific procedures that were used to carry out this study. Following this introduction, the chapter is divided into four sections. The first section clarifies the research problem by outlining the problem statement and discussing issues around insider research, research rigour and the grounded theory research methodology. The second section addresses the research process, including the literature review, sampling, data collection and analysis, and research ethics. The third section provides a review of the research experience. The chapter closes with conclusions.

2.2: Research problem

This section of the methodology chapter addresses the research problem. The section commences with a clarification of the research subject, after which it provides contextual aspects of the research, specifically focusing on issues related to insider research and research rigour. The grounded theory research methodology is then outlined.

2.2.1: Problem statement

As outlined in the previous chapter, this study explores how senior security risk management practitioners experience reflective practice in the workplace. The study aims in particular to uncover how senior security risk management practitioners utilise and perceive reflective practice in relation to mitigating external threats. Security risk

management is a comparatively young, but nonetheless rapidly-growing, occupational practice which focuses on mitigating internal and external threats to organisations encompassing a variety of skilled roles and tasks. Security risk management practitioners are confronted, often on a daily basis, with complex and demanding practice issues. Across various occupational disciplines reflective practice is by and large perceived to aid professional practice and development. Reflective practice benefits might also be transferable to security risk management and contribute to an enhanced practice. Whilst initial literature reviews have identified a considerable body of knowledge on reflective practice across numerous disciplines, very little information was found about reflective practice in security risk management. By carrying out this research project a twofold contribution is expected:

- To add to theoretical knowledge in reflective practice and security risk management by generating a theory about how senior security risk management practitioners experience reflective practice
- To contribute to professional knowledge and practice by providing practical information about the use of reflective practice in security risk management.

2.2.2: Insider and work-based research

Undertaking research in a work-related setting is an essential feature of this professional doctorate programme. It is much related to the expectation that the doctoral candidate contributes to both academic and professional knowledge through relevant research. According to Costley, Elliott, and Gibbs (2010, pp. xv-xvi), it is not unusual for students to research ‘their own practice ... in work based learning programmes of study’. Even within

my own workplace setting, a considerable number of employees are conducting research on their own professional practice as part of degree courses. Costley et al. (2010, pp. 1-3) point out that insider-researchers' 'situatedness and context' are important aspects within work-based inquiry, as the insider-researcher is in a unique position to examine workplace situations due to a "special knowledge" that he or she possesses about the workplace. In comparison to outsiders, insiders are typically more familiar with what goes on in a practice or workplace. By undertaking this study, I recognise that I am an insider from at least two perspectives:

1. The research study was conducted within the setting in which I work, that is, security risk management
2. Fellow security risk management practitioners were participants in this research project.

An issue that may arise from insider research is that of a role conflict, which amongst other issues might lead to researcher prejudice, as the researcher may be influenced by, for example, his or her personal views or experiences. Jack (2008, para. 28), who examined the issue of role conflict in qualitative interviewing, points out that 'One of the hallmarks of qualitative interviews is that the interviewer is the research instrument through which data are filtered and processed'. The author further notes that professionals who are engaged in research activity, which takes place in a setting in which they work, are in one way or another likely to influence the research environment (Jack, 2008, para. 1). Colbourne and Sque (2004, p. 297) refer to this as the 'impact of "the self" on [the] research', a concern that has been widely discussed. People make their own experiences in life and have their own views of the social world that cannot simply be ignored. This

includes experiences in social research. Thus, Breuer (2009, pp. 1303-1309) remarks that a truly objective appraisal of research findings is therefore rather unrealistic.

In this qualitative doctoral study, I am the research instrument through ‘which data are collected, filtered and processed’ (Jack, 2008, para. 3). Mindful of this fact, I acknowledge from the outset of this project a potential risk of role conflict. The probability of a conflicting identity (i.e. being the researcher and at the same time a full-time security risk management practitioner) presented a challenge that needed to be addressed. My concern in this regard was twofold:

1. That my own professional experience would influence the interpretation of the data in this study
2. That research participants might tailor their responses around the fact that “I am one of their own.”

Colbourne and Sque (2004, p. 303), however, put these concerns into perspective by arguing that despite a prevailing considerable anxiety in relation to role conflict, the matter – if satisfactorily addressed – could actually benefit the research. According to the authors:

... recognising that there is a conflict is probably the most important factor in trying to resolve it, together with honesty in determining how this role may have impacted negatively on the research and, more importantly, positively on it. If the nurse cannot be removed from the researcher why pretend otherwise? (Colbourne & Sque, 2004, p. 303).

Nonetheless, the authors also point out that an insider-researcher must think through issues of concern, and address them in the right way. This includes issues such as, but not limited to, deception of colleagues both in the researcher’s own organisation and other

organisations, or in communities within the relevant professional area (Costley et al., 2010, p. 31).

2.2.3: Research rigour

Research rigour is an important element in social science research. In a grounded theory study, reflexivity and theoretical sensitivity are vital with regard to research rigour (Hall & Callery, 2001, p. 263). According to Hallberg (2006, p. 141), ‘Preconceptions, taken-for-granted assumptions, and interpretations must be handled by reflexive strategies’, as it is unlikely for a researcher to enter the investigative process completely liberated of his or her own personal views or experiences. Reflexivity is described by Robson (2002, p. 22) as ‘an awareness of the ways in which the researcher as an individual with a particular social identity and background has an impact on the research process’. Therefore, it is vital for the researcher to maintain a reflexive approach throughout the investigative process. This will allow them to continually examine personal and professional views which he or she might bring to or develop during a research project.

This doctoral study is a work-based research project that was carried out as part of the requirements for the Professional Doctorate in Security Risk Management degree. Insiders, by and large, hold a special knowledge about a situation that others may perhaps not possess (Costley et al., 2010, p. 3). In grounded theory, such special knowledge is continually referred to as theoretical sensitivity. McGhee, Marland, and Atkinson (2007, p. 334) explain that ‘A researcher who is close to the field may already be theoretically sensitised and familiar with the literature on the study topic’.

Therefore, as an insider-researcher, who is familiar with both security risk management and reflective practice, I am theoretically sensitive at least to some degree. According to Hallberg (2006, p. 144), theoretical sensitivity ‘reflects the researcher’s ability to use personal and professional experiences as well as methodological knowledge’. I am aware that my theoretical sensitivity originates from my professional practice as a full-time reflective security risk management practitioner as well as from current and previous educational activities, e.g. a BSc in Risk and Security Management and an MSc in Security and Risk Management. McGhee et al. (2007, p. 335) remind us that ‘Researchers should be aware of the impact of their previous life experience, including previous reading, and ‘turn back’ on these to appraise their effect’.

2.2.4: Research methodology

For the purpose of this study, I decided to employ grounded theory methodology - a flexible research design. GTM (grounded theory methodology) was introduced by Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss in 1967 in *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research* (see Garson, 2013, p. 38). As a research methodology, grounded theory is often linked to qualitative data collection and analysis (Dunne, 2011, p. 111). However, Glaser (2002, pp. 23-24) makes clear that it is a cross-cutting research method. Grounded theory makes use of all forms of data and aims to ‘discover theory from data’ (Glaser & Strauss, 2012, p. 73) in order to conceptualise rather than to describe social world phenomena (Glaser, 2002, p. 24). Glaser (2002, p. 23) states that ‘All that GT is, is the generation of emergent conceptualisations into integrated patterns, which are denoted by categories and their properties’.

Grounded theory is a process of social-science hermeneutics, a methodology of interpretation, whereby at the start of an examination - based on routine or every-day knowledge - concepts and models are constructed that are constantly - in a recursive procedure - examined (Breuer, 2009, p. 395). Therefore data collection and data analysis is an iterative process in which the researcher is expected to continuously interact with both the data and the emerging analysis (A. Bryant & K. Charmaz, 2007, p. 1). According to Kelle and Kluge (2010, p. 167), the authors of *The Discovery of Grounded Theory* presented, in the beginning, two essentially incompatible theories: 1) the theory of emerging concepts that requires the researcher to distance himself/herself from any theoretical preconceptions, and 2) the theory of theoretical sensitivity, which holds that prior theoretical knowledge about the phenomenon under investigation is usually supported in order to allow the researcher to discover explicit phenomena.

The idea of emerging concepts stands in contrast to the concept of testing hypotheses in the quantitative approaches to social science research (Garson, 2013, p. 81). Kelle and Kluge (2010, p. 181) stress that Glaser and Strauss' initial intention to present a counter-argument to the then dominant hypothetico-deductive model of quantitative survey research in the form of inductivistic rhetoric, which proposes a 'return to the empirical data', is practically unachievable. 'Any attempt to have theory simply emerge from data would unquestionably result in losing oneself in large amounts of unstructured data material' (Kelle & Kluge, 2010, p. 181). The authors (2010, p. 257) state that the originally little-developed thinking around theoretical sensitivity, or sensitising concepts, which was offered by Glaser and Strauss, is important as researchers view social reality through 'pre-existing concepts and theoretical categories' that illustrate the necessity of considering preceding theoretical perspectives.

Subsequent to their combined works and prominent publications, i.e. *Awareness of Dying* originally published in 1965 and *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*, the two founding fathers of grounded theory developed differing perspectives about grounded theory methodology, which has eventually led to separate Glaserian and Straussian schools of grounded theory. At the point of separation, both authors moved on from their original positions on grounded theory, and began to separately develop differing models and practices of grounded theory (Kelle & Kluge, 2010, p. 181). The ensuing ideological differences between Glaser and Strauss ‘prompted confusion and uncertainty among many researchers using or studying the methodology’ (Dunne, 2011, p. 113).

For the purpose of this study, I conceived grounded theory methodology as suitable to explore the study’s inadequately-known subject, reflective practice in security risk management. Breuer (2009, p. 390) points out, that grounded theory is well suited for the investigation of sub-cultural fields or small social worlds and the ‘issues and perspectives of its members’ through an ‘interactive participation of the researcher’. The discipline of security risk management represents a comparatively small occupation that provides employment to a rather small number of practitioners. Instead of testing existing hypotheses, grounded theory aims to generate theory about social phenomena by explaining what actually happens in given situations. By and large, grounded theory has become a popular and rather widely-used social research method.

This study is an exploration of reflective practice in security risk management, as there was no known literature or hypothesis available about the relationship between reflective practice and security risk management. My approach to grounded theory was practical; I used methods that depart to some extent from the original ideas of the founders of the

method, but these methods are not incompatible with the grounded theory (e.g. the use of an interview guide and semi-structured interviews). Moreover, due to my previous experience with reflective practice and security risk management, as outlined in this thesis, I was unable to adhere strictly to the classical approaches of grounded theory (e.g. abstain from an engagement with the literature prior to the establishment of an analytical core). Nonetheless, the approach adopted in this study is in line with grounded theory, as supported by various researchers and scholars.

2.3: Research process

This section addresses the research process by discussing essential procedures employed in this study, ranging from the review of the literature to sampling, data collection and analysis. This study was carried out between July 2013 and September 2016, while I was in overseas locations (e.g. Pakistan, Nigeria and Kenya).

2.3.1: Literature

Robson (2011, p. 51) states that the literature is what ‘is already known, and written down’ about a subject. Reviewing the literature is meant to enable the researcher to gain a good understanding of their current research topic, in particular ‘what has already been done on it, how it has been researched, and what the key issues are’ (Hart, 1998, p. 1). Dale Bloomberg and Volpe (2008, p. 1393) specify:

The review of the literature involves the systematic identification, location, and analysis of material related to the research problem ... to provide a clear and balanced picture of current leading concepts, theories, and data to ... [a] topic or subject of study.

Grounded theory methodology focuses on concepts that emerge from the data, including the literature (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 642). The founders of grounded theory suggested that a detailed engagement with the extant literature should only take place once an ‘analytical core of categories has emerged’ (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 642). This approach, advocated by Glaser and Strauss, differs from the standard approach in other qualitative and quantitative social science research methodologies, in which a systematic review of the existing literature often takes place prior to the empirical phase.

Nonetheless, engaging with the literature from the early stages in a study is not incompatible with grounded theory. For example, Strauss and Corbin (1998), cited by McCallin (2006, para. 15), point out positive aspects of engaging with the literature early on, e.g. in relation to formulating ‘questions that act as a stepping off point during initial observations and interviews’. Following McCallin (2006, para. 15), Strauss and Corbin’s position presents a modification of Glaser & Strauss’ (1967) original approach. According to Robson (2011, p. 150), ‘Grounded theory offers guidelines for building conceptual frameworks specifying the relationships among categories’. Robson (2011, p. 150), citing Hallberg (2006), further states that ‘If the guidelines are used as flexible tools rather than rigid rules, grounded theory gives researchers a broad method with distinct procedures that work in practice’. In real world research, abstaining from the relevant literature before an analytical core has been established is often unrealistic and not practical. Dunne (2011, p. 115), for example, argues that ‘from a purely pragmatic viewpoint, the idea of postponing a literature review until data collection and analysis is well underway is simply unworkable for many researchers’. For example, researchers, especially insider-researchers, are often already familiar with at least some literature about a research topic or hold other relevant knowledge about a subject under investigation. Strauss and Corbin (1998), cited by

McCallin (2006, para. 15), argue that a ‘researcher brings to the inquiry considerable background in professional and disciplinary literature’. Dunne (2011) argues further:

While the concerns articulated by Glaser and Strauss in 1967 continue to be valid, I believe that the call for abstinence from reading in the substantive area prior to data collection is a measure which is not only disproportionate but one which can detract from the overall quality of the research. (Dunne, 2011, p. 121)

As noted above, in this research study an active engagement with the literature from the early stages in the research project was unavoidable. I was an insider-researcher with a considerable degree of knowledge about the dimensions of this research project. There were also other procedural requirements that asked for an early engagement with the literature. This included the prerequisite to produce a research proposal for the study which was mandatory for the progression from Stage 2 Part 1 to Stage 2 Part 2 in this professional doctorate programme. Engaging with research literature to develop a research proposal formed the first of three stages of my engagement with the research literature in this study. The second stage included a more in-depth review which supported the initial design and structure of this thesis. In the final stage, careful thematic reviews within the substantive areas of this study took place alongside the empirical data collection as part of the constant comparative method approach. A similar approach was taken by Dunne (2011, p. 121), in his PhD research project. Figure 2.1 provides an illustration of my literature review process.



Figure 2.1: The literature review process

The above figure illustrates my engagement with the literature in this study, which commenced with two perfunctory reviews and culminated in in-depth thematic literature reviews.

2.3.2: Sampling

Researching the social world involves the enclosure of a ‘segment of the population that is selected for investigation’ (Bryman, 2008, p. 168), as investigating an entire population is usually unrealistic. Robson (2011, p. 270) comments that ‘We make judgements about people, places and things on the basis of fragmentary evidence’. Thus, our appraisal of the social world is generally based on what we know or think we know about a portion of a population. The inclusion of relevant samples is thus a vital factor in all forms of social research (Kelle & Kluge, 2010, p. 422). The authors further point out that in order to avoid a distortion of the investigation, samples need to be applicable to both research question and research field (Kelle & Kluge, 2010, p. 422). Sampling techniques are usually divided into probability and non-probability samples, the former generally allowing statistical

inferences about a population based on the responses of the sample (Robson, 2011, p. 271). Examples of non-probability sampling techniques, which do not permit statistical inferences, include convenience sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling.

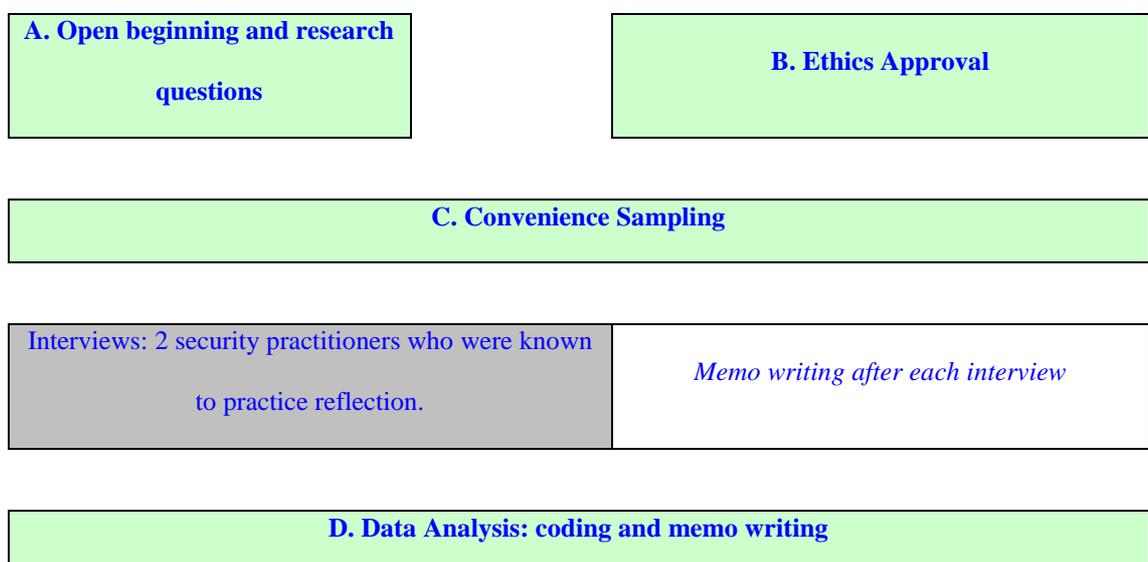
In grounded theory, according to Garson (2013, p. 231), the purpose of sampling is to ensure that ‘what is observed maximizes the likelihood of observing the full richness and diversity of the subject of the research’. And Morse (2007, p. 235) noted that in grounded theory, to establish the best possible evidence base, ‘sampling schemes change dynamically with the development of the research’. Therefore, grounded theory sampling is an ongoing process which typically involves various sample groups commonly dependent on the emerging theory, whereby theoretical saturation is achieved when no further information can be found in relation to an emergent category (Glaser & Strauss, 2012, p. 1044).

According to Glaser and Strauss (1967, p. 804), as soon as data from an initial sample that serves to attain a foothold on the research is analysed, the sample becomes theoretical. Theoretical sampling was first discussed by Glaser and Strauss in 1968 in their work *Time for Dying* (see Kelle & Kluge, 2010, p. 495). In theoretical sampling, the selection of the sample and the analysis of the data are interrelated in the way that they influence each other and that both processes take place at the same time (Kelle & Kluge, 2010, p. 495). It is common practice in grounded theory for samples to be guided by the emerging theory and to be purposefully selected (Sbaraini, Carter, Evans, & Blinkhorn, 2011, p. 3). Breckenridge and Jones (2009, para. 1) state that ‘Theoretical sampling is a central tenet of classic grounded theory and is essential to the development and refinement of a theory that is ‘grounded’ in data’. The objective of theoretical sampling is to obtain samples that are

‘likely [to] expand and enrich or secure and consolidate’ knowledge obtained about a ‘case, variation or contrast’ (Breuer, 2009, p. 608).

In this study, different non-probability sampling techniques were employed (i.e. convenience sampling, purposive sampling and theoretical sampling). A total of 20 research participants were recruited, out of which 19 participants were eventually interviewed. As all research participants were personally known to me, through current or past professional or academic encounters, all participants were contacted and recruited by me. Selection, recruitment and interviewing took place in the following order: Research participants 1-2 were part of the convenience sample, and recruited and interviewed first. Research participants 3-5, who were part of the purposive sample, then followed. And participants 6-19 were all part of the theoretical sample, the final sampling group. All research participants were contacted via email and introduced to the study, whereby their participation was requested.

Figure 2.2, which is adapted from the work of Sbaraini et al. (2011, p. 2), details my sampling approach and my analysis and ethical approval processes.



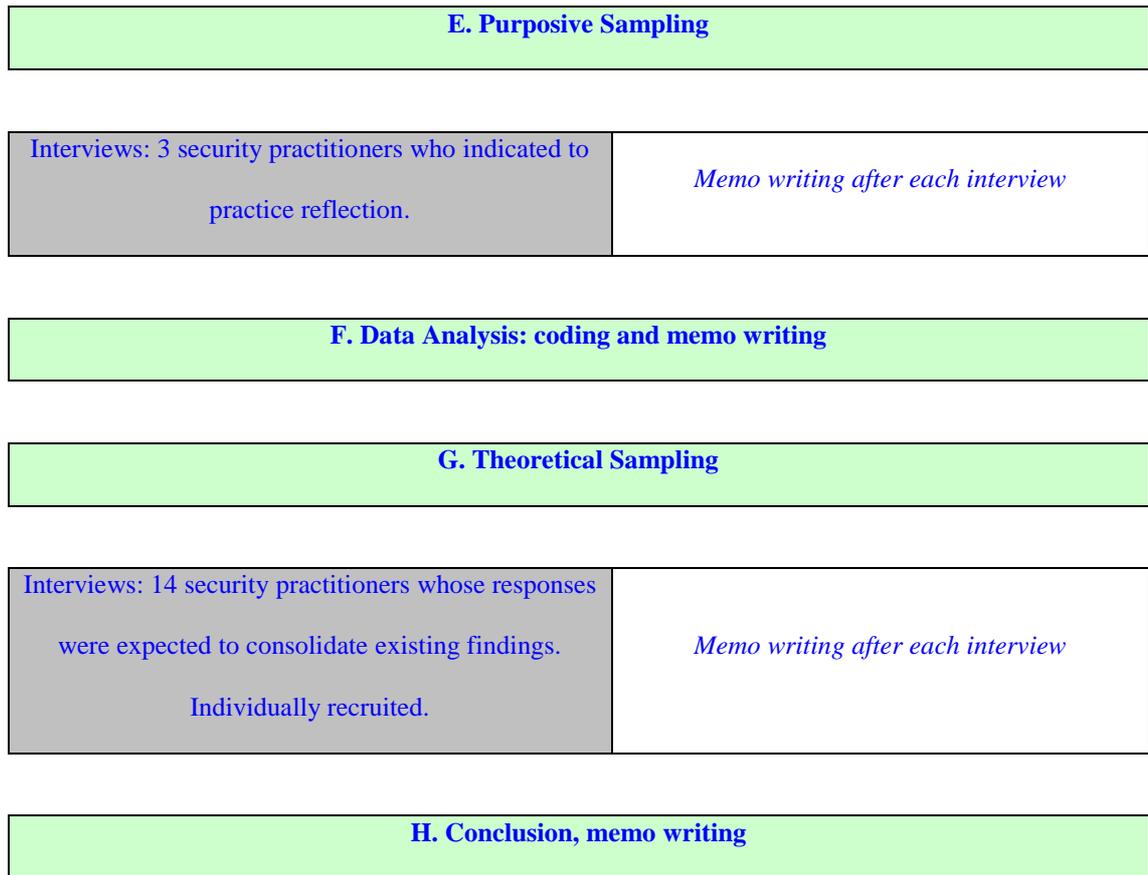


Figure 2.2: The sampling, data analysis and ethical approval processes

Morse (2007, p. 231) argues that ‘An excellent participant for grounded theory is one who has been through, or observed, the experience under investigation’. The convenience sample served to identify research participants who were easily accessible and available, and most importantly offered direct experience in reflecting on professional practice in security risk management. Identifying research participants who met Morse’s description proved initially rather challenging. After introducing this study to colleagues in Pakistan in 2013, I was able identify suitable candidates who were willing to share their experiences. These candidates expressed, in informal conversations prior to their selection, strong acquaintance with reflection on practice.

Following the convenience sample, purposive sampling was used to identify further research participants who also indicated familiarity with reflection on practice. The candidates in this sample were also known to me and, through personal and professional communication, indicated an engagement with reflection on professional practice. Both convenience and purposive samples were designed and carried out to obtain a foothold on the study in order to provide a sound basis for the theoretical sample to commence in line with the emerging theory.

In the purposive sample, I selected and recruited senior security managers who were known to me through previous professional engagements and through the professional doctorate degree course. In earlier conversations, all three participants indicated familiarity with reflective practice. For example, one participant revealed prior to the study that he had built a reflective practice component into a professional in-house selection course for senior security managers. Another participant stated that reflection on professional practice was a common activity at his previous place of employment. I initially approached all three participants via an email in which I informally introduced the study and asked if they might be interested in participating. Once they had confirmed their interest, I followed up with a formal invitation by email that also contained all the relevant participant documents.

In the third stage, theoretical sampling guided the selection of further research participants. The emergent model from completion of the convenience and purposive samples indicated that most security risk management practitioners reflect on practice, and that reflection on practice is perceived as beneficial. Based on this emergent model, I searched within my professional network of over 400 security risk management practitioners for senior security risk managers who appeared to be in a position to add further insight. Through this means I gradually selected 14 security risk management practitioners. Key aspects in the selection

process were availability, professional experience, seniority or position within the organisation, and attitude towards practice. Each time an interview was completed, my search for a suitable sample based on the emerging concepts began afresh. The recruitment of the participants followed the same principle as for participants in the earlier sampling stages.

The above approach is consistent with recommendations by Glaser and Strauss (1967, p. 804), whereby the authors stated that the investigator may commence the investigation with a ‘partial framework of “local” concepts’ that are about the problem and not its situation. In this study, using convenience and purposive samples was intended to facilitate the identification of research participants with relevant professional experience and deeper knowledge of reflecting on professional practice, and to provide a foothold in the research.

Table 2.1, adapted from Dale Bloomberg and Volpe (2008, p. 2026), provides information about research participants i.e. their current professional role, employment sector, current workplace location, gender and nationality.

RP	Role	Sector	Location	Gender	Nationality
1	Country Security Advisor	International organisation (IO)	Pakistan	Male	Fijian
2	Security Advisor	IO	Pakistan	Male	New Zealand
3	Global Security Training Manager	IO	USA	Male	The Netherlands
4	Risk Manager	Petroleum company	Uganda	Male	United Kingdom (UK)
5	Security Desk Officer	IO	USA	Male	Australia
6	Global Security Director	Non-governmental organisation (NGO)	Thailand	Male	UK
7	Managing Director	Security consultancy & training business	Nigeria	Male	UK
8	Regional Security Advisor	Petroleum industry service provider	UAE	Male	UK

9	National Security Advisor	IO	Nigeria	Male	Nigeria
10	Global Security Advisor	IO	Denmark	Male	Norway
11	Security Attaché	Government	Nigeria	Male	Canada
12	Global Security Advisor	NGO	South Africa	Female	Pakistan
13	Senior Risk Advisor	Professional services business	Turkey	Male	UK
14	Risk Manager	International Institute	Sweden	Male	UK
15	Associate Director Security	NGO	United Kingdom	Female	UK
16	Global Security Advisor	IO	New York	Male	UK
17	Senior Technical Advisor	Economic and political partnership	Belgium	Male	UK
18	Global Security Advisor	IO	Switzerland	Male	New Zealand
19	Security Advisor	IO	Kenya	Male	UK

Table 2.1: Demographics of research participants

The research participants occupied senior professional roles in their respective organisations. Senior security risk management practitioners were purposively selected, because it was understood that their responses would provide richer and broader insight into the subject matter than responses of junior practitioners or novices. Senior practitioners have commonly more years of relevant professional experience than junior practitioners, and are often required to be more critical in relation to workplace activities.

Furthermore, most research participants worked in not-for-profit organisations. Security risk management practitioners in international and (international) non-governmental organisations work at the forefront of the security risk management discipline. Depending on their mandates and activities, many of them work in volatile or insecure environments where external threats can translate into significant security risks. Often their ability to protect their personnel, assets and operations is entirely dependent on their own skills and

knowledge, especially in situations in which, for example, host governments are either unwilling to provide or incapable of providing the necessary security and protection. Often, humanitarian principles dictate neutrality, which means that these organisations must keep clear of aligning with any party especially in conflict environments (including governments or international military forces).

In this study, more male than female participants were recruited. Male participants were not given priority over female participants. Across the security risk management occupation gender parity remains a concern, for there appear to be still not as many women security risk management practitioners as male practitioners including at the senior level. Finally, a sizeable number of research participants are UK citizens. UK citizens were not purposively targeted. There are very many UK citizens working in security risk management in the international environment. The fact that numerous UK citizens were recruited and interviewed was therefore rather by coincidence than by design.

Table 2.2 provides further characteristics of the research participants.

RP	Sample type	Attributes
1	Convenience sample	Senior field manager/highly experienced/reflective/communicative/open
2	Convenience sample	Field manager/very broad experience/reflective/critical
3	Purposive sample	Senior training manager/experienced/contemplative/creative
4	Purposive sample	Field manager/experienced/fellow professional doctorate student/spouse is a nurse
5	Purposive sample	Desk manager/experienced/critical/reflective
6	Theoretical sample	Senior headquarters manager/very experienced/critical/open
7	Theoretical sample	Senior manager/very experienced/fellow professional doctorate student
8	Theoretical sample	Senior manager/broad experience/pragmatic/critical
9	Theoretical sample	Senior officer/critical/very thorough
10	Theoretical sample	Senior manager/highly experienced/constructive thinker
11	Theoretical sample	Manager/experienced/pragmatic/critical
12	Theoretical sample	Headquarters manager/open/creative
13	Theoretical sample	Field manager/critical/pragmatic/constructive
14	Theoretical sample	Headquarters manager/very experienced/reflected on approaches to security training/creative/continuous learner

15	Theoretical sample	Headquarters manager/researched experimental learning in security management
16	Theoretical sample	Senior headquarters manager/very experienced/pragmatic/resourceful/reflective
17	Theoretical sample	Headquarters manager/continuous learner
18	Theoretical sample	Headquarters manager/highly experienced/thoughtful/critical
19	Theoretical sample	Former headquarters manager now a field manager/critical

Table 2.2: Demographics of research participants (continued)

The above table provides additional information which is meant to explain further why these research participants were recruited and interviewed.

Commencing the sample in the humanitarian aid and international development industry also resulted in an unintended convergence on research participants from mainly this industry. Although sampling was guided by the emerging theory, efforts were made to the farthest extent possible to stratify the sample during the theoretical sampling phase to include a wider range of security risk management practitioners. Nevertheless, I believe this did not have any negative impact on the outcome of this study. Senior security risk managers in the not-for-profit sector may approach security risk management at times slightly differently than their counterparts in the for-profit industries; the findings of this research appear applicable across the discipline. Security risk management practitioners in the not-for profit sector, for example, in the humanitarian aid and international development industry, more often than not operate at the forefront of the discipline due to the industry providing relief and assistance to people in need, and often in the most challenging environments (e.g. volatile and insecure locations).

Once recruited, the real names of research participants were replaced by pseudonyms, e.g. RP 21. The acronym RP stands for “Research Participant”, and the number assigned to

each research participant corresponds with the order of interviewing. Quotes from the interview responses are provided under the respective aliases, for example:

I was a policeman in the UK for a couple of [unreadable] about two and a half years. It wasn't exciting enough for me, so I joined the military police in the British army, which I was in for 22 years. (RP 4)

2.3.3: Data collection

Qualitative social science research makes use of a range of data collection methods such as interviews, focus groups and participant observation. Robson (2011, p. 280) argues that 'asking people directly about what is going on is an obvious short cut when seeking answers to research questions'.

In this study, in order to share the experiences of the research participants whilst maintaining a critical distance and a relatively objective perspective (Breuer, 2009, p. 390), I decided to employ interviews to collect the empirical data. Interviews are typically classified as unstructured, semi-structured or structured depending on the level of organisation or focus of the interview, the interview questions, and the type and range of responses required by the researcher. Interviews are perceived to have their strengths and limitations. A strength, for example, is the possibility to adapt one's line of inquiry following interesting responses during an interview, whilst a disadvantage may be the issue of researcher bias (Robson, 2011, pp. 280-281).

I opted for semi-structured interviews to develop 'general definitions, concepts and categories' that are based on the empirical data (Kelle & Kluge, 2010, p. 140). Researchers who employ flexible research designs frequently use semi-structured or unstructured interviews (Robson, 2011, p. 280), including in grounded theory studies (see Anderson,

Guerreiro, & Smith, 2016; Gorra, 2007; Kearney, Murphey, & Rosenbaum, 1994; Slatyer, Williams, & Michael, 2015). Semi-structured interviews allow research participants to talk about an experience in more detail and depth, but at the same time give the researcher ‘greater freedom’ than structured interviews (Robson, 2011, p. 280).

An interview guide was developed and submitted to the University’s Ethics Committee for review prior to the start of the empirical phase. The University’s Faculty Research Ethics Committee (FREC) felt that this draft interview guide was ‘rather chatty in style’ and recommended a somewhat more formal approach as well as a clear identification of the interview questions (Carpenter, 2014, para. 6). Nonetheless the Committee gave ethical approval. The respective University of Portsmouth REC reference number is 13/14:08. Before I commenced with interviews, the necessary improvements were made in response to the recommendations of the FREC.

Using an interview schedule and semi-structured interviews in a grounded theory study is not incompatible with the method. Robson (2011, p. 148) argues that ‘It is not possible to start a research without some pre-existing theoretical ideas and assumptions’. Even in areas where no there is only little information available such as reflective practice in security risk management, a researcher – especially an insider-researcher – will likely have pre-existing ideas about the topic. As discussed earlier in this chapter, strict adherence to the original approaches to grounded theory outlined by Glaser and Strauss is often unworkable. For that reason various researchers found using interview guides was appropriate.

The interview questions were formulated based on guidance provided by Strauss and Corbin (1998) and Wade (2014). Strauss and Corbin (1998), cited by McCallin (2006,

para. 15), argue that formulating initial ‘questions that act as a stepping off point during initial observations and interviews’ is useful. Wade (2014, para. 3) advises that ‘the interview schedule should be based on your research question/s and your preliminary literature survey. The questions need to be broad, encouraging the participants to open out about the topic’.

The interview questions in this study were derived from my theoretical and practical knowledge about the two dimensions of this research, in an attempt to attain a foothold on the research in order to allow a theory to emerge from the data. The emergent concepts aim to explicate what is happening in a given situation. Any similarities between interview questions or research questions and theme or concept titles are unintended, and were a result of the coding and code-naming exercises.

According to Breuer (2009, p. 541), in grounded theory the researcher commences data collection with experienced persons to collect ‘initial interaction experience’ and to ‘explore relationships and perspectives’. Following the collection and analysis of initial data, and the subsequent emergence of early ideas or concepts, interview questions can be modified in order to re-focus the research objective or research design (Breuer, 2009, p. 571). For that reason, the interview schedule used in this study was slightly modified after completion of the convenience and purposive interviews to allow for more direct questioning and to sharpen the research focus (see Glaser & Strauss, 2012, p. 1271).

The interviews were conducted via Skype (internet calling, texting and viewing software) as well as face-to-face. I employed both techniques for practical reasons. Although face-to-face interviews are often viewed as the ‘most appropriate method’ for narrative interviewing (Holt, 2010, p. 114), this method was assessed as being too restrictive

especially in relation to reaching out to a diverse range of security risk managers who were often located in a different country. Skype interviews were assessed to facilitate communication with research participants who were not available for face-to-face interviews. Face-to-face interviews were conducted in situations where personal meetings were feasible.

Adolph, Hall, and Kruchten (2011, p. 500) argue that ‘despite Glaser’s recommendation, recording and transcribing interviews is the most effective way to capture interview data’. Strauss, too, argued that there is no need to record interviews as the important information would clearly re-emerge and could easily be captured and noted down by the researcher. Glaser and Strauss supported the use of field notes or interviewer notes (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007, p. 69). To maintain a record of my interviews and to ensure that I captured the conversations with research participants accurately, I opted to record the interviews and have them transcribed through a third party. Using a paid transcription service was a new experience for me. However, based on my experience I believe that using a service provider has positively impacted my research. First and foremost, it assisted in terms of time which I could put to good use elsewhere in the research project. Secondly, it helped in terms of quality - I believe that the transcription quality provided by 1st Class Secretarial is somewhat better than what I could have provided. As English is not my first language, it is much more difficult for me to accurately capture verbal communications in written form. During the interviews I also took notes. Taking notes is not uncommon in grounded theory research, even when interviews are recorded (see Piko, 2014). I expected note-taking to support my data collection process, e.g. to capture key statements or to remind myself of important points in the conversation or about the topic.

2.3.4: Data analysis

The underlying concept in grounded theory methodology is that a theory emerges from the data. Therefore the data analysis process is of vital importance to grounded theory research (see Walker & Myrick, 2006, p. 548). According to Stern (2007, p. 119), ‘Grounded theory as an analytical activity is a largely cerebral process, which makes it hard to explain using words’. This view is expanded by Heath and Cowley (2004, p. 149) who state that ‘qualitative analysis is a cognitive process and ... each individual has a different cognitive style... the aim [of grounded theory] is not to discover *the* theory, but *a* theory that aids understanding and action in the area under investigation’. This interpretation seems important, as it suggests that there is no ultimate truth to the research problem in GTM. Heath and Cowley (2004, p. 141) advise qualitative researchers to select an approach that fits their abilities ‘and develops analytic skills through doing research’.

In grounded theory analysis, coding is central (Breuer, 2009, p. 740). Star (2007, p. 80) states that a code ‘sets up a relationship with your data and with your respondents’. Classic grounded theory coding is a ‘three-step process’ that involves open coding, axial coding and selective coding procedures (Garson, 2013, p. 159). Glaser (2012, p. 2) outlined the coding process as follows: ‘first one goes into the field and starts open coding leading to conceptualizing his /her data using the constant comparative method. Then a core category is discovered, and selective coding starts and theoretical sampling for more data to see if the core category works’.

A key concept of grounded theory analysis is the constant comparative method. Glaser and Holton (2004, para. 50) state that ‘Incidents articulated in the data are analysed and coded, using the constant comparative method, to generate initially substantive, and later

theoretical, categories’. Constant comparison, therefore, refers to the process of constantly moving back and forth between the empirical data and the emerging concepts. Following Heath and Cowley (2004, p. 144) the analysis and coding of empirical data allows ‘ideas and potential insights’ to emerge and data to build up a researcher’s “theoretical sensitivity”. Theoretical sensitivity refers to ‘theoretical perspectives’ through which a researcher views ‘relevant data’ (Kelle & Kluge, 2010, p. 257). The researcher’s theoretical sensitivity, according to Breuer (2009, p. 618), develops during the course of an investigation. Then again, researchers who are practitioners may already have at least some relevant theoretical sensitivity. For Glaser and Strauss (2012, p. 801) theoretical sensitivity is another key concept in grounded theory analysis. The authors (2012, p. 801) stress that if a researcher would be ‘sufficiently theoretically sensitive’ he/she should be able to ‘conceptualize and formulate theory as it emerges from the data’. Glaser and Holton (2004, para. 50) comment:

The essential relationship between data and theory is a conceptual code. The code conceptualizes the underlying pattern of a set of empirical indicators within the data. Coding gets the analyst off the empirical level by fracturing the data then conceptually grouping it into codes that then become the theory that explains what is happening in the data.

In this research study, my theoretical sensitivity as researcher was already somewhat advanced prior to the commencement of the empirical phase as I am a security risk management practitioner. I was also familiar with reflection and reflective practice as a result of my preceding professional doctorate coursework.

Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS), QSR-NVivo for Mac, was used to facilitate the analysis of the research data. All interview transcripts were uploaded in NVivo for retention, coding and analysis. Figure 2.3 shows an early application of CAQDAS in this study.

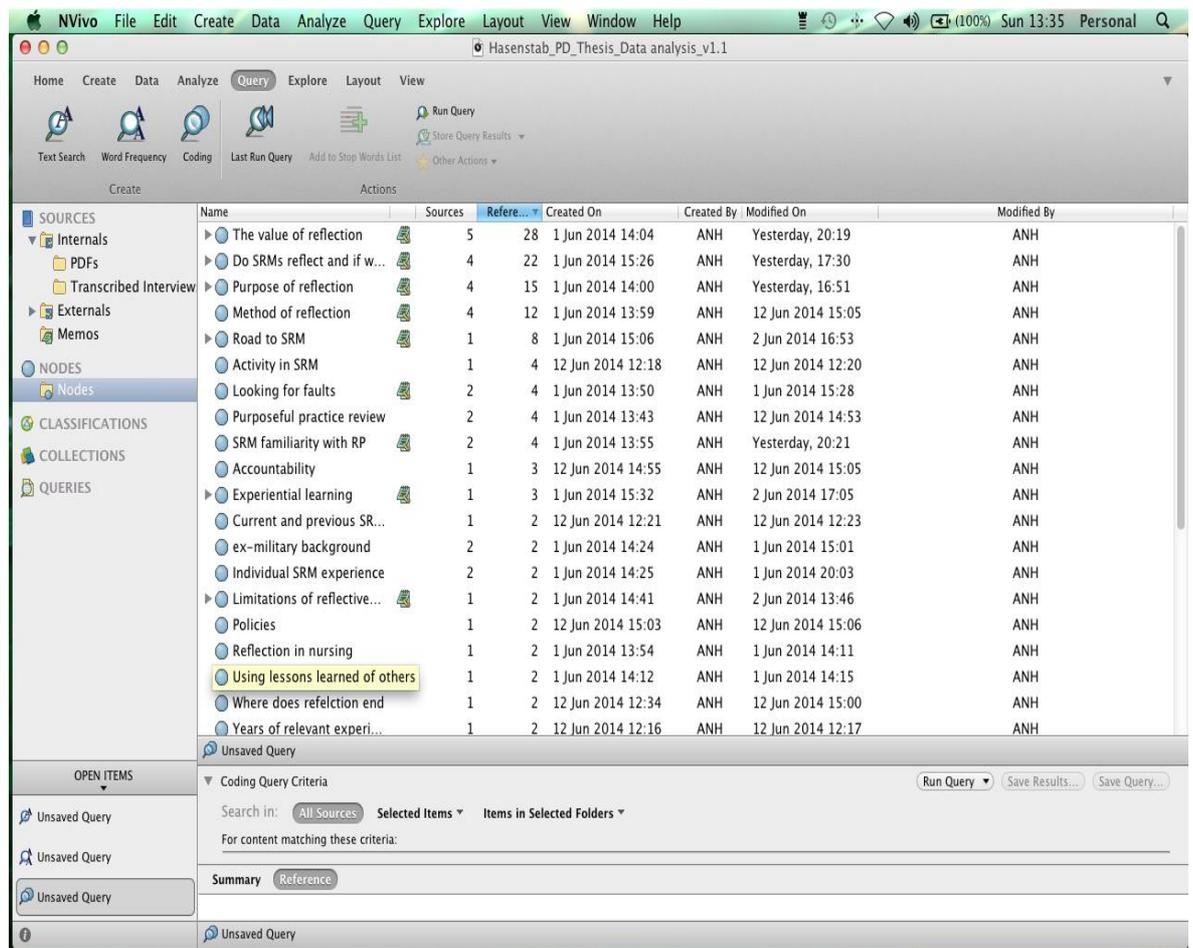


Figure 2.3: Early NVivo application

The above screenshot provides an example of the early application of NVivo and several initial concepts. During the project, most of these initial concepts have been discarded and new concepts identified. This has been as result of my initial challenges using NVivo. Tables 2.3 and 2.4 adapted from Burnard, Gill, Stewart, Treasure, and Chadwick (2008, p. 430), present examples of the coding frameworks in this study:

Interview transcript	Initial coding framework
<i>Interviewer: 'Do you ever reflect on your own practice?'</i>	
Respondent: 'You know, sometimes I wonder if I do anything but. So yes, the answer is very much that I think it takes place all the time, basically.'	Reflect
<i>Interviewer: 'Why do you find it useful to reflect on your practice?'</i>	
Respondent: 'I assume it's...well, I just find it very useful, I always found it useful. But it is because you need to improve. I should be better at my job in one year than I am now. That is why it's important.'	Need

Table 2.3: A preliminary coding framework

The above table presents an illustration of my opening coding framework. It shows responses to interview questions and the subsequent coding. Table 2.4 below illustrates my final coding framework in this study.

Central category	Main categories	Initial categories
Improving	Reflect to improve	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflect • Regular

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need
	Trying when pressing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Institutional reflection • Unstructured individual reflection • Triggers
	Facilitating practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helpful • It's needed

Table 2.4: The final coding framework in this study

The table shows the central category after reduction of the main categories and sub categories. Throughout this study I made use of memos to assist the research process.

2.3.5: Ethics

Ethics plays a very important aspect in social science research, especially because of potential ‘negative consequences’ for research participants (Robson, 2011, p. 194) and also for the researcher. For example, Robson (2011, p. 194) lists ‘potential harm, stress and anxiety’ as possible negative effects on participants. There are numerous examples of unethical research, for example, exploitation and mistreatment of vulnerable populations e.g. during World War II by the German regime and scientists, or the Miligram experiment in the early 1960s (Robson, 2011, p. 195). Table 2.5, adapted from Robson (2011, p. 200), outlines ten questionable practices that social researchers might encounter during the research process:

Ten questionable practices in social research	
1.	Involving people without their knowledge or consent.
2.	Coercing people to participate.
3.	Withholding information about the true nature of the research.
4.	Otherwise deceiving the participant.
5.	Inducing participants to commit acts that may diminish their self-esteem.
6.	Exposing participants to physical or mental stress.
7.	Invading participants' privacy.
9.	Withholding benefits from some participants (e.g. in comparison groups).
10.	Not treating participants fairly, or with consideration, or with respect.

Table 2.5: Questionable practices in social research

The above table lists some unethical practices in social research that can have negative effects on research participants and on social science (research) in general. The issue of negative effects on researchers was already highlighted by Lee-Treweek and Linkogte (2000, p. 2) who stated that 'social science is becoming more aware of the importance of researcher safety and well-being'. The authors (2000, p. 2) refer to measures being adopted by universities and social policy associations to address this issue of growing concern. Lee-Treweek and Linkogte (2000, p. 2) further argue that threats to researchers and research participants are often linked, and that threats to researchers are often like threats to research participants.

Olesen (2007, p. 425) points out that classic grounded theory texts do not address issues of research ethics, but the classics' silence on the issue of research ethics 'should not imply that GT is a-ethical or unethical'. With some debate seemingly occurring in the early days of grounded theory, it was generally assumed that 'researchers' accounts would reflect ethical conduct' (Olesen, 2007, p. 425). In this research, prior to completion of the relevant research ethics documents that were required to secure ethical approval from the University of Portsmouth Ethics Committee, I familiarised myself with the relevant ethical codes and guidelines; these included the Code of Ethics for researchers in the field of criminology (British Society of Criminology, 2006) and the Framework for Research Ethics of the Economic and Social Research Council (2012). Table 2.6 outlines a list of documents that were submitted to the University's Ethics Committee for ethical approval of this study.

No.	Document	Appendix
1.	Ethics self-assessment	A
2.	Interview guide	B
3.	Participant Consent Form	C
4.	Participant Information Sheet	D
5.	Invitation Letter	E
6.	Ethics committee protocol	F

Table 2.6: The ethical review documents

Informed consent is very important in relation to research ethics (Alldred & Gillies, 2012, p. 150). In this research study, all research participants were given a Participant Consent Form (see Appendix C), a Participant Information Sheet (see Appendix D), and an Invitation Letter (see Appendix E). The purpose of both the Invitation Letter and the

Participant Information Sheet was to inform (potential) research participants about the study and to seek their participation. The Participant Consent Form was for recording participant consent to take part in this study. In this study, out of a total of 19 research participants, 8 returned their completed consent forms via email. The others expressed their consent verbally during the start of the interviews.

2.4: Research experience

I commenced this research project with a rather limited understanding of the research methodology and its application, and built my understanding and skills in using the method along the way. In this project, my greatest challenge related to building a theory about the relationship of reflective practice in security risk management. I found that providing a fitting abstract model that aims to explain the phenomenon much more difficult than simply just describing the phenomenon.

In this study I was an insider, because I am a security risk management practitioner and the study was conducted within the setting in which I work. Because I was aware from the outset that I was an insider, I have had some concerns; first, that my professional ideas and assumptions could influence especially the interpretation of the research data, and second, that the research participants, who were part of the same occupational group as me, could tailor their responses around the fact that I am one of their own. These are issues that may not have been a concern for an “outsider” researcher. An outsider researcher would be someone who is not part of the group from which research participants are drawn, and who would normally not have an in-depth or special knowledge about the workplace-setting in which the research takes place. As outlined earlier in this chapter, critical reflexivity is very important in qualitative research, especially for the insider.

Throughout this research project, my experience in relation to having been an insider was very positive. From my experience, the key to that was first and foremost being aware of issues that could arise in the course of study as a result of being an insider. This approach contributed significantly to mitigating negative influences on the research. For example, whilst I have my own experiences and assumptions about reflective practice and security risk management, I took deliberate steps to avoid my ideas “contaminating” the interpretation of the data. I employed actions such as, where necessary, pretending in my own mind that I am neither knowledgeable about reflective practice nor security risk management to allow me to see things through my own lens or objectively. This was not always easy, however, especially in the beginning. At other times, I reversed the process by deliberately bringing in my professional experience, for example to corroborate responses or re-assess findings. I believe that the fact that I already knew all the research participants prior to the research helped, especially during the sampling and data collection processes. Our professional or personal relationships made not only the identification of suitable research participants and their recruitment easier, but also enabled free and open conversations that resulted in rich and authentic data. Most conversations were preceded by a few minutes of private chat, and this appeared to have made the subsequent interviews easier. In one instance, the personal talk did not take place until after the interview was completed. Notably this interview was, in terms of duration, the shortest of all. Also, the data from this interview was not as full and rich as the data from other interviews. Altogether, my having been an insider in this research study was a very positive experience.

2.5: Conclusion

In this research project, grounded theory methodology was used to explore how senior security risk management practitioners experience reflective practice in the workplace, with a particular focus on professionals working in the humanitarian aid and development sector. Such practitioners operate in some of the most challenging environments for practising security, e.g. remote or conflict environments. Their perspectives provided rich accounts that illuminated the employment of reflective practice in often difficult settings, generating findings that will be useful to the wider security community.

3 Understanding the context: security risk management, reflective practice and the security practitioner

3.1: Introduction

This chapter provides the context for this research study. It aims to discuss the key dimensions of security risk management and reflective practice in order to provide a basis for the interpretation of the study's findings. Following this introduction it begins by examining the evolution of security risk management as a discipline. Thereafter the concept of reflective practice is explored, making reference to professions such as health care and education in which it is a well-established approach. Then the security practitioners who are the focus of this study are introduced, drawing on both academic literature and some of the interview data in order to examine the key responsibilities and concerns that confront these professionals in their working lives. The chapter closes with conclusions.

3.2: Evolution of security risk management

The first main dimension of this study is security risk management, which is a comparatively young but rapidly growing multifaceted occupation that falls within the domain of private security. This section provides a historical overview of private security, and moves on to look at the contemporary role of the sector, before going on to examine the discipline of security risk management as a professional discipline.

3.2.1: Historical background

Comparatively young, but nonetheless rapidly growing, security risk management is an occupational practice that belongs to the private security sector. Contemporary security risk management focuses on mitigating internal and external threats to organisations, encompassing a variety of skilled roles and tasks. The development of security risk management is closely linked to the comeback and development of private security activity.

In recent history, the responsibility for security rested for the most part with the state, above all in Western democratic societies. According to Loader (2000, p. 323), the state was 'focal to both provision and accountability in this field'. This circumstance, however, is changing fast. Shearing and Stenning (1981, p. 198) alerted academic audiences to the rise of private security, pointing out that it is 'in one form or another' now prevalent in nearly all developed Western societies. In the present day, states are giving up more and more control over security, opening opportunities to others 'beyond government' (Loader, 2000, p. 324) including private security providers. Strom et al. (2010, pp. 2-3) cite ASIS International (2009a) who describes private security as 'the nongovernmental, private-sector practice of protecting people, property, and information, conducting investigations, and otherwise safeguarding an organisation's assets'.

Security is an elementary activity of human beings, probably as old as the species itself. Throughout the ages, humans have devised and employed many means to protect themselves from danger. Shearing and Stenning (1983, p. 493) point out that private security is 'not a new phenomenon'. Abrahamsen and Williams (2007, pp. 132-133) draw out a range of private security activities that date back many hundreds of years. The authors comment that 'contracted soldiers and military entrepreneurs are arguably as old as warfare itself' (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2007, pp. 132-133). Only in recent history have

nation states accepted responsibility for security within their territories. However, private security activity is on the rise and becoming a global phenomenon.

After a period of relative absence, private security re-emerged in the mid to late 1900s across various countries. McCrie (2004, p. 11) links the resurfacing of the security industry in the United States of America to the country's Industrial Revolution that began in 1800 and the 'emergence of the corporate structure of doing business' as well as a fast-growing American economy post-1950. In Britain, according to Abrahamsen and Williams (2007, p. 133), private security activity commenced in between World War I and World War II, with Securicor being the first private security company to offer private security services in the form of watch duties. In Germany, according to Schoch (2009, p. 14), a *Privatisierungswelle* (wave of privatisation) in the 1990s triggered extensive privatisation of public functions ranging from postal services, communication, infrastructure, and transportation to security-sensitive activities. Following Schoch (2009, p. 14), the main reasons for this large-scale privatisation were measures undertaken by the European Union in relation to subsistence precautions, and Germany's home-grown concept of the "schlanken Staat" (lean state). This list of factors is not exhaustive; the reasons for a re-emergence of private security are certainly many.

Since its resurrection in the mid to late 1900s, private security has undergone substantial expansion to the point that some call it the "new security economy" (OECD, 2004). The factors driving this growth are multifaceted. Osborne comments:

The security industry is a large and expanding area of economic activity. Spurred on by the perception of rising crime, the threat of terrorist attacks and increasingly free movements of goods, capital and people, there has been a swell in government, corporate and consumers' budgets for security goods and services in recent years. This development promises to have far-reaching economic and societal implications over the longer term. (OECD, 2004, p. 3)

Loader (2000, p. 323) points out that in many Western as well as non-Western societies, nation states used to be in charge of security within their territories. Many governments provided rather comprehensive security to the general public. For Max Weber a key characteristic in defining the nation state was its monopoly 'on the legitimate means of violence, including the sanctioning, control and use of force' (Holmquist, 2005, p. 1). Many nation states maintained control over security using state law enforcement or security agencies such as the public police, intelligence or prison service.

As mentioned earlier in this thesis, this situation has been changing during the past three decades. Nation states are increasingly withdrawing from the formerly 'state-centred paradigm of policing' (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2007, p. 136), which results in other 'public, commercial and voluntary agencies' filling the ensuing gaps (Loader, 1997, p. 377). Industrial or other providers are willing to step in, which has also raised concerns. For example, in Germany a considerable debate took place about the risks of privatising security amongst other functions. Abrahamsen and Williams (2007, p. 131) argue that the 'extent of this privatisation is evident across the spectrum of security provisions'. While the situation is not the same everywhere, in numerous countries private security increasingly takes on roles and responsibilities that were previously in the hands of, for example, state police personnel (Button, 2007, p. 1). According to Abrahamsen and Williams (2007, p. 132):

In the US, private security officers have for a long time outnumbered public police by a ratio of almost three to one, in the UK the ratio is two to one, in Hong Kong five to one, while in some developing countries the ratio is said to be as high as 10 to one.

Based on a research project in 2011 the Confederation of European Security Services estimates that in 34 European countries the average ratio of security force per 10,000 inhabitants stands at ± 36.11 , while the average ratio of police force per 10,000 inhabitants is at ± 36.28 (Confederation of European Security Services, 2011, p. 143). Seeking to explain the scale of private security growth Abrahamsen and Williams (2007, p. 132) argue that private security 'is both cause and effect' of the "risk society" that we now inhabit.

Ulrich Beck (1992) coined the term "risk society" to reflect characteristics of late modernity. He argued that globalisation challenges established concepts and processes of security and exposes individuals across the globe to new risks - "global risks". According to Abrahamsen and Williams (2007, p. 135) citizens are becoming less risk friendly or tolerant, and more aware of their 'power and identity as consumers' of security. Private security, much like a living organism in its quest for 'survival and profit', contributes to and depends on a 'society's sense of insecurity' (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2007, p. 135).

The events of 11 September 2001 as well as other well-known occurrences of violence and destruction such as Madrid (2004), London (2005), Paris and Istanbul (2015), and Ouagadougou and Brussels (2016) have noticeably impacted on the ways in which threats and risks are being perceived and treated today. Lange (2012, p. 109) stated that international terrorism at the start of the 21st century, following the attacks in New York and Washington, caused profound shifts in the public perception of security, and its long-term effects remain insofar unclear. Borodzicz and Gibson (2006, p. 185) comment that despite the fact that crime and terrorism are assessed as fairly minor threats to corporations, events involving mass casualties or large-scale destruction have contributed to the growth in private and corporate security. The financial negative impact of incidents such as 9/11 is substantial. Following Bräuninger et al. (2008, p. 9) the fiscal sum of direct

damages resulting from the attacks of 9/11 amounted to about 0.35 % of the gross domestic product (GDP) of the United States, while the macro-economic expenses subsequent to the crisis of the same year amounted to an estimated 0.75 % of the country's GDP. These findings underline the perception that security has been transformed, which evidently influences both private and public security. Stevens (2004, p. 30) argues:

With the growing appreciation of threats to security, institutional and organisational reforms have been set in train which are having – and will continue to have – a significant impact on the level and structure of demand for security goods and services.

3.2.2: Contemporary private security

Private security has become a prominent and multifaceted industrial activity. According to Hill (2007, p. 134) private security is 'one of the fastest growing professions not only in the United States, but worldwide'. The global commercial value of the private security industry, which - according to Abrahamsen and Williams (2007, p. 132) - has grown drastically; it is estimated to be around \$67.6 billion US dollars. In Germany, for example, the private security industry grew from 2.41 billion Euro in 1995 to an estimated 6.28 billion Euro in 2015 (BDWS, 2016). Sparrow (2015, p. 237) opines that investments in security are rising. A review of career pages on the Internet and daily newspapers clearly shows that more private security personnel are being sought in recent years. Strom et al. (2010, p. 1.1) comment that 'The private security industry is a crucial component of security and safety in the United States and abroad'. Private security has taken over numerous functions that were previously in the hands of the state. In their 2010 report on the state of the private security industry in the US, the authors report:

Private security officers are responsible for protecting many of the nation's institutions and critical infrastructure systems, including industry and

manufacturing, utilities, transportation, and health and educational facilities. Companies are also heavily invested in private security, hiring security firms to perform functions such as store security, private investigations, pre-employment screening, and information technology (IT) security. (Strom et al., 2010, p. 2.1)

Private security has become a crosscutting activity spanning many industries, and taken on diverse roles and responsibilities. In spite of this growing involvement in the protection of private, commercial and public interests, the primary role of private security - in most countries - remains distinct from that of the public police. Shearing and Stenning (1981, p. 211) comment that the role of private security is predominantly preventative, which stands in certain contrast to that of the public police which, by and large, aims to apprehend offenders. For Shearing and Stenning (1981, p. 210) prevention refers to the protection of assets or loss avoidance as well as an increase in revenues, all of which remain important characteristics of private security. In general, organisations want to avoid loss whether it is human, material or intellectual loss. On the other hand, criminal justice-related activities such as the arrest and investigation of offenders are normally left to the relevant public authorities.

Following Strom et al. (2010, p. 2.3), the characteristics of private security relate to the 'proprietary or contractual nature of security departments, the type of security provided (e.g. physical, information or employment-related), the services provided (e.g. guarding or armoured transport), and markets (e.g. critical infrastructure or commercial venues)'. While private security has traditionally been primarily 'a guarding function' (Gill, Moon, Seaman, & Turbin, 2002, p. 58), it has turned into a multidisciplinary occupation (Brooks, 2010, p. 225). Roles, responsibilities and functions of private security personnel differ. Private security covers a wider range of responsibilities in some countries than in others. For example in the US 'private security can represent a wide range of organizations,

including corporate security, security guard companies, armored car businesses, investigative services, and many others' (Strom et al., 2010, pp. 2-3 - 2-4).

Table 3.1, adapted from the Confederation of European Security Services Working Committee Guarding (2010), lists functions carried out by the private security sector in Europe:

Private security services	Information security	- ICT security	Monitoring and alarm receiving
		- Document security	
		- ID security	
	Cash handling services	- Cash-in-transit	
		- Cash processing	
		- ATM maintenance	
	Physical/ mechanical security	- Locks	
		- Barriers	
		- Seals	
		- Lighting	
		- Safes	
		- Strong-rooms/ vaults	
	Electronic security	- Alarms	
		- Access control	
		- Access media	
		- CCTV	
	Guarding	- Static	
		- Mobile	
		- Security checks	
		- Close protection	
- Alarm response			
- Reception			
- (Key holding)			

	Crowd management	- Event security	Security training and exercise & Protection of National Critical Infrastructure
		- Door supervision	
	Private investigation		
	Security consultancy	- Risk management	
		- Business intelligence	
		- Security planning	
		- Implementation	
Public order services	- Public order tasks		
	- Private crime investigation		
	- Parking control		
	- Traffic control		
Private military services	- Armed protection		
	- Military services		

Table 3.1: Functions of manned and physical security sectors in Europe

The above table shows that contemporary private security is a multi-faceted activity. The reasons for this are many, including but not limited to a withdrawal of nation states from the provision of security, new risks and lower public risk tolerance.

3.2.3: Security risk management discipline

The term “security risk management” is frequently used to describe two occupational practices. A search of the Internet as well as literature shows that the term is currently extensively associated with information security risk management, a distinct function. However, security risk management is also a practice and discipline concerned with managing security-related risks primarily to organisations and to their employees,

information and assets. According to Challinger (2006, p. 586), ‘the corporate security department will implement measures to physically secure business premises and assets’.

Definitions of security risk management have evolved over the years. In response to what was perceived as inconclusive definitions, Walby and Lippert (2014b, p. 2) described corporate security ‘loosely as security provision that seeks to achieve corporate organizational goals’. The term “corporate security” is recurrently used to refer to security risk management or at least fairly similar activities. It appears to be more commonly used in North America, and often relates to security risk management in corporations rather than not-for-profit organisations. For the purpose of this thesis the terms security risk management and corporate security are used interchangeably. The following terms are frequently used:

- Proprietary security
- Corporate security
- Security management
- In-house security

Although the above terms are frequently employed to refer to the same activity, descriptions of security risk management practice often differ somewhat. For example, Strom et al. (2010, p. 2.4) cites ASIS International (2009a) as finding that proprietary security is:

...any organization, or department of that organization, that provides full time security officers solely for itself.

ASIS is the acronym for American Society for Industrial Security, ‘a global community of more than 38,000 security practitioners (ASIS International, 2015, para. 1). According to Walby and Lippert (2014a, p. 24), ASIS International and others are playing notable roles in the professionalization of the discipline. Another description comes from Brooks and Corkill (2014, p. 232):

...the practice sector that provides internal security services and functions within either a public or a private enterprise in the protection of a corporation’s valued assets, operating in all sizes of organisations.

My personal view is that the most fitting description is provided by the Australian Attorney-General's Department (2016, para. 1-3):

Risk management is the identification, assessment and prioritisation of risks followed by coordinated and economical application of resources to minimise, monitor, and control the probability and/or impact of unforeseen events. Security risk management is the specific culture, processes and structures that are directed towards maximising the benefits of security in support of business objectives. Adopting a risk based approach allows agencies to prioritise activities based on the likelihood and consequence of a risk being realised, to maximise business outcomes while minimising the occurrence or effects of events that may negatively affect outcomes.

This description is rather comprehensive. Importantly, the description indicates the role of security risk management role in wider risk management. In addition, it addresses the aspects that (security) risk management aims to influence: “likelihood and consequence of risk”. Finally, it also spells out its purpose: “to maximise business outcomes while minimising the occurrence or effects of events that may negatively affect outcomes”. This is therefore an exceptionally inclusive description of security risk management.

Academic and peer-reviewed literature on the discipline of security risk management is limited (see Walby & Lippert, 2014a, p. 24). Lippert, Walby, and Steckle (2013, p. 206)

remark that security risk management ‘has not received the same multi-disciplinary and theoretical treatment as contract guard security, public police or national and international security’. This is an important issue, bearing in mind that security risk management ‘is emerging as the primary form of security of the 21st century’ (Walby & Lippert, 2014b, p. 1).

The concept that security risk management is rapidly developing is not new. Borodzicz and Gibson (2006, p. 181), who wrote about security risk management in ‘contemporary developed society’, pointed out that it has become an important element ‘of contemporary organizational management, in both public and private sectors’. Today, security departments and individual security risk management practitioners operate across a wide spectrum of industries, ranging from not-for-profit to for-profit organisations. Walby and Lippert (2015, p. 117) comment that ‘Corporate security has been operating in private and public organizations since at least the early twentieth century’. The scholars examined the ‘interior organization units of the US Department of War’s Plant Protection Service during and after WWI’ active in the Ford Motor Company, which they consider ‘an early form of corporate security’ (Walby & Lippert, 2015, p. 118). The findings presented by the authors suggest that corporate security is not just a recent occupation, and also point out that the Service’s actions in the case of Ford Motor Company were at times directed against employees (Walby & Lippert, 2015, p. 120). This is an interesting observation, as security risk management typically aims to protect employees rather than to suppress them.

Briggs and Edwards (2006, pp. 12-13) found that organisational opinions about security management have changed for the better in recent years. Until recently, security risk management was often perceived negatively, e.g. as an impediment to business activities. Security was frequently understood as too restrictive with regard to enabling business

operations. Petersen (2013, p. 228) relates it to the fact that security was ‘defined by necessity and prevention rather than new opportunities’. Security risk management has, however, evolved. It has not only become more structured and nuanced but also more enabling towards business activities. This was already noted by Briggs and Edwards (2006) who comment that ‘The business of security has shifted from protecting companies from risks, to being the new source of competitive advantage’. This indicates not only an important shift in security risk management activity but also a shift in how the discipline is viewed in general.

Improvements in relation to security risk management practice can also be attributed to attempts to incorporate security in the wider organisational risk management frameworks and processes. Security is no longer a standalone activity. Petersen (2013, p. 227) states:

The practice of corporate security is marked by a strong tendency to make security a case for business by suggesting that it becomes part of the Enterprise Risk Management (ERM) system.

The practice of enterprise risk management aims to address organisational risks taking into account most if not all aspects of organisational life. Wakefield (2014, p. 237) states that ‘An enterprise approach to organisational risk is not new: holistic models have been present for much longer than they have been in vogue’. Organisations are aware of the variety of risks they face. Wakefield (2014, p. 240) provides examples:

- Strategic risks
- Financial risks
- Operational risks
- Hazard risks

Organisations ought to be as comprehensive as possible with regard to the management of risks. Unaddressed vulnerabilities can create significant issues. Meijer, Leijnse, and Davidai (2014, p. 4) explain that, ‘Simply put, ERM is an umbrella programme that companies may use to coordinate all of their risk management activities’. Enterprise risk management is used in private or public organisations, as businesses in both sectors need to address negative risks that have the potential to result in loss or even harm. Risk management becomes a concern not only for management and employees of an organisation, but also for others including, but not limited to, shareholders, governments, the public, and even beneficiaries of business activity (e.g. in the case of humanitarian organisations). Petersen (2013, p. 227), citing ASIS International (2010, p. 6), points out:

Enterprise risk management (ERM) looks at the universe of risks – financial, strategic, accidental, and so on – that an organization faces. However, ERM does not always fully take into account the risks that are traditionally associated with security. Enterprise security risk management (ESRM) exists to ensure that these risks are properly considered and treated.

ASIS International’s observation stresses the continued need to address security-related risks whether as part of ERM or separately. The term enterprise security risk management seems just another one with which to refer to the same activities as described earlier.

In a report about the emerging security industry by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), Stevens (2004, p. 31) states that increased security requirements impact on businesses in both positive and negative ways. According to Stevens (2004, p. 31), in the United States in the fiscal year 2003 major corporations allocated in the order of 46 to 76 billion US Dollars to security. Often this was as a result of creating more in-house security departments (Stevens, 2004, p. 31). This view is in a way supported by Borodzicz (2006, p. 51) who points out that more organisations use

security specialists. Whilst increased security often benefits business, finding sufficient funds to support security is often challenging. Figure 3.1, adopted from Strom et al. (2010, p. 4.12), provides an overview of the number of corporate or proprietary security personnel by industry in the US in 2009:

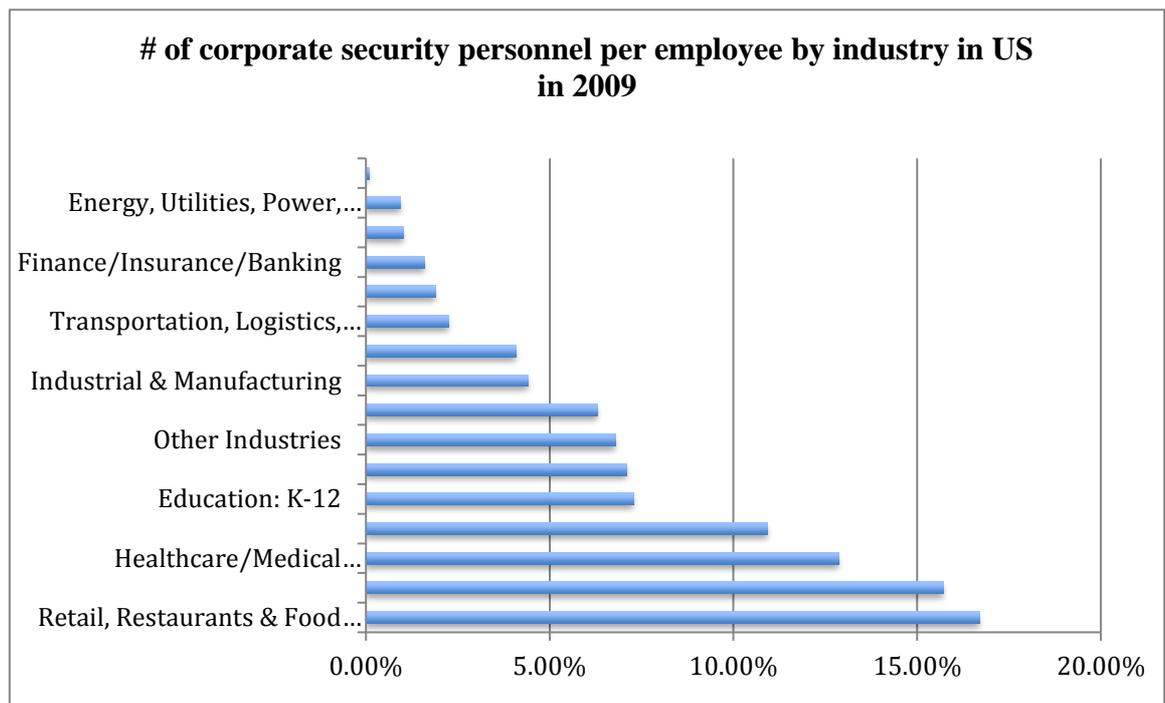


Figure 3.1: Corporate security personnel in USA in 2009 by industry

Figure 3.1 illustrates that the distribution of corporate security personnel is uneven across industries. Some industries employ significantly more security personnel than do others; however, it is outside the scope of this thesis to examine the relative underlying reasons. Security risk management is not only active in the corporate sector, it is also well established in the not-for-profit sector, e.g. governments, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and inter-governmental organisations such as the United Nations organisations (see United Nations, n.d., para. 11) and European Union. The discipline of security risk management in not-for-profit organisations is by and large analogous to that in the for-profit sector. The European Central Bank provides an example:

The Security and Safety Division of the European Central Bank (ECB) operates a physical security and safety programme for the protection of ECB staff, critical functions and premises. It also actively supports the efforts of the ECB to ensure business continuity and plays an active role in the ECB's Crisis Management Team, as well as in the Assessment Team which advises the Crisis Management Team. (European Central Bank, 2016, para. 4)

InterAction, an alliance of more than 180 international non-governmental organisations based in the U.S. defines security risk management as follows:

SRM is an analytical procedure that assists in assessing the operational context of the NGO; and identifies the risk level of undesirable events that may affect personnel, assets, and operations; providing guidance on the implementation of solutions in the form of specific mitigation strategies and measures with the aim of lowering the risk levels for the NGO by reducing the impact and likelihood of an undesirable event. (InterAction, 2010, p. 6)

Humanitarian aid and international development organisations often work in some of the most complex and challenging environments, including conflict environments and disaster areas. Security risk management in humanitarian aid and international development has been tested repeatedly, and as a result it is rapidly progressing.

The discipline of security risk management has made significant progress in recent years, including but not limited to it being recognised as an essential part of business management. Walby and Lippert (2014a, p. 24) highlight:

The model of in-house corporate security, associated with the Ford Motor Company in the early twentieth century, is now a cornerstone of the biggest corporations on the planet.

Nonetheless, some concerns remain, for example, in relation to 'practical application, theory, education and training' in security risk management (Borodzicz & Gibson, 2006, p. 181). According to Petersen (2013, p. 224), efforts were made in business to 'professionalize the practice of 'security management' – to create a community of practice

or even to institutionalize the meaning of corporate security expertise'. However, while some progress has been made, the results seem mixed. For example, comparison was often drawn between the discipline of security risk management and traditional professions, and the formal requirements for professional recognition. Schön (2001) distinguishes between the traditional or major professions (e.g. law and medicine) as well as the so-called minor professions (e.g. social work and education).

While major professions are primarily concerned with scientifically-derived knowledge, minor professions are linked to experientially-derived knowledge to address practice matters. Security risk management relies on both scientific and experiential knowledge to inform and educate its practitioners hence it remains challenging to categorise the discipline; the latter limit its potential for professional recognition. To support the professional recognition of the security risk management discipline, the introduction of formal and standardised qualifications is required. To ensure that such formal and standardised qualifications are relevant, the multifunctionality of the discipline must to be taken into account. Formal and standardised qualifications can serve as a benchmark, against which the skills and knowledge of security risk management professionals are assessed. Borodzicz and Gibson (2006, p. 181) point out:

One reason why security is difficult to define is because of the nature of the field. Many corporate security activities are labelled or defined as something else.

Lippert et al. (2013, p. 206) state that 'Exactly what corporate security entails remains elusive'. Thus far, the discipline's multifunctionality appears to have been its worst enemy regarding a clear definition as well as professional recognition. Griffiths, Brooks, and Corkill (2010, p. 44) state that 'Characterising security risk management as an occupational discipline and clearly identifying what marks it out as a security profession is

complicated'. Attempts to define the discipline have taken note of its multidisciplinary character. Corporate security activities are manifold, including asset protection, computer security, investigations, and business continuity management. However, the actual roles and responsibilities of security departments or individual security risk management practitioners often depend on the arrangements within the employing organisation. There seems to be no "one size fits all" situation. Brooks (2010, p. 225), in an attempt to define security through knowledge categories, points out that security is rather the opposite of an integrated or single-disciplined occupation. By examining various undergraduate security courses Brooks (2010, pp. 231-232) identified 13 security knowledge categories:

- Criminology
- Business Continuity Management
- Facility Management
- Fire and Life Safety
- Industrial Security
- Information and Computing
- Investigations
- Physical Security
- Safety
- Security Risk Management
- Security Law
- Security Management
- Security Technology

The author reflects that security knowledge categories clearly place security risk management in an 'organisational or corporate security' context (Brooks, 2010, p. 237).

Security professionals (ASIS Foundation, 2009, cited by Strom et al., 2010, p. 2.3) identified 18 key activities of corporate security. Table 3.2, adapted from Strom et al. (2010, p. 2.3), lists the 18 core elements:

1	Physical security
2	Personnel security
3	Information systems security
4	Investigations
5	Loss prevention
6	Risk management
7	Legal aspects
8	Emergency and contingency planning
9	Fire protection
10	Crisis management
11	Disaster management
12	Counterterrorism
13	Competitive intelligence
14	Executive protection
15	Violence in the workplace
16	Crime prevention
17	Crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED)
18	Security architecture and engineering

Table 3.2: Eighteen core elements of corporate security

The information in above table again shows that security risk management is not a single-disciplined occupation; there are numerous activities that form the discipline. Earlier, it was noted McGee (2006, pp. 28-30) remarked that security risk management has considerably evolved since its inception, from mainly fire watch duties before 1960 to a now complex arrangement of functions. Borodzicz (2006, p. 51) commented that contemporary security departments assume responsibilities such as ‘situational crime prevention to highly elaborate corporate plans for management of crisis and disaster, internal (and external) audit, health and safety functions, the purchase of insurance and cyber-security’. Briggs and Edwards (2006, p. 13) add ‘reputation, corporate governance and regulation, corporate social responsibility’ to the list of tasks. ‘The list seems unending’ (Borodzicz & Gibson, 2006, p. 181). Borodzicz and Gibson (2006, p. 193) argued that ‘corporate security is an amalgam of disciplines, cutting across many but at home in none’.

Contemporary security risk management is a multifunctional practice. As organisations continue to develop and grow, there is a potential that further activities will be added to the discipline of security risk management. Considering the above-described elements of corporate security and the occupation’s role vis-à-vis the management of risks, it could be argued that the occupation is at home in the discipline of security risk management, and that therefore the term security risk management is better suited to label the occupation than other terms such as corporate security or security management.

Security risk management practitioners not only occupy diverse functions but also distinct roles, e.g. strategic and tactical (Hill, 2007, p. 134). This is much like in other occupations where practitioners work on different levels of hierarchy. According to Brooks and Corkill (2014, pp. 226-230), practitioners generally operate on the following levels:

- Frontline security management
- Mid-level security management
- Senior security management.

Nonetheless, not every organisation utilizes security risk management personnel on all these levels.

It is at least a decade ago that Briggs and Edwards (2006, p. 13) argued that to meet the requirements of today's business, corporate security 'must keep pace with their company's changing business environment and ensure that how they work, what they do and how they behave reflect these realities'. The authors' findings underscore the evolving nature of business and the need for security risk management to keep up with developments. Lippert et al. (2013, p. 206) make an important point by stating that compared with contract guard security, the practice of security risk management is not only more influential but also requires greater skills and knowledge. This is further stressed by Walby and Lippert (2014a, p. 24) in their argument that 'Corporate security units around the world seek to manage reputational, financial, and physical risks. The stakes are high'. The expectations on security risk management are high, especially in a changing business environment. Thus, security risk management practitioners must keep up with numerous developments and changes. Walby and Lippert (2014a, p. 24) state:

While corporate security might still conjure up the image of an ex-police officer hired to watch over employees and visitors from a dingy backroom, twenty-first century corporate security is increasingly central to organisations - high-tech, and professionalised.

Borodzicz and Gibson (2006, p. 182) view the practice of security risk management in essence as a management function, in which the emphasis is on the process rather than on the objective. In such situations approaching the matter simply from a technical, rational position might be limiting, for example, in relation to preparing security practitioners sufficiently for complicated or muddled practice situations. At this juncture, Thompson and Pascal (2012, p. 313) perceive the model of reflective practice as rather helpful in addressing limitations of technical, rational or traditional learning approaches.

3.3: Concept of reflective practice

This section outlines the second dimension of this study, reflective practice, which is an increasingly popular approach to professional learning. It begins with an introduction to reflective thinking and learning, followed by an overview of reflective practice in selected fields (e.g. health care and education). The section also discusses a reflective epistemology to security risk management to address the issues of professionalisation and professional learning in the discipline.

3.3.1: Introduction to reflective practice

Cogito ergo sum (“I think, therefore I am”)
René Descartes

Reflection is not just a contemporary activity (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 1985, p. 11); however, it is not easy to clearly establish when humans started to reflect on their thoughts and actions. Asselin, Schwartz-Barcott, and Osterman (2012, p. 2) state that reflection has been recognised for over 500 years. Newell (1994, p. 79) cited by Hannigan (2001, p. 278), on the other hand, argues that individuals deliberately contemplating about their activities

is ‘as old as religion or the idea of personhood’. While there is little doubt that reflection is a longstanding activity, reflection on professional practice or reflective practice is believed to be a comparatively recent one that has gained considerable interest in current years from both practitioners and academics across a variety of disciplines (see Clarke, James, & Kelly, 1996, p. 171; Stapleton Watson & Wilcox, 2000, p. 58).

The extent of works on reflective practice has resulted in an extensive amount of knowledge on the topic (Asselin et al., 2012, p. 2). Reflective practice remains most prominent in the disciplines of health care and education. Other disciplines with an interest in reflection and reflective practice include criminal justice (see O'Hara, 2012; Wingrave, 2011), sport and exercise sciences (see Burt & Morgan, 2014), and military science (see Paparone, 2014). Security-related disciplines also have an interest in the topic, i.e. homeland security and emergency management (Goldberg, 2012; Russel & Fisher, 2014).

Reflective practice is commonly understood as a ‘deliberate cognitive process’ (Lane, McMaster, Adnum, & Cavanagh, 2014, p. 481) that aims to aid professional practice and professional development. For example, ‘A common assumption is that reflective practice facilitates the ability to apply theory to practice and to learn from experience’ (Bruster & Peterson, 2013, p. 171). Pertaining to professional practice and professional development, the focus of reflective practice on learning professional experience contrasts with the well-known concept of technical rationality, which ‘holds that professionals possess specific, scientific, and standardized knowledge’ that applies to all practice situations (Hannigan, 2001, p. 279).

3.3.1.1: Reflective thinking

An early description of reflection comes from John Dewey (1933, p. 9), who viewed reflection as ‘the active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further consideration to which it tends’. Dewey’s work has had considerable influence on current understanding in relation to reflection as well as reflective practice, as pointed out by Boud et al. (1985, p. 11). Dewey was one of the first people to encourage both thinkers and practitioners to examine closely the influence of reflection on professional practice. Mezirow (1990) supports Dewey’s definitional basis of reflection on professional practice acknowledging, in particular, Dewey’s theoretical perspectives concerning adult learning.

All human action, other than that which is purely habitual or thoughtless, is thoughtful action, which involves consciously drawing on what one knows to guide one’s action. (Mezirow & Associates, 1990, p. 6)

Reflection is a conscious and deliberate activity. For Mezirow and Associates (1990, p. 6) performance ‘in thoughtful action involves a pause to reassess by asking, What am I doing wrong?’. Thus, reflection is a deliberate rather than an inadvertent attempt to examine one’s thoughts and actions to assess their use. There are also situations in which deliberately pausing and examining ones thoughts and actions is not feasible such as in emergency situations. In these situations, according to Mezirow and Associates (1990, p. 6), reflection becomes an inbuilt part of ‘thoughtful action’.

According to Procee (2006, p. 241) reflection has a ‘critical character’, because of its power to free ‘individuals, professional practices, and cultural groups’ from existing ‘technical, theoretical, political, and cultural powers’. Accordingly, reflection would allow individuals to question established norms or behavioural models. The ability of people to change is often confined by our established beliefs of the social world. Reflection offers a

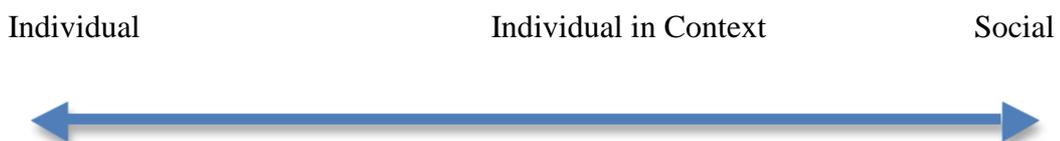
means to openly examine existing conditions with the aim of detecting areas of concern and to influence these to arrive at new thinking or action. Procee differentiates between reflection as an ‘exercise of judgement’ and reflection as an exercise of understanding (Procee, 2006, p. 249). Following Procee (2006, pp. 249-253), understanding refers to the formal learning processes and the abstract ‘content of a discipline’, whilst judgement relates to a critical examination of experiences that can facilitate a value-added individual learning process. According to Serafini (2000), cited by Procee (2006, p. 238), the concept of reflection, therefore, is in opposition to the concept of technical rationality.

Figure 3.2, adapted from Procee (2006, p. 239), illustrates Serafini’s *three dimensions of reflection*. According to Procee (2006, p. 238), the three dimensions are *purpose* (possible objectives of reflection), *process* (options of how to reflect), and *focus* (potential target of reflective action). The author (2006, p. 238) explains that ‘Each dimension represents a continuum between two extreme poles’; whereby ‘The left pole stresses the qualities of profession-related issues (“reflectivity,” to use Gur-Ze’ev et al.’s term) while the right pole stresses critical social issues (or “reflection”)’.

Purpose of reflection



Process of reflection



Focus on reflection





Figure 3.2: Serafini's three dimensions of reflection

Procee (2006, p. 239) stresses that 'The need to establish these distinctions makes it obvious that, in the concept of reflection, different and even contradictory meanings are at stake'. Reflection offers a valuable tool for individual as well as collaborative learning, ranging from professional to social issues.

3.3.1.2: Experiential learning and reflection on professional practice

As mentioned above, Dewey's (1997) work shaped much of today's understanding of reflection. According to Dewey, reflection is not a simple way of thinking (Finlay, 2008, p. 3). Boud et al. (1985, pp. 11-12) remark that Dewey viewed reflection on experience as a 'learning loop' which is characterised by constant interaction 'between the experience and the relationships being inferred'.

Reflection involves not simply a sequence of ideas, but a *consequence* – a consecutive ordering in such a way that each determines the next as its proper outcome, while each in turn leans back on its predecessors. (Dewey, 1997, p. 2)

Dewey acknowledged two essentially different experiential learning procedures: trial and error, and reflection on experience (Boud et al., 1985, pp. 11-12). The authors state, that according to Dewey, the former approach would typically lead to fairly imprecise results, whilst the latter would allow 'effective problem-solving to take place' and contribute to learning (Boud et al., 1985, p. 12).

As indicated earlier, reflection on professional practice appears to be a more recent activity. According to Clarke et al. (1996, p. 172), reflection on professional practice started to receive greater attention in the early 1980s. Triggers for an interest in the concept were provided by social theorists such as Donald Schön (1983) and David Kolb (1984), who also had a considerable influence on the current understanding of experiential learning as well as reflection. Schön's written works contributed in particular to today's understanding of reflection and its relationship to professional knowledge (Clarke et al., 1996, p. 172). Schön's seminal work *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action* is an investigation of professional knowledge with a particular focus on 'the kind of knowing in which competent practitioners engage' (Schön, 1983, p. viii). Schön described the rise of professions within society in the early 1960s, and the then prevailing concern about those professions' capacity to meet the expectations of the general public. Schön (1983, pp. 19-20) argued that, more often than not, professionals are 'unable to account for processes they have come to see as central to professional competence'. He believed that in general, practitioners are not able to satisfactorily explain some of their "routine activities" in which they engage at work. The author subsequently developed a theory that routine workplace activity would habitually be guided by a special knowledge, a "tacit knowledge" (Schön, 1983).

Having been discontent with the approach of technical rationality, which was viewed as the then 'dominant epistemology of practice' (Schön, 1983, p. 22), the author argued that 'our knowing is *in* our action', and that consequently a person's knowledge in relation to everyday situations emerges in a "special way" (Schön, 1983, p. 49). The author (1983, p. 49) further argued that practitioners are guided by such indispensable tacit knowledge. Schön even claimed that if technical rational skills and knowledge are applied in a practice situation, the practitioner would still need to rely on his/her implicit and insightful

awareness and ‘skilful performances’ (Schön, 1983, p. 50). From the authors’ point of view reflection on practice is essential:

It is this entire process of reflection-in-action which is central to the “art” by which practitioners sometimes deal well with situations of uncertainty, instability, uniqueness, and value conflict. (Schön, 1983, p. 50)

Schön argued that everybody thinks in action while going about his or her workplace activities. According to Schön (1983, p. 50), this would enable practitioners to obtain the needed clarity to make sense of an activity.

Following Asselin et al. (2012, p. 1), reflection on practice is a ‘deliberate cognitive process of looking back and thinking’. Schön explained:

When we go about the spontaneous, intuitive performance of the actions of everyday life, we show ourselves to be knowledgeable in a special way. (Schön, 1983, p. 49)

The author (1983, p. 49) named this special knowledge “tacit knowledge”, and argued that it is central to our action - ‘our knowing is in our action’. Following Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1980), however, not every practitioner is immediately capable of spontaneous, intuitive and skilled action. The authors (1980, p. 15) argue that, instead, only “expert” or “master” practitioners would possess intuitive proficiency.

In Table 3.3, an overview is provided of Dreyfus and Dreyfus’ (1980, p. 15) well-known model of skill acquisition. This matrix model includes four mental tasks (recollection, recognition, decision and awareness) and relates those to professional expertise (novice, competent, proficient, expert and master). According to the authors (1980, p. 16) the state

of professional expertise as well as experience must be considered when addressing a practitioner’s professional development.

Skill Level \ Mental Function	Novice	Competent	Proficient	Expert	Master
Recollection	Non-situational	Situational	Situational	Situational	Situational
Recognition	Decomposed	Decomposed	Holistic	Holistic	Holistic
Decision	Analytical	Analytical	Analytical	Intuitive	Intuitive
Awareness	Monitoring	Monitoring	Monitoring	Monitoring	Absorbed

Table 3.3: Dreyfus and Dreyfus’ five-stage model of the mental activities involved in directed skill acquisition

The table illustrates various skill levels and mental functions pertaining to professional practice. It also illustrates the skill development process. According to Johns (1998, p. 1), Dreyfus and Dreyfus acknowledged the influence of ‘past concrete experience’ on the expert practitioner when it relates to intuitive response in a practice situation. This is supported by Klein (1999), who researches in the field of naturalistic decision making.

Many people think of intuition as an inborn trait – something we are born with. I am not aware of any evidence showing that some people are blessed with intuition, and others are not. My claim ... is that intuition grows out of experience. (Klein, 1999, p. 33)

Klein highlights the importance of experience in relation to tacit knowledge.

In relation to learning from experience, Borredon, Deffayet, Baker and Kolb (2011, p. 326) refer to the American educational theorist David Kolb. Kolb (1984, p. 41) argues that

learning is ‘the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience’. Experience plays a major role in learning, an important quality of the human species.

Human beings are unique among all living organisms in that their primary adaptive specialization lies not in some particular physical form or skill or fit in an ecological niche, but rather in identification with the process of adaptation itself – in the process of learning. (Kolb, 1984, p. 2)

Thus, learning is our most critical skill. Learning can take place in different ways, and learning from experience is one of these ways. According to Kolb (1984, p. 20), experiential learning theory departs significantly from other learning processes, above all the traditional learning processes. From the perspective of Kolb (1984, p. 20), a major difference between learning from experience and the ‘rationalist and other cognitive theories of learning’ is the interaction of ‘consciousness and subjective experience in the learning process’. According to Kolb (1984, p. 27), learning is a ‘continuous process grounded in experience’. Every individual’s experience is somewhat distinct, and so is the resultant learning process. Drawing considerably on Lewin’s (1951) experiential learning model Kolb depicts learning from experience as a four-stage process (Boud et al., 1985, p. 12), whereby the learning process (or cycle) commences with an immediate experience that prompts a cognitive process which then leads to formation of abstract concepts. These abstract concepts then inform a response to the experience encountered. This response or reaction must then be tested in action. According to Kolb, the outcome of this process often results in a new experience, which triggers a renewed experiential learning cycle. Experiential learning is a continuous process. Figure 3.3 presents an illustration of Kolb’s description of the experiential learning cycle (1984, p. 21):

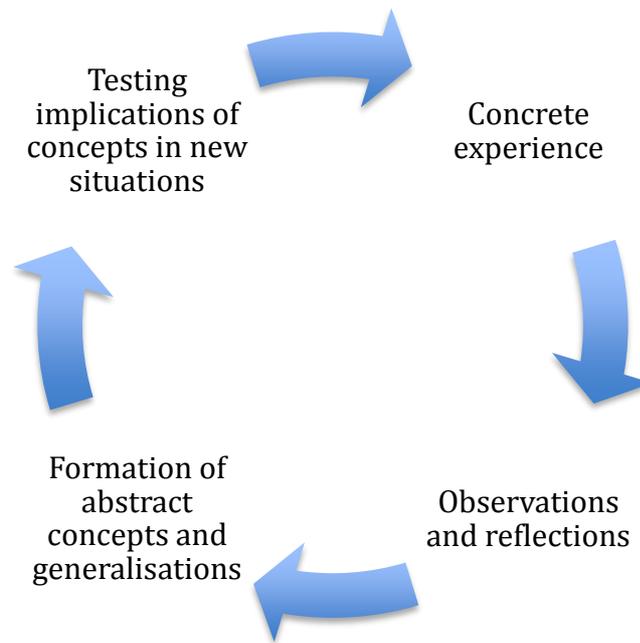


Figure 3.3: Kolb's description of the learning cycle

3.3.1.3: Criticism and definitions

While reflective practice has been widely established, the theory is not entirely uncontested. Kinsella (2007, p. 395), for example, refers to a 'tremendous conceptual and practical confusion surrounding interpretations of reflective practice and philosophical assumptions underlying the theory'. Kinsella (2009, p. 5) cites numerous authors who raise concern about usage of the term and the theory of reflective practice. More recently the scholars Mann and Walsh (2013, p. 292) argued that 'while reflective practice (RP) has established itself as a ubiquitous presence in professional education and practice, its current status is not supported by detailed, systematic and data-led description of either its nature or value'. The authors, as numerous others, criticize amongst other issues the lack of an adequate definition as well as limited empirical evidence that supports the claims the theory makes. McLaughlin (1999, p. 9), cited by Kinsella (2009, p. 4), for example, argues

that the term “reflective practitioner” is often used as a vague slogan rather than a concept whose meaning and implications are well thought through and worked out’. Kinsella notes:

Different researchers, educators, and practitioners frame reflective practice and its applications in distinct ways, emphasizing one dimension of the theory, while ignoring another. (Kinsella, 2009, p. 5)

The origins and influence of reflective practice are described by Kilminster, Zukas, Bradbury, and Frost (2010, p. 2):

Although reflective practice was originally introduced as a way to address well-documented problems in professional practice, it was adapted by many health and social care professional educators and professional bodies as the accepted approach for the development of emerging and/or experienced professionals. In this sense, reflective practice moved quickly from the margins of educational and organisational theory to the mainstream of professional education and development practice.

The absence of a commonly agreed definition of reflective practice remains a major concern, also, as it facilitates the emergence of different or individualized interpretations of the concept. It also removes any possible boundaries in relation to the concept’s application and value. Several descriptions of reflective practice are provided below.

Sebok (2014) states:

... the term ‘reflective practice’ can have various connotations, broadly speaking reflective practice refers to a person’s ability to think, interpret and question an event or activity by exploring associated thoughts, feelings or behaviours. (Sebok, 2014, p. 449)

Following Moon (2013, pp. 79-80), the concept of reflection is currently denoted by the following terms: reflection, reflective learning, reflective writing and reflective practice.

Moon (2013, p. 80) remarks that the process of reflection relates to learning and thinking.

Consequently reflective learning is a method of learning based on reflection (Moon, 2013,

p. 80). For Moon (2013, p. 80), reflective practice is subsequently a 'professionalised form' of reflective learning.

The UK's Chartered Society of Physiotherapy provides the following description:

Reflective practice is a process by which you: stop and think about your practice, consciously analyse your decision making and draw on theory and relate it to what you do in practice. (The Chartered Society of Physiotherapy, 2014, para. 1)

The Chartered Society of Physiotherapy's description appears to focus on practitioners rather than academics or others. From my point of view, a more inclusive description is provided by Finlay (2008, p. 1), a practising integrative-existential psychotherapist:

In general, reflective practice is understood as the process of learning through and from experience towards gaining new insights of self and/or practice ... This often involves examining assumptions of everyday practice. It also tends to involve the individual practitioner in being self-aware and critically evaluating their own responses to practice situations. The point is to recapture practice experiences and mull them over critically in order to gain new understandings and so improve future practice.

Kilminster et al. (2010) raise an interesting and rather valid issue, the current focus on the individual in reflective practice.

Definitions of reflection (which are often implicit) focus on the individual's internal thought processes and responsibility for their actions. The individual – what they did/thought/felt – is emphasised with little recognition of context, power dynamics or ideological challenge. Nor is there encouragement to critically evaluate professional practice such as health care and health-care delivery. In other words, there is little or no acknowledgement of the material reality in which the individual works. (Kilminster et al., 2010, p. 3)

Despite the prevailing criticism and concerns about the theory of reflective practice, it still remains a major concept in relation to the enhancement of professional practice and professional development.

3.3.2: Reflective practice in selected occupations

The origins of reflective practice are in education (Reynolds, 2011, p. 5). Reflective practice has in recent years gained extensive interest from academics and practitioners from a range of disciplines (Stapleton Watson & Wilcox, 2000, p. 58). However, reflective practice remains most prominent in nursing and teaching. The existing interest in the theory has resulted in a significant body of knowledge on the topic (Asselin et al., 2012, p. 2). In spite of some criticism the concept is widely supported, especially in relation to improving professional practice and professional development (Ottesen, 2007, p. 31; Ruth-Sahd, 2003, p. 488; Teekman, 2000, p. 1125).

3.3.2.1: Reflective practice in health care

In health care, reflective practice is employed across many disciplines, for example in clinical physiology, nursing, and even theological practice in health care (a crossover practice to theology). Within the discipline, reflective practice is leading in the practice of nursing. Across health care, reflective practice has established itself by becoming a key educational and development tool (Lavery, 2012, p. 131; Teekman, 2000, p. 1125). In some countries, reflective practice has even been introduced as a ‘formal requirement’ in health care certification, according to Mann et al. (2009, p. 596). Mann et al. (2009, p. 596) also argue that the key drivers for a wide-ranging inclusion of reflective practice in health care are:

- To use relevant experience successfully in order to build professional capacity
- To be aware of personal views in professional situations to enhance learning

- To relate novel and existing information in order to create comprehensive knowledge.

As in many other occupations, workplace demands in health care are ever increasing; this appears to contribute to the attractiveness of reflective practice, as it is widely perceived to offer a means successfully to address workplace challenges. Ghaye (2000, p. 7), for example, argued that ‘Maybe reflective practices offer us a way of trying to make sense of the uncertainty in our workplaces and the courage to work competently and ethically at the edge of order and chaos’. Health care practice is frequently confusing and challenging, and there are many practice situations that cannot really be successfully addressed through the application of technical skills and technical knowledge. In addition, in health care reflective practice is perceived as offering a means successfully to navigate the *swampy lowlands* of professional practice. Asselin et al. (2012, p. 5), who researched the use of reflective practice amongst experienced nurses, provide the following example:

Situations that triggered the reflective process were predominately ones that the nurse had assessed as needing immediate nursing and/or medical intervention (e.g. a paediatric code, a man jumping out of a window, the family dynamics surrounding a new teenage mother in a neonatal unit).

Practitioners across many occupations, including health care, are not necessarily prepared in their traditional training or education for emergency type like those mentioned by Asselin et al. (2012). Asselin et al. (2012, p. 8) identified “reflection-on-action” as the dominant type of reflective practice among experienced nurses, a concept that is attributed to the social theorist Donald Schön (1983). Table 3.4, adapted from Teekman (2000, p. 1126), lists two reflective concepts that were proposed by Schön (1983):

Type of reflection	How to go about it
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Reflection-in-action	'Reflection-in-action refers to the reflective thinking one is doing while one is doing the action.' ¹
Reflection-on-action	'Reflection-on-action occurs, in contrast to reflection-in-action, after the experience has taken place.' ²

Table 3.4: Reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action

The two concepts are used in different situations. For example, Hannigan (2001, p. 280) reports that reflection-on-action plays an important role in nursing student evaluation. Assessing the value of reflective practice in nursing, Hannigan (2001, p. 281) states that nurses often labour in swampy lowlands, a figure of speech coined by Schön (1983). Schön (1983, p. 42) argued:

The swampy lowlands, where situations are confusing messes incapable of technical solution and usually involve problems of greatest human concern.

According to Schön, non-traditional learning methods typically do not provide fitting mechanisms to practitioners to successfully tackle such situations. Hannigan (2001, pp. 281-282) argues that nurses will eventually stumble upon such workplace situations for which there are no traditional solutions available; these will necessitate him/her to think on 'one's feet and acting accordingly'. Reflective practice is thus perceived as very valuable in especially nursing, but also in health care in general.

Table 3.5, provided by Goulet, Larue, and Alderson (2015, p. 9), presents selected definitions of reflective practice in nursing:

¹ (Teekman, 2000, p. 1126)

² (Teekman, 2000, p. 1126)

Author	Definition
Gentile (2012)	“A deliberate process that actively engages an individual in exploring his or her experiences. The exploration of decisions, thoughts, and feelings should inform and improve practice.”
Cleary et al. (2013)	“Reflection processes engage intellectual and affective abilities of individuals as they explore experiences so that they can gain further insights into interactions, behaviours, and responses and improve a similar situation in key ways in the future (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 1985). It is a multifaceted process (not a simple product) in which a person’s cognitive and emotional capacities are activated for constructive learning purposes that may result in attitudinal or behavioural changes.”
Johns (2010)	“The practitioner’s ability to access, make sense of and learn through work experience, to achieve more desirable, effective and satisfying work.”

Table 3.5: Definitions of Reflective Practice in nursing

The definitions provided above underscore some of the challenges outlined in the previous section. However, they also suggest that in general the focus is on improving professional practice.

3.3.2.2: Reflective practice in education

As in health care reflective practice in education is employed across a range of subject disciplines, including but not limited to teacher education, legal education, management education, and nurse and social work education (both of which represent crossovers to

reflective practice in health and social care). Reflective practice has become a core subject in the field of education. For example, in the United States ‘policy makers and teacher education programmes have committed themselves to preparing teachers to be reflective practitioners’ (Bruster & Peterson, 2013, p. 170).

Reflective practice serves many purposes in education, for example as a teaching method to enhance students’ performances (see Belvis, Pineda, Armengol, & Moreno, 2013). In teacher education, for example, extensive research has been conducted to explicate the usefulness of reflective practice (Lane et al., 2014, p. 482). In the main, reflective practice in education is seen as valuable, particularly in relation to improving teaching practice. According to Lane et al. (2014, p. 482) ‘Reflective practice is considered necessary if teachers are to learn from their own teaching experiences and the experience of others’. This view suggests that traditional learning methods have their limitations at least in education, and that reflective practice offers to fill a gap – to learn from experience. The value of reflective practice is, however, not limited to teachers. For example, Tillman (2003) cited by Jensen-Hart, Shuttleworth and Davis (2014, p. 369) found that critical reflective practice also assists students in addressing issues.

Table 3.6, provided by Goulet et al. (2015, p. 9), lists some definitions of reflective practice in education:

Author	Definition
Reynolds (2011)	“[T]hinking about past or ongoing experience of events, situations or actions so as to make sense of them, potentially with a view to informing future choices, decisions or actions. In so doing, we draw on existing ideas—our own or other people’s—and in applying them to our experience, may confirm these ideas or

	develop new ones.”
Ryder (2012)	“The individual, in order to make the transition from one level to another, must ‘think about the knowledge he or she has acquired, or the experiences he or she has undergone, and strive to introduce them into a new structure’ (Korthagen and Lagerwerf, op.cit.: 176).”
Kaasila and Lauriala (2012)	“[A] teacher’s tendency to engage in a conscious process of identifying problematic issues in his/ her practice and pursuing solutions that bring about valued effects for student learning (Copeland et al. 1993).”

Table 3.6: Definitions of Reflective Practice in education

As in nursing, a range of definitions of reflective practice is available in education. This contributes to the challenge to clearly understand what the concept is about and what are its limits of application.

3.3.2.3: Reflective practice in other vocations

Despite its dominance in nursing and teaching the application of reflective practice is not limited to these disciplines. Other disciplines utilizing reflective practice are, for example, social care (see Kinsella, 2009, p. 3), criminal justice and policing (see O'Hara, 2012; Wingrave, 2011), sport and exercise sciences (see Burt & Morgan, 2014) and military science (see Paparone, 2014). In her journal article on reflective practice in the work of prison officers, social care practitioners, and gardaí in Ireland, O’Hara states:

Reflective practice can be the cornerstone for frontline professionals by equipping and enabling them to be competent and capable of addressing misbehaviours, detecting and eliminating abuses and reducing criminal activity and violence, therefore creating a better life and society for the vulnerable children/people that they find themselves working with. (O'Hara, 2012, p. 50)

The example provided by O'Hara shows that the value of reflective practice extends beyond its traditional sphere, education and nursing. Wingrave further supports this perception. In his research on reflective practice in policing, Wingrave (2011, p. 10) found that 'reflection is an essential process by which [police] students develop policing skills. Reflection was also identified as an effective means by which training interventions could be invoked'. To add to the benefits provided by reflective practice in other occupations, Russel and Fisher (2014, p. 23) for example state that 'Reflective thinking and journaling are well-suited for emergency services and homeland security education where many of the learners are practitioners and non-traditional students.' Reflective practice is fast extending outside its traditional fields, adding valuable insight into the usefulness of the concept. It is expected that the findings of this study will further contribute to our understanding of reflective practice.

3.3.3: Reflective epistemology to security risk management

The question whether security risk management is a profession or not has been raised numerous times in recent years. Pepper (2003, p. 1) considered security management in New Zealand's private security industry, and found the occupation would not qualify as a profession at that time. More recently Griffiths et al. (2010, p. 1) stated that to qualify as a profession the discipline of security risk management, like any other occupation, ought to meet clear and established standards.

In relation to professional recognition, Schön (2001, p. 5) refers to distinctions that are typically drawn between the so-called traditional or "major" professions (e.g. medical and legal practice) and "minor" professions (e.g. social work, theology and education). It has

been argued that so-called minor professions ‘have tried to substitute a basis in scientific knowledge for their traditional reliance on experienced practice’ (Schön, 2001, p. 5). By tradition the major professions were first and foremost using scientifically derived knowledge to inform practice and to educate their practitioners. Minor professions, on the other hand, were perceived to develop their problem solving on experientially-derived knowledge rather than through scientific knowledge.

Schön (1988) remarks that the distinction between the major, including “*near-major*”, professions and the minor professions is mainly based on the concept of technical rationality. Technical rationality is principally concerned with the effective application of technical skills and technical knowledge in workplace situations. Schön’s (1987, pp. 3-4) perspective of the concept of technical rationality is ‘that practitioners are instrumental problem solvers, who select technical means best suited to particular purposes. Rigorous professional practitioners solve well-formed instrumental problems by applying theory and technique derived from systematic preferably scientific knowledge’. According to Schön, practitioners in the minor professions perhaps lack the ability to employ systematic or scientific knowledge to address practice situations (Schön, 2001, p. 5). Following Smith (1998) Schön is fairly critical of attempts to link ‘engineering-type problem-solving approaches’ with non-technical or social issues. For Schön, the two contexts are very different. This view is shared by Rolfe, Freshwater, and Jasper (2001, p. 7), who argued that technical rationality, if applied too stringently, has the potential to diminish practitioners ‘to the level of technicians whose only role is to implement the research findings and theoretical models of the scientists, researchers and theoreticians’. Practitioners are capable of more than just applying technical skills and theory to practice. According to Kinsella (2010, p. 7), ‘at the heart of the theory of reflective practice are important epistemological questions about the dominance of technical rationality as it

relates to conceptions of professional practice knowledge’.

The attempts to professionalise security are ongoing (Petersen, 2013, p. 224) however, thus far, only with limited success. The most influential model to classify professions still remains that model related to major and minor professions. Borodzicz and Gibson (2006, p. 194) remark that ‘If security is a management art rather than a pure science, then it must be measured by subjective rather than objective means’. If we approach the issue of professionalisation from this perspective, we must acknowledge the matter and value of new learning tools in the practice of security risk management, instead of merely depending on traditional methods to train and educate practitioners. Thompson and Pascal (2012, p. 313) contend that a rigid application of technical rationality does not consider the issue of originality that is often found in professional practice, and it would also suggest that professionals are ‘unthinking follower[s] of instruction and procedures’. Thompson and Pascal (2012, p. 313) further argue that reflective practice offers a method to move ‘away from traditional approaches to learning, with their emphasis on ‘technical rationality’’ towards a more integrated approach to professional learning and professional practice.

3.4: Professional perspectives

In this section security practitioners who are the focus of this study are introduced. The academic literature and some of the interview data will be considered in order to examine the key responsibilities and concerns that confront these professionals in their working lives. An assessment of security risk management practitioners’ key responsibilities and concerns is helpful; it assists in recognizing the importance of relevant professional and workplace issues that in one way or another contribute to security risk management practitioners’ reflectiveness. This section is divided into four subsections and addresses

security risk management practitioners' occupational backgrounds, recent developments in the discipline, and their operational and security concerns.

3.4.1: Professional backgrounds of security risk management practitioners

On ClearanceJobs.com, a US-based employment network for individuals with security clearances, Fowler remarks:

What kinds of backgrounds make the best transition to the security management field? ... Traditionally, there are three paths for establishing a successful career in the security profession — military, law enforcement or entry-level corporate security ... Military or law enforcement professionals often benefit from formal education and training as part of their service. They typically have years of experience and have held positions with much responsibility. (Fowler, 2008, para. 3-4)

In this study as in others, (Borodzicz & Gibson, 2006, p. 190; Briggs & Edwards, 2006, p. 78) the data supports the concept that many security risk management practitioners come from the military or police. In this study, research participants also have their origin in non-security occupations, e.g. civil aviation and journalism. Figure 3.4, adapted from Briggs and Edwards (2006, p. 79), illustrates the professional backgrounds of corporate security managers in the United States of America:

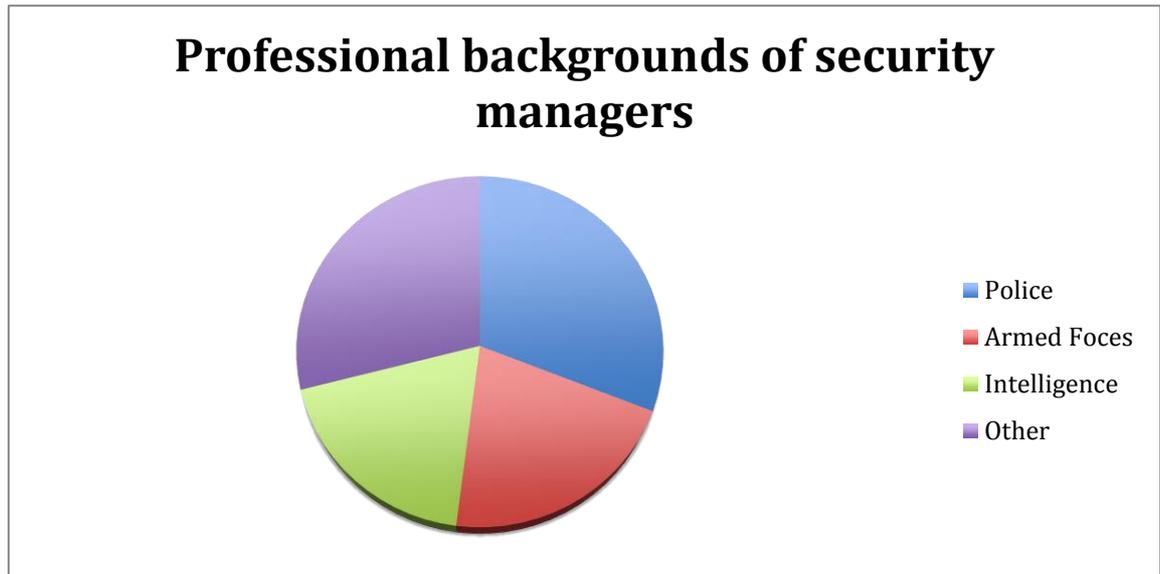


Figure 3.4: Professional backgrounds of security managers

The above figure shows the results of a survey conducted in the USA in 2006. It indicates that 31% of surveyed security managers came from Police backgrounds, 21% had Armed Forces backgrounds, 19% were from Intelligence backgrounds, and 29% were from other occupations (Armstrong, Whiting & Cavanagh, 2003, cited by Briggs & Edwards, 2006, p.79). The considerable presence of former state security personnel is notable. Ocqueteau (2011, para. 65), a senior researcher, states that ‘Within the security management of public institutions or companies from “vital” sectors as well as others, we can observe the almost systematic presence of at least a second-in-command, right-hand-man from the military or gendarmerie attached to the holder of the civil or police post’. Although, in this doctoral study, research participants were not selected based on their previous professional backgrounds, it was found that 11 research participants have a military background and 4 have a police background.

A review of the literature indicates that not only in security risk management do practitioners join from other disciplines. In a related occupation the state of affairs is rather

similar, that of health, safety and the environment (HSE). Budworth and Shihab Ghanem Al Hashemi (2014) remarked that:

Many HSE practitioners have not actually studied safety or environmental engineering or sciences as a base degree or diploma. Many have risen through other technical disciplines, perhaps with a safety element, or have exercised that discipline in an industry sector with the need for considerable control of high hazards ... Safety, health and environmental management are most often second or third careers for practitioners. (Budworth & Shihab Ghanem Al Hashemi, 2014, p. 50)

This indicates that there are similarities between health, safety and environment practitioners and security risk management practitioners. For example, like numerous security risk management practitioners, many health and safety practitioners have joined their current occupation from another occupation. Often they have joined from adjacent disciplines where they have gained extensive skills or knowledge that relates in one way or another to their current occupational activity, and this is seen as useful (see Fowler, 2008). This study will show that security risk management practitioners often draw on experiences from past functions.

3.4.2: Developments in security risk management

The review of the relevant literature indicates that the practice of security risk management has evolved significantly in recent years. Ten years ago, Borodzicz and Gibson (2006, p. 181) pointed out that 'Security is now a key aspect of contemporary organizational management, in both public and private sectors'. This view is supported by Briggs and Edwards (2006, p. 96), who conclude that 'In the last five years security has risen up the corporate agenda'. This affirmative trend continues to date. Security risk management assumes ever more essential roles in the management of organisational activities. For example, security risk management in humanitarian aid agencies - also referred to as

humanitarian security - experienced significant progress in the past decade. Price (2014, p. 48) found that 'Aid agency security risk management is an evolving discipline that has developed over the past 15 years'. Security risk management practice in humanitarian aid and international development is largely akin to security risk management in for-profit enterprises. Renouf (2011, pp. 210-211) describes humanitarian security as follows:

Collective approaches that ensure humanitarian aid agencies safely access and support vulnerable populations in their own recovery. While also ensuring that aid agencies' staff, programmes, assets and reputation are protected as much as is possible from real or perceived threats.

In this doctoral study research participants were asked about their views with regard to the development of security risk management. The overarching view is that security risk management has considerably evolved as a result of greater responsibilities and greater professionalisation within the discipline. For example, research participants expressed the following views:

RP 07: 'I would say that the responsibilities of the security sector are much higher than they were. The potential losses are much more serious and the requirements of the professionalization of the security manager is much more intense.'

RP 09: 'So it has evolved to the point that even non-professionals have a little understanding of what security risk assessment, for example, is or what security plan, for example, is. Then this makes it a little bit easier for security professionals and then for the staff members as well because they now know why they are doing what.'

RP 10: '... we're going to have to talk about humanitarian security, because that is the security profession I know. So back in '93 and for some years after that, it was very little, we had no policies or proper guidelines. We had a few SOPs. We were very short on staffing. It was very much a one-person show. I'll give an example. I was chief of security in Liberia, when Charles Taylor waved goodbye, I flew in the next day. And basically, the direction the [employing organisation] was going in on security was what I had in my gut feeling. And this, of course, has evolved greatly all these years. We've got a lot of policies. Within the organisation, there is more emphasis on security. ... the security discipline has become more of a profession. It's more of a profession compared to more of a person, if you understand what I mean.'

RP 10 outlined changes that have taken place with regard to security risk management in humanitarian aid organisations. The research participant pointed out that humanitarian security has evolved from an individual driven arrangement deficient in terms of personnel and strategy towards a more institutionalized practice. Analogous developments have taken place in the corporate sector. Briggs and Edwards (2006, p. 78), citing Martin Broughton, Chairman of British Airways (2004-2013), remind us of the ‘old corporate cop who applied the skills of his former life, much as he would have done before, yet without a measured understanding of the new context’. With regard to the humanitarian aid industry, Renouf (2011, p. 31) points out:

While security management was somewhat ad hoc until the late 1990s, the combination of incidents lead to a greater awareness that more structured and informed procedures were needed. This in turn, led to a professionalization of humanitarian security risk management.

The initial limitations were also noted by Price (2014, p. 13) who argues that ‘Despite a proliferation of aid organisations working in situations of conflict natural disaster since the Second World War, formal security risk management approaches were largely neglected within the aid sector’.

It has also been noted that, in the past, security risk management and security risk management practitioners have enjoyed rather limited acceptance. The reasons for that seem multi-faceted, but also appear to be related to how security practitioners approached the management of security-related risk. It seems, generally, that security risk management practitioners were limited in their resources to support organisational objectives. Today, security risk management is more advanced, which in the main seems to have contributed to a more positive attitude towards the practice and its practitioners. RP 06 explains:

You know, before, management would have no idea who you [security] were or what you were doing. Our practices have changed. They're [security] far more nuanced now to programme and enabling, versus being restrictive.

In the past the “old-guard” type security manager often vetoed activities that he perceived as too risky. Perhaps out of fear of the unknown, limited resources, or even an incomplete understanding of the threats and risks involved. Briggs and Edwards (2006, p. 78) succinctly state:

For many years corporate security has been dominated by a ‘defensive’ approach, focused on protection and loss prevention. The head of security was seen as little more than the ‘guard at the gate’, someone whose actions invariably stopped people doing their jobs instead of enabling the business to function more effectively.

The prevailing belief is that contemporary approaches to security risk management are noticeably different from those in the past. They are not only more developed but also more focused on “enabling” business activities.

The security professionals, Merkelbach and Pascal (2011, p. 53), point out that ‘absolute safety and security cannot be achieved, nor should this be the objective; programme implementation is the ultimate goal and risk management assists in achieving this’. This statement highlights that, nowadays, organisations are willing to accept greater risks to achieve their business objectives. The focus has shifted from avoiding risks to reducing risks and programme implementation. As a result greater professionalisation and expertise is required with regards to security risk management.

3.4.3: Operational concerns in security risk management

In this study as in others (Securitas Security Services USA, 2013), resource mobilization, e.g. security budgets, and the fostering of security cultures are some of the greatest

operational concerns for security risk management practitioners. Excerpts from the primary data help in grounding this belief.

RP 06: ‘... my conversations are very rarely about just pure safety and security, it's about how do you budget for this, how do you keep the security overhead covered when everything else is getting cut.’

RP 08: ‘... promoting the security culture. Without doubt. We don't have a budget. So that is a concern, but it's less of a concern. Our real estate department holds the budget for security items, shall we say.’

RP 10: ‘It's, of course, the resources that decide for security. In my job, that's a big concern to me. And it's especially hard to get senior managers to set aside resources when they haven't been proven that there is a major risk. Of course, after incidents there is no problem with getting money, but that's too late. So budgets is a great concern.’

RP 16: ‘So I think the security culture was when I first came my biggest concern.’

RP 18: ‘So probably my greatest concerns would be the ability to inject or operate effectively in a security culture because of a lot of the conflicting aspects that are out there all the time; budgets are a problem.’

RP 19: ‘I think where you have a culture where security is well ingrained, is embroiled within everything that that organisation does, then there is funding available for security support, but if you don't have that culture then it does hit, or impinge, on the ability to fund security support when it's most needed. So having the lack of budget, the continuous struggle with getting a good security risk culture is, I think, some of the main blockers at that operational level for me.’

Security risk management practitioners face a range of operational challenges in their day-to-day activities. Table 3.7, adopted from Securitas Security Services USA (2013, p. 5), provides an overview of the most pressing management concerns of corporate security executives in the USA:

Operational Issues of Greatest Concern to Corporate Security Executives	
1	Budget/Maximizing Return On Investment
2	Promoting Employee Awareness
3	Security Staffing Effectiveness: Training Effectiveness/Methods

4	Implementing Best Practices/Standards/Key Performance Indicators
5	Threat Assessments

Table 3.7: Operational issues of greatest concern to corporate security executives

Although the data presented in the above table reflects mainly the concerns of for-profit security managers in the US, the data obtained in this doctoral study suggests that security risk management practitioners share similar operational or management concerns. These operational issues are comparable with my own concerns in my role as regional security coordinator in one of the world's largest volunteer-based international humanitarian organisations.

3.4.4: Security concerns of security risk management practitioners'

The research participants in this study were also asked about their main security concerns. The primary objective of security risk management is to mitigate security-related risks to organisations, including their employees, assets, information and operational activities. Security risk management practitioners' security concerns are often multi-faceted and complex. The authors of the *The In Amenas Attack* report stated:

Understanding security risk is a cornerstone of effective security management. Security risks stem from threats that could harm the people, assets and operations of an organisation. Behind these security threats are people with malicious intent and the ability to adapt and respond to protective measures. A proper understanding of their intent and capability cannot be derived from hard data only. Security threats can therefore be difficult to predict and involve a high degree of uncertainty. (Statoil, 2013, p. 75)

Some years prior to the In Amenas attack against a Statoil facility in Algeria, Borodzicz (2006, p. 49) stated that there are greater threats to commercial activity than, for example,

acts of terrorism. Security threats are typically dependent on a variety of factors, including but not limited to the organisation, organisational activities or business objectives, socio-economic or politico-military environment, and threats. Figure 3.5, adapted from Securitas Security Services USA (2013, p. 6), shows the 15 greatest security concerns to corporations in the USA in 2012:

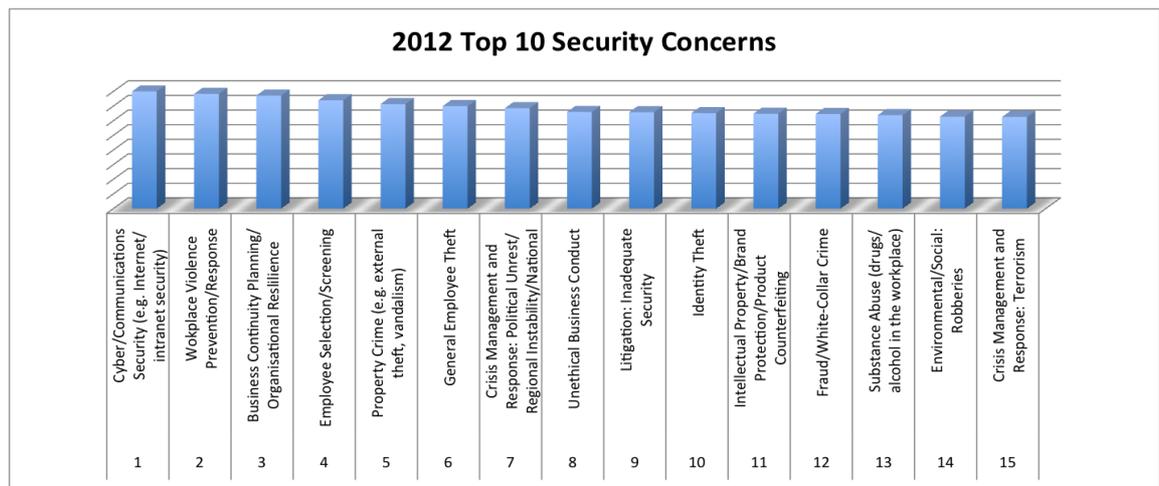


Figure 3.5: Top 10 Security Concerns USA

The above information, which was compiled by Securitas Security Services USA by means of a survey, indicates that the top 3 security concerns related to cyber or communication security, followed by workplace violence, then business continuity management. Terrorism-related concerns although frequently discussed, for example, by politicians and the media or public, did not feature among the 10 most common security-related concerns.

Across the industry security risk is defined in different ways. From my perspective a useful classification is used by the United Nations Department of Safety and Security (UNDSS), which describes security risk as the result of the likelihood of a threat occurring multiplied by its potential impact. Armstrong (2013, p. 11), citing Egeland et al. (2011), commented about changes in the approach to security risk management and programme delivery in humanitarian aid and international development organisations:

In recent years an important shift in how organisations view risk has taken place. It is now widely acknowledged that organisations cannot avoid risk, but seek to manage it in order to remain present and sufficiently proximate to deliver effective programmes.

Jan Egeland, a former United Nations Under-Secretary General for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs and Emergency Relief Coordinator, refers to the shift from “when to leave” to “how to stay” in the United Nations main security paradigm (see United Nations, n.d.). Significant is that humanitarian aid and international development organisations under the United Nations security management system are now investing considerably in security risk management (e.g. human, financial and technical resources), above all to ensure a continued service to the beneficiaries of humanitarian aid as well as to the protection of its personnel. The Permanent Representative of Luxembourg to the United Nations highlights the significance of the situation faced by humanitarian aid and development workers:

In 2014, 121 aid workers were killed, 88 injured, and 120 kidnapped in the exercise of their humanitarian work. While these figures are somewhat lower than the all-time-high of 2013, they are still unacceptably high. The operating environment for humanitarian personnel, including United Nations personnel, has become significantly more dangerous, as demonstrated by the increase in the direct attacks against UN premises and vehicles. But the fortunately diminished impact of these attacks against the UN also illustrates the importance of effective risk mitigation measures. (Lucas, 2015, para. 7)

The statement of the Permanent Representative of Luxembourg to the United Nations does not only highlight the security-related challenges aid workers experience in the course of their duties, but also the impact of new approaches to security risk management. Examples of security concerns of research participants in this study are provided below.

RP 06: ... physical acts against us, which would be deliberate. So collateral incidents are inevitable, given where we work, but a deliberate attack against us ...

That would be significant for us and is something that we're always monitoring, testing the temperature for, and working. So, you know, an ISIS issue at the moment or a BH issue, Boko Haram issue at the moment would be a big issue for us at the moment ... Crime is always an issue for us.

RP 07: I would say externally it is a myriad of events over which they have no control and which will impact them...for example climate change, infrastructural breakdown, supply chain disruption and all the cascading effects as well as international terrorism, social disorder and all of those things.

RP 08: ... because of the region that I'm in, MENA, it is that jihadist threat ... I look after Algeria, Libya, Egypt and the Middle Eastern countries as well. So Libya's a concern for me. We now see some ISIS affiliated groups popping up in Libya, so that's a concern for us.

RP 15: So I guess if I look at the country programmes of [employer name deleted] and the external issues there, let's say Afghanistan, Iraq, Nigeria, South Sudan, I would say the kind of external non-targeted things like IEDs, conflict, particularly in South Sudan was a concern for us, or conflict spreading in Western and Central Equatorial, then kind of targeted things like kidnap and criminality, all those general things, I think on the safety side it would be like medical issues, road traffic accidents, natural disasters.

The data obtained from the semi-structured interviews suggests that research participants are concerned about various security-related issues, including crime, terrorism and climate change as well as infrastructure breakdown. It is noteworthy to state that participants in this research study work in diverse geographical areas, including Europe, Africa and the Middle East. RP 18 provided a rather interesting perspective in relation to security-related concerns:

So, for me it's clearly understanding risk, understanding threat, understanding planning processes; and understanding people would be the other aspects with regards to it. Because a lot of the issues that we have out there [at the same sort of time 10:53], they're not pure security issues, they're management issues in the first place that become security issues because they weren't managed [inaudible 10:59] in the first place.

The perspective provided by RP 18 supports the concept that security risk management is a rather complex responsibility, and not just the management security-related risks from a technical angle. For example, deficient processes within an organisation have the ability to

create security issues. It does not always have to be purely externally-related threat. Thus security risk management practitioners need to think outside the ‘technical’ box to identify and address security concerns.

3.5: Conclusion

This chapter aimed to provide the context for this research study by discussing the main dimensions of this study. The first main dimension is security risk management, which is a young and rapidly growing as well as multifaceted occupational practice and discipline that focuses on mitigating internal and external threats to organisations to enable business activity. The second main dimension is reflective practice, an activity and tool, which has in recent years attracted considerable attention across occupations. Reflective practice is most prominent in the disciplines of health care and education, with it becoming more widely applied in other occupations. While there is a considerable body of knowledge available on reflective practice, no research was identified that addresses reflective practice in security risk management.

The chapter also offered a discussion of security risk management practitioners’ key responsibilities and concerns, which assists in appraising the importance of relevant professional and workplace issues that contribute to their reflective appetite. Often security risk management practitioners join the occupation from adjacent disciplines where they have gained extensive skills or knowledge that relates in one way or another to their current occupational activity. Security risk management has evolved in recent years due to greater responsibilities and greater professionalization within the discipline. Contemporary security risk management is noticeably different, as it moved from holding back business activities to avoiding risks to enabling business activities by way of mitigating risk. Security

risk management managers are confronted with numerous operational challenges day in day out. Some of the greatest concerns relate to resource mobilization and building security cultures in their respective organisations. Security risk management practitioners also deal with a multitude of security related concerns which are of external and internal nature and make security risk management a rather composite activity. These findings not only provide real world perspectives to information obtained by way of literature reviews, but also offer clues about concerns and issues that facilitate security risk management practitioners' reflective inclination.

4 Reflective practice in security risk management

4.1: Introduction

The focus of this second thematic chapter is security risk management practitioners' experience of reflective practice. Three grounded theory main categories emerged from the data, and these are discussed in the three thematic sections. The first is concerned with the findings in relation to the first research question: 'do security risk management practitioners reflect on their own practice?' The second thematic section addresses the second research question: 'how do security risk management practitioners reflect on their own practice?' The third thematic section discusses the third research question: 'how useful is reflective practice for security risk management practitioners?' The chapter closes with conclusions.

4.2: Reflective practice in security risk management

This first section addresses the question 'do security risk management practitioners reflect on their own practice? One main category emerged from the data, which is entitled "reflect to improve". The concept explicates how thoughtful senior security risk management practitioners are in relation to their professional practice. The category is the result of the interaction of three sub categories. This section is divided into four subsections. The first subsection addresses the main category followed by one subsection focusing on each subcategory.

4.2.1: Main category - Reflect to improve

The interaction of the sub categories “reflect”, “regular”, and “need” guided the discovery of the main category. The findings in this chapter indicate that security risk management practitioners are reflective practitioners who, despite a limited familiarity with the term reflective practice, make use of different types of reflective practice on a regular basis mainly to improve practice. This conception is grounded in the data. RP 13 provided a relevant example by outlining his motivation for reflecting on practice:

... its a good opportunity to, sort of, review your own processes and, you know, can we do things better next time?

According to the literature, reflection on professional practice has various benefits, ranging from better applying theory to practice, enhanced experiential learning, increasing self-esteem, and contributing to professional growth (Ruth-Sahd, 2003, pp. 490-491). Zeichner and Liston (2014, p. 9), for example, argue in relation to reflective practice in education that ‘[Unreflective] teachers often lose sight of the fact that their everyday reality is only one of many possible alternatives, a selection from a larger universe of possibilities.’ The authors point out that there is often more than just one way to address practice-related challenges. The “old ways” of addressing challenges are not always the best. Like teachers, security risk management practitioners also have the option of choosing alternate ways of addressing situations at work.

In this study, the data suggests that in place of being content with what they experience at work, security risk management practitioners reliably seek ways to improve practice situations. The data indicates that security risk management practitioners have a desire to improve. A research participant in this study offered his standpoint of why making an effort to do better is important to him:

RP 8: I don't like repetition anyway and I certainly don't like making the same mistakes twice. I think that's a sign of bad intelligence in many respects, doing the same thing twice. So I do reflect, and I do actively try to learn and avoid making the same mistakes again, definitely.

Corresponding views were repeatedly found in this study. Fox, Green, and Martin (2007, p. 83) argue that 'When presented with a problem, practitioners draw upon various forms of existing and new knowledge in order to resolve the problem through action'. The author's finding is echoed in this study. Like practitioners in other occupations, security risk management practitioners are keen to address practice-related challenges productively, and this despite the fact that security risk management practice is becoming more demanding and complex. Practice across many occupations is becoming more challenging. The reflective practice literature points, for example, to management, education and health care. Pertaining to health care, Mann, Gordon, and MacLeod (2009, pp. 595-596) remark:

Today's health care professionals must function in complex and changing health care systems, continuously refresh and update their knowledge and skills, and frame and solve complex patient and healthcare problems.

A further example comes from health, safety and environment (HSE), an occupation that is frequently linked to security or part of the responsibilities of security risk management practitioners or security departments:

The professional demands on the HSE practitioner have changed considerably over time and so have the learning methods and tools available. Some of the influences on the practice of HSE and the learning needs of the practitioner, as well as conversely some of the means of meeting those learning needs, have arisen from the influences of globalisation and working with multinational cultures; the influence of more regulations, standards and best practice; information technology and the internet; physical and virtual forums and fast-changing learning environments. (Budworth & Shihab Ghanem Al Hashemi, 2014, p. 70)

Similar to HSE, the practice of security risk management has also evolved not least due to changes in the operating and security environments. According to Griffiths et al. (2010, p.

50), security risk management has become ‘many faceted and is a dynamic process that is responsive to time and place’. Security risk management practice has adapted to changes in the business environment. Thus, in comparison to its predecessor function, contemporary security risk management practice has considerably advanced and professionalised. RP 07 commented in relation to changes in security risk management:

I would say that the responsibilities of the security sector are much higher than they were. The potential losses are much more serious, and the requirements of the professionalization of the security manager are much more intense.

Kovacich and Halibozek (2003, p. 1) remark about the progress in security risk management:

If you talk to some of our more senior security professionals, many will tell you that today’s world has grown very complicated. Many long for the simpler days gone by. Those days were the good old days when security meant a friendly guard at the gate who physically checked badges and who tried to make sure no one walked out of the door with some physical assets of the corporation in their lunch pails... Today more than ever, what happens at the other end of the world can cause an asset protection crisis throughout your corporation, often in a matter of nanoseconds.

Security risk management practice has become more complex and demanding. While it is not clear if the security practitioners in the “old days” reflected on their practice, the findings in this study suggest that contemporary security risk management practitioners employ reflective practice on a regular basis to address practice issues productively. The use of an excerpt from the primary data helps in grounding this understanding:

I do very much reflect, every day almost, I would say. I take a while just to actually systematically and purposefully ... think through what happened and how could it be improved or how could I avoid it next time... (RP 8)

Improving practice seems to be important for security risk management practitioners. In this study, it was noted that whilst some practitioners referred more to their own practice, others also referred to that of others, for example, fostering a security culture in an organisation that benefits more than one person. A research respondent presented an example:

RP 18: ... and that's why I [inaudible 12:46] our training, and those things we actually inject case studies and that into the training so that people will look at those case studies based round real-life situations that have occurred, so people can reflect and so can [inaudible 13:01] similar situation, what would I do; and then they can take that knowledge forward into the next time that they may be involved in a similar situation perhaps.

The findings of this study indicate that the concept of reflection on professional practice is not unknown to security risk management practitioners, although many interviewees were not familiar with especially the term 'reflective practice'. Kahneman (2012, p. 8) comments that 'the availability of heuristics helps explain why some issues are highly salient in the public's mind while others are neglected'. According to the author, the more often an issue is talked about the more likely a person is aware of it (Kahneman, 2012, p. 8). The review of the literature revealed that not only academic and peer-reviewed literature on security risk management is limited, but so is information on reflective practice in security risk management. There is very little coverage of reflective practice in relevant professional or academic security management courses. For this reason, it may be argued that the limited familiarity of interviewees with the term 'reflective practice' can be related to the narrow treatment of the topic. Nevertheless, it is intriguing that based on the primary data research, participants' understanding of reflective practice is often quite similar to a description provided by Moon (2013, p. 80), who viewed reflective practice as a 'professionalised form' of reflective learning.

As indicated in previous and subsequent chapters in this thesis, reflective practice is widely accepted and employed across a range of occupational disciplines. According to Kinsella (2009, p. 3), for example, ‘Reflective practice is one of the most popular theories of professional knowledge in the last 20 years and has been widely adopted by nursing, health, and social care professions’. An important distinction between reflective practice, for example, in health care or education, and reflective practice in security risk management, is that in the later reflective practice is certainly not established. The extent to which reflective practice is prevalent in health care is outlined by Mann et al. (2009, pp. 595-596):

Reflection and reflective practice are frequently noted in the general education literature and are increasingly described as essential attributes of competent health care professionals who are prepared to address [these] challenges.

Professional practice is, more often than not, intricate and demanding. Frequently, the mere application of technical skills and knowledge is insufficient to adequately address workplace issues. Other tools are required to tackle especially ambiguous issues. For example, an open and careful examination of practice-related action and its outcome might assist in effectively addressing practice issues. Collins states:

A good way of learning is to think about what worked well and what has not worked well in the past. It is good practice to look at what you have done and evaluate it as this will enable you to know if what you are doing is the most appropriate way to do something. (Collins, 2009, p. 33)

Collins view resonates with research respondents in this study. RP 05, for example, stated:

... reflection, very important that the [unreadable] when you are looking at doing something and very important during and after you put something together, because when you are looking at what type of business model we are using, at the end of the day, as a risk manager, you are accountable for the amount of money you put into a

particular thing. And you are also accountable for ensuring that the mitigation measures that you put in place, and here it is really protective security, are up to the standard required for the threats that have evolved in a particular environment.

RP 14 provided another pertinent example of how reflective practice can assist in a critical examination of practice issues in security risk management:

For me reflection is something in terms of looking at how we're doing something at this moment in time and just being aware that what we're doing might not be completely right and trying to gather as much input from different areas. It doesn't mean that the input will actually change something or determine something differently but it's got to be considered because you have to test what you're doing all the way through because you might just be in the wrong place and wasting a lot of time and energy.

Security risk management practitioners reflect on their professional practice. Despite some weaknesses in their understanding of the concept of reflective practice, reflection on professional practice is viewed as a beneficial activity contributing to an improvement of practice.

4.2.2: Subcategory - Reflect

In this study, research participants talked about whether they reflect on their professional practice. The emerging subcategory, which is entitled "reflect", attempts to conceptualise security risk management practitioners' reflective behaviour in the workplace. The most important finding in this regard is that security risk management practitioners indeed reflect on their professional practice. Excerpts of statements provided by research respondents assist in grounding this concept in the data:

RP 01: ... here in Pakistan in the morning, I wake up at four o'clock every morning and between four and six, when I get out of bed, I think about every duty station in Pakistan; what was happened in the last 24 hours, what may happen in the next 12

hours and if it happens, how would I react to it, what are the instructions that I would issue...

RP 02: Yes, in just about all aspects ... be it purely the security risk assessments or that type of work through to budgetary aspects within security, and also the logistics type that all ... But yes, in all of those I do.

RP 04: Having been on the same course as you, I probably reflect a bit more... on my day-to-day basis, yes, I certainly reflect on what's been going on, how we can do things better, what went right, what went wrong, how we can improve.

RP 07: Yes, I do use reflective practice.

RP 08: I do yeah. I'm actually very conscious of that. I do take time to systematically think things through...

RP 10: ... sometimes I wonder if I do anything but. So yes, the answer is very much that I think it takes place all the time, basically.

RP 12: All the time. I think that's my way of learning...

RP 13: Yeah, absolutely.

RP 16: ... I reflect on just about everything I do.

RP 18: Yeah, absolutely. Absolutely.

The above excerpts support the concept that research participants reflect on their professional practice. This finding is important, as there is thus far very little other evidence that security risk management practitioners deliberately reflect on their professional practice. This study's primary data further suggests that for many research participants reflection on professional practice is an important activity in their day-to-day work lives. This finding underlines the importance which reflection on practice is given by security risk management practitioners.

While the primary data indicates that reflection on practice is an essential activity, it also suggests that most research respondents were not familiar with the term 'reflective practice'. Even so, the majority of research participants were in one way or another

accustomed to the concept of reflection on professional practice. For example, RP 06 stated:

I really understand what you're saying there. I mean, yeah, when you explain it, I understand implicitly what you're saying, it's just that when you frame it as reflective practice, it could mean anything.

RP 06 was well aware of what reflection on professional practice is about. Nonetheless he lacked an appreciation of the term 'reflective practice'. In this study, it was discovered that research participants who were instantaneously and also genuinely familiar with the term 'reflective practice' were either those who, too, were professional doctorate students at the University of Portsmouth's Institute of Criminal Justice Studies, or persons who were frequently communicating with nursing practitioners. Research participants 04 and 16 were professional doctorate students:

RP 04: I have actually taken on board reflective practice a lot more, my wife is a nurse.

RP 16: My daughter's studying to be a doctor. Well, she's a nurse. My ex-partner was a nurse, and I know that they actually had... This is when I said I'm aware of the actual process, this reflective practice, because they do that. My ex-wife used to teach that within the nursing practice. So I know the medical people did it a lot.

The research respondents who had reflective practitioners in their families displayed a much stronger understanding of both the concept and the term 'reflective practice'. The review of the literature revealed that across different occupations students and practitioners are exposed to reflective practice not only in their (initial) professional training, but also through relevant occupational or academic literature. This is for example the case in nursing and teaching. A decade ago, Ruth-Sahd (2003, p. 488) remarked that 'Reflective practice has become part of the discourse of nursing education classrooms, conferences, and journals, and are popular features of nursing continuing education programmes'. It was

found that, unlike in other occupations, very little information is available about reflective practice in security risk management. This limited amount of information about the topic may explain, at least to some degree, why the term ‘reflective practice’ and its formal theory are not well-known amongst security risk management practitioners.

In spite of this research participants in this study appeared to possess a considerable understanding of what reflection on practice is about. RP 10, who discussed what reflective practice meant to him, provided a relevant example:

For me, this is about experience; lessons learned; analysis of what you have gone through; and most importantly, of course, the reason you done all this is how to learn from it. So that's my understanding of the concept. Now I hope it's not wrong, but that is the way I look at it.

RP 13 provided a similar view:

What I would understand from it is the... it's a process that considers and reviews, you know, perhaps an example would be undertaking after action reviews to, you know, to see where things went wrong and how they might be improved.

Most research participants in this study indeed reflect on their professional practice. A limited familiarity with the term ‘reflective practice’ and its formal theory neither stops nor discourages them from doing it.

4.2.3: Subcategory - Regular

Thus far, the research found that most research participants indeed reflect on their practice. The research participants also talked about the frequency of their reflection on professional practice. “Regular” explicates the emerging concept that they reflect on professional practice at least on a regular basis. Research participants stated:

RP 03: I try to reflect on my practice every day.

RP 07: Minute by minute ... I rarely go more than five minutes without being aware of who I am interacting with in the world and is this where I want to be, is this what I want to do, is this how I want to do it?

RP 08: I do very much reflect, every day almost, I would say.

RP 10: ... I believe I do it daily ... So yeah, the answer is very often.

RP 14: I need to be reflecting on what I'm doing in any one ... as I say as an ongoing process ... so it's important for the organisation that I'm reflecting on what I'm doing at all times...

RP 15: I think informally I do it a lot.

RP 17: Daily, every time I have a task...

RP 19: I think I pretty much reflect on previous practice, previous experiences, on a daily basis.

The above excerpts from the primary data support the notion that research respondents reflect on their professional practice at least on a regular basis. Not every research respondent reflects on practice equally as often. Whilst the primary data suggests that most research participants reflect on practice on a fairly regular basis, some participants seem to reflect more frequently. This seems to be particularly the case when respondents deal with more complex situations. Research participant 05, a desk officer in an international organisation focusing on two countries with considerably volatile and insecure environments, stated:

Look, I think in this business, especially in the [name of employer] particularly when you are dealing with countries such as Afghanistan and Pakistan the reflection is ongoing. You are constantly working through whether what is in place is sufficient to the task.

The RP's view echoes my experience. Dealing with considerably more challenging situations increases reflective activities as, for example, the likelihood and impact of

something adverse happening is much greater. Thus, to meet the challenges presented by such situations, practitioners should adapt their approach to business. Routine types of approaches are likely to be insufficient. RP 05 puts into perspective a security risk management practitioner's work life and briefly discusses how reflection on practice may help to deal with workplace-related challenges:

The security risk manager's position is very stressful, very few people phone you up to tell you how wonderful things are, everything is a problem, everything is immediate, everything is adrenalin stress, you live your life...there's very little stability; it's basically a stressful environment. So I think it [reflective practice] gives you the ability to deal with that, to create a certain level of stability and almost not quite serenity but stillness within the maelstrom. Besides that, I just think it makes you a better operator, I think it gives you insight into how you can interact with people, how you can deal with problems and how you become a better manager.

The emergent concept is that research participants reflect on their practice at least on a regular basis. Depending on professional roles or responsibilities, reflection on practice may happen at different intervals.

4.2.4: Subcategory - Need

The subcategory entitled "need" aims to explicate when security risk management practitioners reflect on their professional practice. The evolving thought is that security risk management practitioners reflect on professional practice when needed, based on the situation at hand. Research participants stated:

RP 01: I would reflect on issues before I even went to work.

RP 02: Normally prior to an activity... And definitely afterwards, yeah...

RP 04: ... if I have a talk to someone and I feel it didn't go particularly well...

RP 06: ... certainly after any critical incident.

RP 07: Minute by minute ... Now you might say that I'm paranoid and narcissistic, that's another way of seeing ... you go over the itch in that you become observing of yourself all the time which becomes an ingrained habituated practice. But for example I will ... when I lie in bed tonight I will think about this conversation ...

RP 08: I do take time to systematically think things through, either before or after it's happened, depending on whatever the situation was.

RP 10: So if there's one thing many years in the system has learnt me it's the need to reflect before you take any decisions or you go ahead, or decide upon what way to go. I think you do the lessons learned a little bit more in the system.

RP 12: ... one very good time is right after a critical incident.

RP 16: Well, actually I think during the process you're reflecting. So if I make a comment, if I make a statement, if I make a recommendation which is countered or spoken upon by other individuals, I'm immediately reflecting on what I said. So I'm reflecting all the time.

These interview excerpts demonstrate times in which research participants reflect on practice. Based on the primary data, most research participants reflect on practice prior to and after a workplace activity or a practice event. The literature refers to the types of reflection as “reflection-before-action”, which is a forward-looking approach to reflection on practice that aims to make out possible workplace-related scenarios in order to enable an adequate reaction to attain a desired objective. Van Manen (1991), cited by Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016, p. 379), describes reflection-(be)fore-action as enabling ‘us to deliberately think about possible alternatives, decide on courses of action, plan the things we need to do and anticipate the experiences we and others may have as a result of expected events or of our planned actions’. “Reflection-on-action”, on the other hand, is described by FitzGerald (1994, p. 67) as the ‘retrospective contemplation of practice undertaken in order to uncover the knowledge used in practical situations, by analysing and interpreting the information recalled’.

The review of the literature indicates that practitioners in other occupations also utilise these types of reflection as well as “reflection-in-action”. For example, Asselin et al.

(2012, p. 8), state that reflection-on-action is a widely employed in nursing, although in nursing reflection is not limited to this category. And according to Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016, p. 379) teachers make use of both types and reflection-in-action. Following Murphy (2013), cited by Burhan-Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016, p. 377) reflection-in-action ‘can be regarded as teachers’ awareness on current conditions, thus takes place at the time of teaching’. This study found insufficient evidence to imply that security risk management practitioners also reflect-in-action, although professional instinct would suggest that this is likely the case.

Research respondents in this study apply known types of reflection to their practice, i.e. reflection-before-action and reflection-on-action. Based on the primary data, research participants do not limit themselves to one or the other type of reflection on practice; instead, they appear to engage in reflection whenever it seems fitting for them to do so.

4.3: Ways of reflective practice in security risk management

The second section focuses on the data in relation to the second research question that guided this study: How do security risk management practitioners reflect on their own practice? A main category emerged from the data, which is entitled “trying when pressing”. It aims to conceptualize the process by which senior security risk management practitioners reflect on their professional practice. The category is the result of the interaction of three subcategories. Moreover, this section is divided into four subsections. The first subsection addresses the main category followed, then, by a subsection focusing on each subcategory.

4.3.1: Main category - Trying when pressing

The main category “trying when pressing” emerged from an interaction of three subcategories: “Institutional reflection”, “unstructured individual reflection”, and “triggers”. In this study, research participants indicated that they reflect on their professional practice in two different ways, that is, individually as well as institutionally. That individuals reflect on professional practice on their own as well as with others is not a new observation. For example, Høystrup (2004, p. 444) states:

Although the definitions ... conceive reflection as a complex process, involving interaction, the definitions seem to underline the individualised perspective: It is the individual who reflects – in a social context. This is the perspective often used in relation to the notion of “the reflective practitioner”, and problem solving as the core process of reflection. But individuals also reflect together in an organisational context. Reflection in teams is important here. Reflection processes are embedded in social interaction.

Reflective practice is evidently not limited to individuals reflecting on their practice alone, it also includes reflection in teams or in institutional contexts. Thus, the finding in this study is in line with findings from others (e.g. Høystrup, 2004). In this study, the term institutional reflection refers to reflection with others, primarily within the individual’s organisation, although it was also found that some interviewees reflect together with others from outside their organisation. RP 15 provided a relevant example:

I think also reflection happens with my peer network, so like other security advisors...

Reflective practice is perceived to have many benefits. According to the literature reflection in an institutional or organisational context is also seen to have benefits. Knipfer, Kump, Wessel, and Cress (2013, p. 30) state that ‘An organisation’s potential to learn and develop over time is one of the most important assets to compete with other organisations’.

The authors further highlight the significance of reflection for individuals and teams, by arguing that ‘reflection is the most important catalyst for transforming daily work experience into individual, team and organisational learning’ (Knipfer et al., 2013, p. 33). The findings in this study support the notion that security organisations (e.g. security departments) also reflect. Earlier, Price (2014, p. 48) found that ‘reflection, learning and change within the security department of aid agencies ... does indeed occur’. Reflective practice in an institutional context is further perceived as having an influence on individual practitioners.

The major benefits of collaborative reflection are that it triggers explication of tacit knowledge, facilitates individual reflection by challenging one’s own understanding and interpretations of an experience, fosters sharing of individual experience and promotes joint sense-making on shared work practice. (Knipfer et al., 2013, p. 37)

In this study, however, only limited evidence was found that research participants’ reflection in an institutional context directly influences their individual reflection. The related concept, entitled “unstructured individual reflection”, sheds light on security risk management practitioners’ individual reflection, which is seen as a predominantly straightforward cognitive activity rather than the use of specific frameworks or processes. A research respondent described it as a mental walk-through linked to practice issues, rather than the application of specific reflective methods.

According to this study’s primary data, research participants’ don’t often employ reflection in standard workplace situations. Knipfer et al. (2013, p. 34) elaborate why regular practice situations contract fairly little reflective attention: ‘Typically, work practice relies on some standardised rules and practices that enable rapid and non-deliberative response to a situation’. Thus, the finding in this study is not remarkable. It is in line with other research evidence. The finding also corresponds with my own professional experience as a security

risk management practitioner. Routine work situations are usually addressed by way of standard practices. Knipfer et al. (2013) point to Dewey (1933), who suggested that ‘reflection is dealing with a confusing or problematic situation’. Dewey referred to those challenging practice situations as the “swampy lowlands”. According to Knipfer et al. (2013, p. 34), ‘Major cues for learning by reflection include changes or problems that require the modification of existing working routines or invention of new ones’. Similar evidence emerged in this study.

4.3.2: Subcategory - Institutional reflection

The subcategory “institutional reflection” is concerned with reflective activities that take place within an organisational context. By examining the empirical data, it was found that research participants engaged in two types of reflective activities, individual reflection on practice as well as institutional reflection on practice. Whilst individual or personal reflection on practice occurs independently and out of a respondent’s own motion, institutional reflective practice is typically carried out together with other people, and often driven by processes in the employing organisation. A research participant remarked upon the interview question “Do you ever reflect on your own practice?”:

RP 06: Yeah, often, both privately and institutionally. So we have a number of initiatives that allow us to reflect on incidents. So, say, in the security environment, let's just restrict to that, to start with. We have ... certainly after any critical incident - and it depends on the scale to the size of it - we will have an after action review, which is normally made up by a team of people, independent and organisational.

RP 06 clarified that he reflects on practice both individually as well as institutionally. For the research participant the after-action-review represents the organisationally-driven form of reflection on practice. A review of the available literature pertaining to after-action-

reviews indicated that such are common especially in the armed forces. RP 06 served previously in the military. In civilian environments after-action-reviews also take place. According to Darling, Parry, and Moore (2005, para. 32) after-action-reviews are characteristically perceived as ‘a tool for capturing lessons [learned] and disseminating them to other teams’. The literature also suggests that after-actions-reviews have become an accepted professional learning tool. In this study, RP 10, who also reflects individually as well as part of a team, discussed an advantage of institutional reflection:

...you know, because you don't always do this alone, you do it in teams as well, right ... when you do that in a team, I found this very useful, because it's very ... it's including for the team. So when you go to a ‘lessons learned’ in a team situation, it brings the team together.

According to Stewart (1997), cited by Weber, Aha, and Becerra-Fernandez (2001, p. 18), lessons learned ‘were originally conceived of as guidelines, tips, or checklists of what went right or wrong in a particular event’. In this study, it was noted that primarily research respondents who have a military or police background referred to the concept of lessons learned.

Actually I think this is one of the things that former police or military officers will do best because, you know, my own experience and understanding from others is that it becomes second nature, you know, in those environments to review what’s happened, so, you know, whenever I’ve done an exercise as a former military officer there’s – immediately afterwards – there’s a hot wash discussion so, you know, just off the top of everybody’s heads, what went right, what went wrong and then of course it becomes more formalised into lessons learnt, and then, you know, reviews of practices. (RP 13)

The research participant suggests that police and military personnel are familiar with reflecting on practice. From his point of view, the outcome of reflective action or “hot wash discussion” may be transferred into lessons learned or similar mechanisms. Kolbaek (2015, p. 82) argues that ‘Learning from experience may be understood as “Lessons

Learned”’. East (1998), cited by Kolbaek (2015, p. 84) offers a description of lessons learned:

A lesson learned is a knowledge or understanding gained by experience. The experience may be positive, as in a successful test or mission, or negative, as in a mishap or failure. Successes are also considered sources of lessons learned. A lesson must be significant in that it has a real or assumed impact on operations; valid in that it is factually and technically correct; and applicable in that it identifies a specific design, process, or decision that reduces or eliminates the potential for failures and mishaps, or reinforces a positive result.

A lesson learned represents a form of experiential learning. More often than not, lessons learned aim to enhance the knowledge of an organisation rather than the individual. In this study, it was found that research participants referred to both the organisation as well as themselves when they spoke about lessons learned. RP 08 provided an example of institutional reflection and lessons learned:

... any incident that we have, we would do a root cause analysis ... For example, actually, very recently, just a couple of months ago, we had a [...] staff member, here in [...], who was assaulted on one of our properties ... So there was a lot of reflection there and lessons learned about what could be done better, and actually an awful lot of actual learning there, just through that incident itself. So yeah, that provided a very good opportunity for reflection and learning actually, as it happened.

The learning example above refers to both the organisation and the individual. In this study, research participants talked frequently about the after-action-review and lessons learned whilst discussing institutional reflection on practice. For many research participants these activities represent forms of reflection on professional practice.

Finlay (2008, p. 2) observes that ‘The term “reflective practice” carries multiple meanings that range from the idea of professionals engaging in solitary introspection to that of engaging in critical dialogue with others’. In this study, it is understood that for many

research participants after-action-reviews or lessons learned represent reflective practices. However, this understanding may be criticized. For example, Rodgers (2002, p. 843) argues that ‘reflection has suffered from a loss of meaning. In becoming everything to everybody, it has lost its ability to be seen’. The author refers to the non-availability of a clear definition of reflection and to the many interpretations that exist. Similar criticism was expressed by Thompson and Pascal (2012, p. 311):

...there has been a common tendency for it [reflective practice] to be oversimplified in practice, and, furthermore, dominant understandings of reflective practice can themselves be criticised for lacking theoretical sophistication in some respects.

Despite the existing criticism that reflective practice is often misunderstood, it is my view that research participants in this study have a rather good understanding of the application of reflective practice. Concerning after-action-reviews, Darling et al. (2005, para. 8) describe the various steps undertaken in the process:

The fundamentals are essentially the same at each: Following a project or event, team members gather to share insights and identify mistakes and successes. Their conclusions are expected to flow—by formal or informal channels—to other teams and eventually coalesce into best practices and global standards.

After-action-reviews also appear to be an experiential learning method. The above description of after-action-reviews indicates parallels to Kolb’s experiential learning cycle, which is illustrated in Figure 4.1:

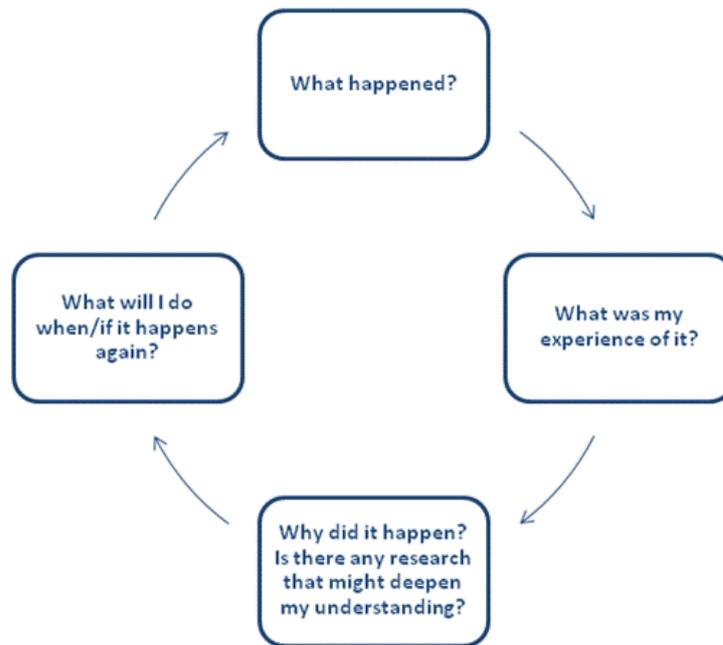


Figure 4.1: David Kolb's learning cycle provided by the University of Bradford (n.d.)

Kolb's experiential learning cycle is described in more detail in the previous section of this chapter.

4.3.3: Subcategory - Unstructured individual reflection

In this study, research participants indicated that they do not only reflect in institutional contexts but also individually, on their own and out of their own motion. The associated emergent subconcept, entitled "unstructured individual reflection", therefore attempts to conceptualize how research participants reflect individually. The emergent concept is that *unstructured individual* reflection is predominantly a straightforward cognitive activity rather than the use of specific frameworks or processes of reflective practice. The following excerpts are drawn from the interview data:

Interviewer: And when you reflect, do you use a particular framework or a particular method for your reflection?

RP 02: Normally, I personally just use a mental walk through of - from the beginning to the end of something - and just mentally tick-off: Yeah, that makes sense; well that didn't; this was good; this wasn't so good; next time we need to possibly look at doing something this way, but normally just a mental framework. And as I said, a sequential, beginning-to-end-type framework.

RP 04: ... I will do a mental framework of OK what happened. Who it was involving, has the person been or has this incident or has this person been part of my reflective practice in the past? And then, it just, I normally use it in like a chronological order about what happened and what didn't. I don't write it down per se.

RP 09: No, no particular framework, just to compare the new knowledge of what has been introduced newly to what has been done before and just to compare and contrast. There is no framework, nothing, just this.

RP 10: ... I don't use a model...

RP 12: Mostly unstructured, and mostly a brainstorm...

RP 18: No, I don't think I do as such.

RP 19: No, not really. As I say, that goes back to my point about it not being formalised in any kind of way. I think, you know, I do learn from... personally, I learn through experience, but I wouldn't say I refer to any kind of specific methods, to any specific frameworks.

Most research respondents engaged in unstructured cognitive activities that enable evaluations of their practice as well as themselves. A similar finding was made by Asselin et al. (2012) in their study on reflective practice in nursing, who found that '...participants engaged in a cognitive examination of their responses, beliefs and values.' As indicated in the previous chapter, most research respondents have limited experience of the theory of reflective practice. As a result, they appear to have a limited understanding of available frameworks and processes for especially individual reflection. This finding stands in some contrast with the findings in relation to their reflection in institutional contexts, where security risk management practitioners exhibited greater awareness of related frameworks and processes. According to the secondary data, practitioners across numerous occupations reflect by themselves on professional practice (e.g. in sports science, social work, health care, management, science and education). It is not only security risk management

practitioners who reflect individually on practice. However, in comparison to security risk management practitioners, professionals in other occupations make use of a variety of methods to reflect on practice such as online discussions (see Burhan-Horasanlı & Ortaçtepe, 2016) and reflective journals (see Mann et al., 2009; Russel & Fisher, 2014).

4.3.4: Subcategory - Triggers

From our perspective, the need to reflect develops from this first awareness of a discrepancy that is usually elicited by feelings of discomfort and general arousal. In its early stages, this discrepancy does not have to be conscious; in many situations, persons may just have the feeling that something is ‘not right’. (Knipfer et al., 2013, p. 35)

The subcategory “triggers” represents a concept that relates to situations that prompt reflective activities. In this study it was found that reflection on professional practice – whether institutional or individual - is habitually prompted by atypical situations. Ordinary or routine situations normally do not receive the same reflective attention as atypical situations. Excerpts of statements provided by interviewed security risk management practitioners assist in grounding the concept in the data:

RP 03: ... it's always about critical incidents; it's always about things that really mattered.

RP 04: I feel it's something gone particularly well or something it's gone particularly bad, that's when I tend to reflect. Routine things tend not to get so much attention on reflective practice.

RP 11: You could have a set of trigger points, or the American term is trip wires, like you would have with, say, any emergency management team or whatnot that are dealing with a crisis.

RP 12: So, one very good time is right after a critical incident. That's when everyone is very sensitive to new ideas and very receptive also, because we've just come out of a critical incident or a crisis, and as part of the crisis review, we do this reflection...

RP 15: I think reflection has also happened during and after an incident.

RP 19: I think sometimes, certainly in our sector, it's difficult because, again, the diversity and the variety of things that we deal with on a day to day basis changes so often that sometimes there isn't any past experiences that you can apply because this is such a nuance situation or incident or issue or concern that you're dealing with.

The observation, that reflection on professional practice is frequently triggered by atypical rather than an everyday workplace situation is not unique to security risk management.

Asselin et al. (2012), for example, found the following in relation to nursing:

Situations that triggered the reflective process were predominately ones that the nurse had assessed as needing immediate nursing and/or medical intervention (e.g. a paediatric code, a man jumping out of a window, the family dynamics surrounding a new teenage mother in a neonatal unit). Asselin et al. (2012, p. 5)

This study's finding is also supported by evidence from Price (2014). In her study on experiential learning in security risk management, Price (2014, pp. 5-47) found that 'triggers for reflection and learning could be both reactive (e.g. security incidents, best practice of peers, changes in the external operating context) and strategic (e.g. security risk management cycle)'. Strategic processes such as the security risk assessment process, which can generally not be classified as routine activity, compel practitioners to deliberately think about issues (e.g. threats and vulnerabilities) as part of the analytical process involved. RP 12 describes the benefits of reflection after a critical event:

So, one very good time is right after a critical incident. That's when everyone is very sensitive to new ideas and very receptive also, because we've just come out of a critical incident or a crisis, and as part of the crisis review, we do this reflection, what could have been done differently? How can we avoid it, or, how can we make our response better and more effective?

As for practitioners in other occupations, the working days of security risk management practitioners are typically filled with abundant activities, mostly routine activities such as writing emails and attending meetings. Busy workdays often leave little time for

introspection or reflection. Høyrup (2004, p. 445) points out that ‘When we act in routine ways we do not reflect’. However, this appears to change when uncommon situations arise. Atypical situations appear to cause individuals as well as teams or even organisations to be more accessible to reflection. This notion also corresponds with my own professional experience in security risk management.

4.4: Value of reflective practice in security risk management

This section focuses on the data in relation to the third research question that guided this study: How useful is reflective practice for security risk management practitioners? One main category entitled “facilitating practice” and two subcategories emerged from the data. *Facilitating practice* aims to conceptualise how research respondents perceive the overall value of reflective practice in security risk management. This section is divided into three subsections. The first subsection addresses the main category followed by one subsection focusing on each subcategory.

4.4.1: Main category - Facilitating practice

The main category that emerged from the data in relation to the third research question is entitled “facilitating practice”. It is the result of the interaction of two subcategories that are entitled “helpful” and “it’s needed”. In this study, it was found that security risk management practitioners perceive reflection and reflective practice as supportive to security risk management practice. Although, according to the literature, reflective practice offers various benefits for practitioners, research respondents in this study link the benefits of reflective practice mostly to learning from experience. Table 4.1, provided by Ruth-

Sahd (2003, pp. 490-491), lists contributions that were reported to emanate from reflection on practice in other occupations:

Contributions	Authors
Integration of theoretical concepts to practice	Davies (1995); Scanlan, Care, & Udod (2002); Wong et al. (1997)
Increased learning from experience	Atkins & Murphy (1993)
Enhanced self-esteem through learning	Johns (1995)
Acceptance of professional responsibility	Johns (1995)
Continual professional growth	Coombs (2001)
Enhanced critical thinking and judgment making in complex and uncertain situations, based on experience and prior knowledge, thereby enhancing patient care	Brookfield (2000); Clouder (2000); Coombs (2001); Mott (1994); Smith (1998)
Empowerment of practitioners	Rogers (1996)
Increased social and political emancipation	Taylor (2001)

Table 4.1: Contributions emanating from reflective processes

The benefits of reflective practice are reportedly numerous. Contemporary security risk management practice is frequently demanding and complex. Often many issues are at stake, especially as organisations are taking greater risks to achieve business objectives. To successfully manage professional practice and to add value to organisational objectives, security risk management practitioners are seeking tools that help in dealing with situations that cannot, or cannot fully, be addressed by means of technical skills and knowledge. Paige-Smith and Craft (2011, p. xvii) ask:

What purpose can reflective practice serve? The answer is many, and all of them important... it is integral to continuous professional development, as necessary as good basic education.

The benefits of reflective practice are not limited to professional development, as the findings in this study show. Reflection and reflective practice offer value to practice, and not only to security risk management practitioners, as RP 13 states:

You know, I don't think it's just a security risk manager thing. It's for everybody. It's a management technique and so... even more than that. It's also a leadership technique, you know, to understand how one's own processes and practices are viewed and, you know, review their efficacy.

This view is echoed by Jasper and Mooney (2013, p. 1), who state that 'Reflective practice informs our decision-making as functioning professionals; learning to make decisions on the basis of our knowledge and experience results in evidence-based practice, and the identification of our knowledge and skills deficit, thus resulting in opportunities for development'. An example of how reflection adds value to professional practice is drawn from my own recent experience:

Following the completion of this research, I introduced reflective practice to the regional senior management team in my organisation, and it was subsequently utilised in a multi-departmental operational regional planning meeting for 2017. The purpose of incorporating a reflective approach to practice was not only to improve the organisation's and staff members' approach to security risk management within Africa region (i.e. regional headquarters, field offices and clients), but also to enhance our overall performance; including but not limited to accountability, resource mobilization, inter-departmental cooperation, and support to client organisations. Triggered by a comparatively weak performance in previous years, senior management was open to new approaches to improve our performance. Although the approach taken to reflection on professional

practice in this meeting was rather rudimentary, the outcome was positive overall. Critically reflecting on professional issues, such as a challenging security environment, limited in-house security management capability, a lack of accountability, and reduced operability as a result of these challenges, offered new perspectives on past and current issues (e.g. related to duty of care and moral and legal liability), and resulted in verbal commitments to improve our existing situation. This example demonstrates not only the value of reflective practice, but also the impact of this research on professional practice.

4.4.2: Subcategory - Helpful

“Helpful” puts into an abstract term how research respondents perceive the application of reflective practice in security risk management. In this study, research participants found reflective practice in security risk management very useful. Research participants stated:

RP 02: ... I tend to find it a useful tool...

RP 05: I think reflection ... is a very important thing...

RP 07: It's critical...

RP 10: Well, you know, it helps me achieve my goals.

RP 12: I think it's not just a value add, but rather it's a minimum requirement, it's essential.

RP 13: Yeah, it's absolutely essential.

RP 15: ... I think the idea of reflecting in order to improve in one's own function is incredibly valuable.

Although the literature suggests that reflective practice offers numerous benefits for practitioners, this study's primary data indicates that the value of reflective practice appears to be linked mainly to learning from experience, as the following excerpts indicate:

RP 01: You always draw on experience; you always draw on experience... [] when you draw on experience it helps you to deal with whatever you are dealing with...

RP 02: I think and that's where you will get the value, so you don't keep making the same mistakes over and over again.

RP 06: ... it's experience isn't it and time in the job. That allows you to, if you like, meter yourself on what works well, what doesn't work; what's realistic, what's not realistic.

RP 15: Then I think also reflection happens with my peer network, so like other security advisors, and I would always reach out to people, like have you done this before, what challenges did you have with this and reflecting through other people's experience.

RP 19: I think it probably goes back to my other point in the previous question. I think, by and large, security risk management is relatively general in its sense and I think some of the challenges, some of the concerns, issues, that you've dealt with and incidents that you've dealt with are...you know, they have kind of mild nuances and complexities but, you know, by and large they are managed relatively similarly. So, to refer to something that you've done previously and apply it within the current context is always extremely useful.

Finding that the value of reflective practice is mostly linked to learning from experience is not a unique discovery. White (2015) made a similar observation. He stated: 'Findings from this study suggest that the benefits of using reflective practice are directly linked to experiential learning as a result of applying the reflective approach' (White, 2015, p. 204). To the question 'How valuable and important do you think reflective practice is?' RP19 responded:

Yeah, I mean, extremely important. Yeah, there's no point in kind of starting from scratch with all these things. I think to reflect on how you previously dealt with things is an extremely important part of being more prepared as an organisation, more prepared as an individual, more resilient, and to not do that would be extremely poor practice.

In this study, as in others practitioners agreed that reflective practice adds value. Mann et al. (2009, p. 595), for example, states, in relation to reflection and reflective practice in health professions education:

The importance of reflection and reflective practice is frequently noted in the literature; indeed, reflective capacity is regarded by many as an essential characteristic for professional competence.

4.4.3: Subcategory - It's needed

“It's needed” aims to explicate security risk management practitioners' view about the need to incorporate reflective practice in security risk management. The majority of security risk management practitioners interviewed see a compelling need for its inclusion. The source of this appears to be recent developments as well as common challenges in security risk management.

Security is no more the same kind of security field that it used to be, say, 20, 30 years ago. So we need to be constantly creative, and I believe that reflective learning, or learning by experience, should be more structurally incorporated within our way of doing business. (RP12)

As illustrated earlier in this study, security risk management has considerably evolved in recent years, from primarily a guarding function to a multifunctional occupation, which is responsive to ‘time and place’ (Griffiths et al., 2010, p. 50). To effectively address workplace challenges, a mechanism is required that enables security risk management practitioners to critically think about and effectively respond to especially complex and demanding practice situations. The security risk management practitioners interviewed discussed diverse views of why there is a need for reflection on practice:

RP 02: I think that there is a need for reflective practice in security, especially because (...) we work in a dynamic environment (...) complex situations, security situations around the world, and each situation is different. (...) from a complex emergency situation to a purely humanitarian situation, like this (...) cyclone in the Philippines compared to working in Afghanistan or Somalia to someone working in Bangkok or Geneva. They are all different. And one template doesn't fit all. So, reflective practice helps, helps you identify that.

RP 07: It's critical, because whatever you are doing, the framework, the modelling you are using, has to be sound. So, and that sounds [unreadable] the quality of your product has to be informed by thinking carefully about what's been done in the past, and critically examining the outcome you have achieved, because as I said earlier you can never absolutely guarantee that the outcome you have achieved is working as effectively and efficiently as you think it might in the pre-deployment phases.

RP 14: ... if you don't know where you've come from how do you know where you're going to? You've got to understand where you're at. Where you're at as an organisation in terms of risk management, whether you're in a department specialising in risk management. Where your department is at? Where you as an individual risk manager are at?

RP 18: ... one area of weakness within the humanitarian sector is our capacity in putting some structure around, if you like, lessons learned, after-action reviews and those sort of things, and learning from them and then working out what needs to be applied going forward. I think many organisations perhaps need a little bit more structure around that, because I don't think that that is well done in some cases, so I think that could be strengthened.

While the above excerpts touch on different practice-related issues, all underscore the need for reflection in security risk management. An interesting perspective was provided by RP 12, who raised the issue of formal or traditional approaches to learning versus reflective practice:

Again, I think it's not just a value add, but rather it's a minimum requirement, it's essential. Because if we, like I said, the security, it's like communication. There can't be one size fits all, ever. It's like, let's say, it's a science but it's also art. So the art part of it is very, very fluid, and unless we incorporate reflective learning as an essential component of how we do our work, we'll be stuck in some old practices and the world will move on much faster than we will. Because you see, the formal learning has its pros and cons. Formal learning cannot adapt so quickly to the external environment, it's only the informal learning that can keep pace with the changing times. So I guess it's a mix of both formal and informal and when we talk informal it's certainly the reflective way of adult learning.

The limitations of traditional or technical rational approaches to practice have been discussed by various writers, including by Schön (1983) as well as Thompson and Pascal (2012, p. 313), who argue that reflective practice offers a method to move 'away from traditional approaches to learning with their emphasis on 'technical rationality'' towards a

more integrated approach to professional learning and professional practice. While, as already discussed, security risk management practitioners in this study seem to link the benefits of reflective practice mostly to learning from experience, they would like to see it better incorporated in the discipline of security risk management. RP 16 stated:

Whereas I think in security risk management if we're able to reflect and allow them to reflect and pull such colleagues into a reflective forum, give them a voice within the reflective forum and educate I think it would be extremely useful. The problem is I don't see that we have those forums readily available. You put up a chat room as a forum for people to reflect globally, you put up Twitter, you put up, is it Yammer and all these other things, what you get is you get the same person who looks through the same lens participating. What we're looking to do is pull other people who are not looking through the same lens into that and it's difficult to do so. So we need some innovative forums to allow that to happen I would suggest. But it's necessary. I think it's hugely necessary.

While underscoring the need for reflection in the discipline, the research participant also highlights some of the issues that reflective security risk management practitioners experience.

He refers to the issues of identifying truly reflective practitioners. Not every security risk management practitioner might view the world as open as the reflective practitioner; this might present challenges especially when it comes to collaborative reflection.

4.5: Conclusion

The analysis of the research data resulted in the emergence of three grounded theory main categories. These main categories are entitled "reflect to improve", "trying when pressing", and "facilitating practice". Each main category is linked to a research question that guided this study. This section of the second thematic chapter summarises the main categories and the key findings.

Concerning research question one (To what extent do security risk management practitioners reflect on their own practice?), one main category emerged from the data that is entitled “reflect to improve”. The main category or concept aims to explicate how thoughtful security risk management practitioners are in relation to their professional practice. The concept is a result of the interaction of the three subcategories “reflect”, “regular”, and “need”.

Pertaining to research question two (In what ways do security risk management practitioners reflect on their own practice?), the analysis of the data resulted in the emergence of another main category, which is entitled “trying when pressing”. This main category emerged from the interaction of the following three subcategories: “institutional reflection”, “unstructured individual reflection”, and “triggers”. As in relation to the first main category, all categories are grounded in the data. It was found that the application of reflective practice by research respondents largely fits established models. The finding in relation to research question one, which holds that security risk management practitioners are reflective practitioners who, despite a limited familiarity with the term reflective practice, make use of known types of reflection on practice on at least a regular basis and mainly to improve practice, is supported by the findings in relation to research question two. The latter indicate that security risk management practitioners often and inadvertently utilise already-established processes of reflective practice.

Regarding research question three (How useful is reflective practice for security risk management practitioners?), again one main category emerged, entitled “facilitating practice”. This main category is a result of the interaction of the subcategories “helpful” and “it’s needed”. Again, all categories that emerged are grounded in the data. “Facilitating practice” aims to conceptualise how research respondents perceive the overall value of

reflective practice in security risk management. It was found that security risk management practitioners view reflection and reflective practice not only as very helpful with regard to improving security risk management practice, but also as a basic tool that can assist practitioners to address practice challenges.

The findings in this chapter provide an understanding of how senior security risk managers utilise and perceive reflective practice in relation to managing external threats to organisations. Thereby, the findings also address the research questions of this study and contribute to the second objective of this study (to provide practical information about the application of reflective practice in security risk management).

5 Theorising reflective practice in security risk management

5.1: Introduction

This third thematic chapter aims to contribute to the subject matter and research objectives by identifying the basic social processes that accounts for how security risk management practitioners experience reflective practice. This understanding will assist in filling a gap in our theoretical knowledge about reflective practice in security risk management. The chapter divides into three main sections. The first presents a synopsis of the study's main categories as well as findings linked to these main categories. In the second main section, the study's grounded theory core category and substantial theory is discussed. The chapter closes with a conclusion.

5.2: The thoughtful security practitioner

As this study employed grounded theory, it appears appropriate to commence this findings chapter with a synopsis of the main categories and related findings, as they provide the basis for the emergence of the core category. In this study, three main categories emerged from the data: "Reflect to improve", "trying when pressing", and "facilitating practice". Each main category links to a research question that guided this study, and these are outlined in Table 5.1:

Research question	Main category
1. To what extent do security risk management practitioners reflect on their own practice?	Reflect to improve

2. In what ways do security risk management practitioners reflect on their own practice?	Trying when pressing
3. How useful is reflective practice for security risk management practitioners?	Facilitating practice

Table 5.1: Research questions versus theoretical main categories

On a conceptual and pragmatic level, the main categories provide answers to their respective research questions. Additionally, all three main categories relate to and interact with one another, and shape a core category that is entitled “improving”. The relationships and interactions between and within the three main categories were also found to create conditions that encourage senior security risk management practitioners to reflect on their professional practice, which presents a basic social phenomenon or common professional challenge that was discovered in this study. The core category, which is in detail discussed in the next section of this chapter, explicates the grounded theory of this study, which offers a premise about the relationship between reflective practice and security risk management.

5.2.1: Reflect to improve

Directly linked to the first research question of this study, the first main category “reflect to improve” explicates how thoughtful senior security risk management practitioners are in relation to their professional practice. The coding framework in relation to this main category is illustrated in Figure 5.1. The main category emerged from the interaction of the subcategories “reflect”, “regular” and “need”.

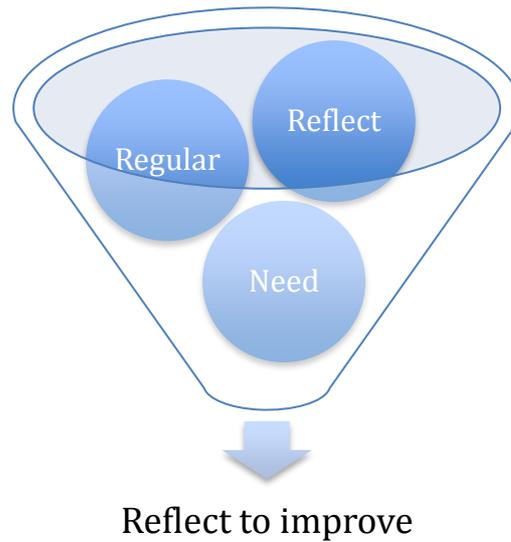


Figure 5.1: Coding framework pertaining to the first research question

The main finding in relation to research question one indicates that senior security risk management practitioners are reflective practitioners. Senior security risk managers reflect on their professional practice, despite a limited familiarity with the theory on reflective practice. They do so, at least, on a regular basis and in a rather competent manner, mainly to improve professional practice.

5.2.2: Trying when pressing

The second main category “trying when pressing” relates directly to research question two, and attempts to explain how senior security risk management practitioners go about their reflection on professional practice. This main category also materialized from an interaction of several subcategories, and this is illustrated in Figure 5.2:

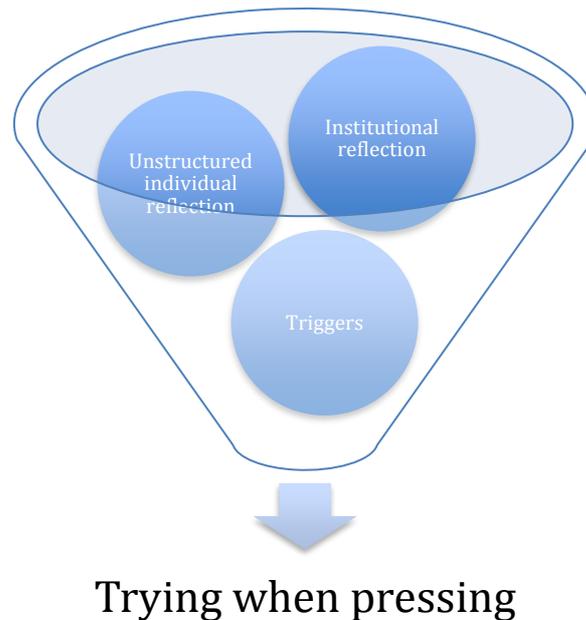


Figure 5.2: Interaction of subcategories related to second research question

The first key finding in relation to research question two suggests that senior security risk managers employ two approaches to reflective practice - organisational reflection and individual reflection on practice. While their organisational reflection appears to be quite structured and partly linked to known learning methods such as after-action-reviews and lessons learned, their individual reflection appears rather unstructured and less guided by formal approaches.

The second key finding in relation to the second research question indicates that reflection on professional practice is often triggered by non-standard situations such as incidents or emergency situations. Routine practice activities receive less reflective attention by senior security risk management practitioners than in atypical situations.

5.2.3: Facilitating practice

The main category related to the third research questions is “facilitating practice”. It conceptualises how research respondents perceive the overall value of reflective practice in security risk management. Figure 5.3 illustrates how two subcategories relate to each other in the formation of the main category:



Figure 5.3: Interaction of subcategories forming a main category pertaining to research question 3

The finding suggests that, by and large, senior security risk management practitioners perceive reflection on professional practice as useful and aiding security risk management practice. Reflective practice is viewed as a functional tool that can help practitioners to address professional practice issues. Overall, reflective practice is perceived as facilitating professional practice.

5.3: General implications of reflective practice in security risk management

The goal of grounded theory is to generate a theory that accounts for a pattern of behavior that is relevant and problematic for those involved. The goal is not voluminous description, nor clever verification. As with all grounded theory, the generation of a basic social process (BSP) theory occurs around a core category... Without a core category, an effort at grounded theory will drift in relevancy and workability. (Glaser & Holton, 2005, para. 1-5)

This section presents the core category as well as the substantive theory that emerged in this study. ‘Classic grounded theory emphasizes creating analyses of action and process’, states Charmaz (2014, p. 20). Consequently, following Glaser (1978), cited by Charmaz (2014, p. 20), grounded theory research typically commences with asking about what is happening in the field under investigation. Identifying a basic social processes that accounts for what is going on is one way of addressing this vital question (Charmaz, 2014, p. 20).

The first subsection offers a discussion about the basic social problem which represents the underlying difficulty that senior security risk management practitioners experience in the workplace daily. Thereafter, the basic social process is examined. The basic social process characterises the response of senior security risk management practitioners to the basic social problem, which is effectively resorting to reflective action. The section culminates in a discussion of the substantive theory, which aims to present a premise about the relationship between reflective practice and security risk management, in particular about how senior security risk management practitioners perceive and utilise reflective practice when addressing external threats to organisations.

5.3.1: Basic social problem

As mentioned above, three main categories were emergent from the data in this study. These categories are entitled: “reflect to improve”, “trying when pressing”, and “facilitating practice”. While analysing the data, it was found that these three main categories relate and interact with each other to form a basic social problem. This basic social problem represents a common professional challenge that was evidently, in one way or another, experienced by nearly all the security risk management practitioners

interviewed in this study. The basic social problem is entitled “keeping up”. It relates to the ongoing challenge for senior security risk management practitioners to keep up with workplace demands and complexities. The basic social problem is not the core category, however it represents the underlying issue that motivates and directs the actions of senior security risk management practitioners when it comes to managing external threats. Consequently, it appears to be the main trigger for the reflective engagement of senior security risk management practitioners.

Time and again, senior security risk management practitioners find themselves dealing with demanding and complex issues at work. Addressing demanding and complex issues in the workplace is not limited to senior security risk management practitioners, as identified in this study. Practitioners in other occupations experience similar problems. And like others, senior security risk management practitioners are keen on competently managing such situations. As noted earlier, the social theorist Schön (1983) called these situations the “swampy lowlands”. Technical rational approaches often offer no adequate solutions in such situations. Huntley, Cropley, Gilbourne, Sparkes, and Knowles (2014, p. 863) provide an appropriate example: ‘The context of sports performance is dynamic and complex and thus requires practitioners to be flexible and progressive in the way they approach their work’. Flexible and progressive responses are also often required from the senior security risk management practitioner when it comes to managing external threats in the workplace.

The basic social problem or common professional challenge, entitled “keeping up”, aims to explicate the frequent struggle of senior security risk management practitioners in addressing challenging professional situations. The following excerpts are drawn from the interviews to ground the basic social problem in the data:

RP 04: ... we work in a dynamic environment; work in, you know, complex situations; security situations around the world; and each situation is different. You know, from a complex emergency situation to a purely humanitarian situation, like this ... cyclone in the Philippines, compared to working in Afghanistan or Somalia, to someone working in Bangkok or Geneva. They are all different. And one template doesn't fit all.

RP 05: ... in organisations where money is beginning to try out, and the budgets become much tighter you really have to look at the investment you put in, in terms of capital and human resources, to ensure that you are achieving the best possible outcome within the budget you have got and the budgetary framework that exists within your particular business or organisation.

RP 06: I think managers that have to deal with security issues, big security issues, let's face it, the environments we're working in at the moment are unprecedented in terms of risk and what we're being asked to do. You know, managers that have to manage that are looking...because they don't want incidents happening around them where they can't manage it, or have got no answer to.

RP 16: ... I think that threat is a huge concern, and it's a concern for me because it's a concern for everybody within my organisation, and that's the worry they have. So they have this concern linked to that threat, and obviously it transgresses to myself, and it's trying to find a way to manage both the threat but also the expectation of my organisation.

The above excerpts aim to ground the basic social problem in the data. The continuous effort of senior security risk management practitioners to keep up with professional challenges, which are often beyond the scope of mere technical rational solutions, appears to motivate and direct their reflective practice.

5.3.2: Basic social process

Professional issues that can often not be resolved through pure technical skills and knowledge present a common professional challenge for senior security risk management practitioners. Senior security risk management practitioners were found to respond to this challenge through a process of “improving”, which represents the basic social process discovered in this study. Jones and Alony (2011, p. 109) describe a basic social process as follows:

The final result of research using Grounded Theory as a method of qualitative analysis is a model depicting the *basic social process*. A basic social process is a core category that has been developed through densification and is found to substantially represent a major social process of the phenomenon under study. It is through the articulation and explanation of this basic social process that the explanatory theory emerges. (Jones & Alony, 2011, p. 109)

As a category *improving* is central to all other categories emergent in this study, and in consequence represents the core category. The category appeared frequently in the data and provides an explanation of what is happening. Table 5.2, adapted from Calman (n.d., p. 25), presents an overview of the key categories in this grounded theory study:

Reflect to improve	Trying when pressing	Facilitating practice
Improving		

Table 5.2: Overview of the core and main categories

Improving is grounded in the data, and conceptualises senior security risk management practitioners’ response to complex and challenging workplace situations; the latter can often not be resolved by mere technical, rational or occupation-specific skills and knowledge. The use of excerpts from the primary data helps in grounding this central category:

RP 04: I think it’s a highly, it’s a good tool. Unless you ... what you are doing wrong you are never gonna improve. And it’s all about continual improvement in the workplace.

RP 08: ... continuous improvement, that’s kind of my ethos anyway. I like to improve. I don’t like to...I don’t like to remain static or stagnate. I want to keep improving.

RP 10: I just find it very useful, I always found it useful. But it is because you need to improve. I should be better at my job in one year than I am now. That is why it’s important.

RP 11: I love the quote, “If you don’t learn from history you’re damned to repeat it”, because we still see that happening day in, day out where the same mistakes are being made throughout history. And that’s essentially what the reflective practice is that if you’re not going to learn from what went well, what went wrong and get input from everybody that potentially has a stake in this then you’re going to have the same problems. Conversely, if something goes really well then you know you can now firm up that procedure, that practice or that training and then you share it, because it’s not just you and I learning from what we experience it’s also others learning from what we’ve done and then it just makes the next generation better. Because that’s our goal, if we’re not improving then we’re going backwards.

RP 13: So it’s about constant improvement and making sure that, you know, my perspective is as a security and a risk manager, my team and I, we are simply part of a customer services branch. And the customers – the clients in this case – are the folks who are doing the programmatic work and, you know, the other people that we’re trying to keep safe so that they can do their jobs. And, you know, my goal is to make sure that my team provide the best level of customer service.

RP 14: We all have our limitations. We all have our positives and you need to be able to understand those and manage those and work on improving them and that takes reflection. That takes self-reflection. That means that you need to look at yourself. You need to be honest with yourself and you need to understand that you’re not all encompassing. You can’t do everything yourself and do it to the optimum because there’s always different ways of approaching things and what might work in one way won’t necessarily work in another and therefore it’s very important to reflect on everything that you’re doing and everything that you’ve done to know where you’re going to essentially.

RP 15: Without knowing the ins and outs of reflective practice I can’t really say, but I think the idea of reflecting in order to improve in one’s own function is incredibly valuable.

RP 19: I think, again, I’m just emphasising this...I think most people, as individuals, would reflect on a daily basis and the lack of...yeah, the lack of a formalised way of being able to reflect on, you know, past experiences and how you’ve dealt with certain things is extremely lacking in this sector and I think would be hugely valuable to kind of improve how we deal with an ever-changing, ever-evolving, world from a security lens that we live in.

The above excerpts extracted from the primary data assist in grounding the basic social process in the data. The concept that senior security risk management practitioners proactively seek solutions to address professional issues is not exclusive to security risk management. Support comes from the literature. For example, Fox et al. (2007, p. 83) remark that ‘When presented with a problem, practitioners draw upon various forms of existing and new knowledge in order to resolve the problem through action’. In this study,

it was found that it is through a process of *improving* that senior security risk management practitioners respond to complex and challenging workplace situations when managing external threats.

5.3.3: Substantive theory

This study found that the relationship and interaction between and within the three main categories “reflect to improve”, “trying when pressing”, and “facilitating practice” create conditions that encourage senior security risk management practitioners to deliberately reflect on their professional practice. The underlying condition is a common professional challenge that senior security risk management practitioners experience, that is, keeping up with professional demands and complexities. Senior security risk management practitioners respond to this common professional challenge or basic social problem through a process of “improving” in order to successfully address workplace demands and complexities. Senior security risk management practitioners can therefore be seen as reflective practitioners who, despite a limited familiarity with the theory of reflective practice, utilise reflective practice, on at least a regular basis, first and foremost to improve practice. When reflecting on practice, senior security risk management practitioners often and inadvertently also utilise established processes of reflective practice.

Although, senior security risk management practitioners encounter various complex and demanding professional issues in their daily work life, they habitually make a conscious effort to effectively tackle these issues rather than to ignore them or to give in. Therefore, it can be argued that senior security risk management practitioners are very committed to their professional practice. Senior security risk management practitioners’ deliberate

reflection on professional practice, notwithstanding their lack of adequate information and guidance about reflective practice, gives emphasis to their motivation and resourcefulness.

In view of that, the emergent substantive theory holds that senior security risk management practitioners are deliberately thoughtful about their professional practice, and are not simply executors solely of technical solutions to practice. Senior security risk management practitioners have integrated reflective practice into their practice, which signifies a strong commitment to improve professional security risk management practice. This substantive theory presents a premise about the relationship between reflective practice and security risk management, which in addition reflects senior security risk management practitioners' commitment and innovativeness in connection with security risk management practice.

5.4: Conclusion

This study explored how security risk management practitioners in senior roles perceive and utilise reflective practice when addressing external threats to organisations. Theoretical concepts, which emerged from the data, lead to the generation of a substantive theory about the relationship between reflective practice and security risk management, and this provides a general answer to the research questions. The theoretical main concepts also facilitated the identification of more specific findings in relation to reflective practice and security risk management. These findings are:

Senior security risk management practitioners regularly use reflective practice in the workplace, for the most part to improve their professional practice. Senior security risk managers appear to employ reflection on professional practice in an evidently competent

manner despite, more often than not, their demonstrating having little understanding of formal reflective practice or its theory.

Senior security risk managers were found to employ two approaches to reflective practice - organisational reflection and individual reflection on practice. Whilst their organisational reflection appears to be rather structured and partly linked to known learning methods such as after-action-reviews and lessons learned, their individual reflection appears rather unstructured and less guided by formal approaches.

Reflection on professional practice is often prompted by critical or unusual situations such as security incidents or other emergency-type situations. Ordinary or routine practice situations don't receive the same reflective attention by senior security risk management practitioners as atypical situations.

Security risk management practice has been found generally to be demanding and complex. At the workplace, senior security risk managers are required to deal with both technical and non-technical situations. In the main, senior security risk managers were found to perceive reflective practice as beneficial with regard to improving professional security risk management practice.

These specific findings provide answers to the research questions in this study. The resultant professional implications are discussed in the thesis' conclusion chapter, which also contains practical recommendations for the application of reflective practice in security risk management.

6 Conclusion

What do Plato, Aristotle, Dewey, Piaget, Schön, Joanne Kathleen Rowling and Usain Bolt all have in common? They are reflective practitioners in their respective fields. (Johnson-Leslie, 2009, p. 245)

6.1: Research reflections

I have been a security risk management practitioner for 13 years. In these years, I have worked for various organisations in different security risk management functions and contexts. Thereby, I have not only gained wide-ranging professional experience, but also developed my own views about security risk management practice. As a result of an introduction to reflection on practice early in my career, I have also adopted a reflective approach to professional practice. In this study, I have explored something that I felt was happening in security risk management but could not prove before now. From early on in my security risk management career, I felt that senior security risk management practitioners might deliberately reflect on their practice. The findings of this study substantiate my earlier notion. In my own professional practice, I found it very helpful to reflect on practice. Obtaining supportive evidence from other senior security risk management practitioners is encouraging. I believe that the findings and recommendations of this study will benefit security risk management practitioners and security risk management practice in general.

6.2: Summary of findings

The main purpose of the study was to explore how senior security risk management practitioners experience reflective practice in the workplace. As there was no known research available that investigates reflective practice in security risk management, our

understanding of how these practitioners experience reflective practice in the workplace was very limited. By carrying out this research, it was intended to fill a gap in the body of knowledge on reflective practice and security risk management, and to contribute to professional practice by providing practical information about reflective practice in security risk management.

Using grounded theory methodology to collect and analyse primary and other data, the thesis offers a twofold output. From a theoretical angle, the thesis provides a substantive theory about how senior security risk management practitioners experience reflective practice in the workplace. In so doing, the thesis addresses a basic gap in our theoretical knowledge about the relationship between reflective practice and security risk management. From a professional practice angle, the thesis offers functional recommendations about reflective practice in security risk management. Thereby, the thesis attempts to contribute constructively to professional practice. Both outputs are important because very little was known about reflective practice in security management at the outset of this study. As security risk management is not only a relatively young and fast-developing occupation, it is also habitually a complex and demanding practice. Any tool that might help to enhance professional security risk management practice and assist in addressing practice-related challenges should be considered. As outlined in the thesis, reflective practice is considered, across numerous disciplines, beneficial to professional practice and development.

This study's specific practice-related findings speak directly to the research questions of this study. These findings are:

The extent to which reflective practice is applied in security risk management

Senior security risk management practitioners regularly use reflective practice in the workplace, for the most part to improve their professional practice. These practitioners appear to employ reflection on professional practice in a rather competent manner, despite generally little understanding of formal reflective practice or its theory.

The ways in which reflective practice is applied in security risk management

Senior security risk managers were found to employ two approaches to reflective practice - organisational reflection and individual reflection on practice. Whilst their organisational reflection appears to be rather structured and partly linked to known learning methods such as after-action-reviews and lessons learned, their individual reflection appears rather unstructured and less guided by formal approaches. Institutional reflection on practice is more structured than personal reflective practice; however, a better knowledge of how reflective practice is applied in other occupations (e.g. nursing and teaching) might not only add new insight but also guidance to both forms of reflective practice in security risk management.

Reflection on professional practice is often prompted by critical or unusual situations such as security incidents or other emergency situations. Ordinary or routine practice situations don't receive the same reflective attention by senior security risk management practitioners as atypical situations. However, reflective practice theory indicates that it can also aid routine practice situations.

Usefulness of reflective practice in security risk management

Security risk management practice has been found to be more often than not demanding and complex. At the workplace, senior security risk management practitioners are required to deal with both technical and non-technical situations. In the main, senior security risk managers were found to perceive reflective practice as beneficial with regard to improving professional security risk management practice. This finding corresponds with findings about reflective practice in other occupations.

As indicated in earlier chapters and sections of this thesis, security risk management is a young and rapidly-developing, multifaceted occupation. Security risk management practitioners' current professional challenges and the approaches to practice differ notably from those in the past; this highlights the process of evolution the occupation has gone through, from mainly a guarding function to a multifaceted risk management activity. A relevant example embodies security risk management in humanitarian aid and international development. Current approaches in this field are summarised by Egeland et al. (2011), cited by Armstrong (2013, p. 11), who stated that organisations are now leaning more towards managing risks rather than avoiding risks to ensure business is continuing in nearly all circumstances or environments.

In today's complex and challenging global and local environments barely any organisation can avoid taking risks. The risks an organisation takes should be in one way or another proportionate to the benefits an organisation expects. Hence, effective and efficient risk management is critically important. In this sense, contemporary security risk management is an enabler of business activity, an approach which is very different from that in the past when security management was all too often focused on avoiding risks, even when it meant to block very important business activity. However, today's situations also often

lead to more complex and demanding practice conditions for security risk management practitioners. Addressing security-related issues by putting a foot down and blocking all those activities that are deemed too risky is not an option anymore. Current professional challenges and issues demand constructive and applicable approaches and solutions. This necessitates that security risk management practitioners obtain access to and utilise appropriate tools which help them to address practice-related concerns. This study has found that reflective practice is such a tool.

The substantive theory of this study, which emerged from the data, offers a model of the relationship between reflective practice and security risk management, in particular how senior security risk management practitioners utilise and perceive reflective practice when focusing on external threats. The model indicates that senior security risk managers are thoughtful practitioners who are, on purpose, more than mere executors of technical solutions to security risk management practice. At times, pure technical approaches to security risk management practice have had their limitations, in particular in complex and demanding practice situations. Reflective practice offers a means to address some of these limitations, e.g. in situations where experiential knowledge is needed, at times when swift adaptation to new situations is needed or when measuring the strengths and weaknesses of particular approaches, for example, the safeguarding of personnel, assets or operations. The understanding that reflective practice is frequently integrated into workplace activities suggests that senior security risk management practitioners are open to new tools for the purpose of improving professional practice. This also suggests that senior security risk management practitioners are likely to support the integration of reflective practice into professional practice as well as professional training and education, as it adds to the repertoire of tools that add value to security risk management practice.

6.3: Implications of findings

The study's findings appear to have important implications for security risk management practice. The main reason for this is that purposefully reflecting on professional practice might add value to security risk management practice. For example, reflective practice can act as a catalyst for change, reflective practice can assist in identifying learning gaps and help capture lessons learned, and reflecting on professional practice can also assist in evaluating professional practice and oneself. All that can have far-reaching consequences for security risk management practice and individual security risk managers. A testament to the added value that reflective practice can bring to security risk management practice is the fact that it is already utilised and, on examination, perceived positively by senior security risk management practitioners. This underscores the potential professional relevance of the learning tool; it presents a potentially useful starting point for a far-reaching introduction of reflective practice into security risk management practice, security risk management training and education to enable a much broader range of security risk managers to enjoy the benefits of reflective practice. More specifically the findings imply the following:

A need to address vulnerabilities in theoretical understanding

The discovery that senior security risk management practitioners purposefully and regularly reflect on their professional practice is encouraging, as it suggests that they are committed to improving professional practice. However, the notion that their theoretical understanding of reflective practice is rather limited presents a vulnerability that should be addressed.

It is encouraging that senior security risk managers employ different types of reflection on professional practice, organisational reflection and individual reflection on practice. Whilst methods such as after-action-reviews and lessons learned seem to guide organisational reflection on practice, senior security risk management practitioners appear to have limited tools available that guide their individual reflection, and this presents a disadvantage. Therefore, a better theoretical understanding of reflective practice would likely enhance security risk managers' institutional reflection on practice and their individual reflective practice.

A potentially missed opportunity by not using reflective practice in non-emergency situations

The observation, that senior security risk managers' reflective practice is often prompted by atypical situations and less so by routine practice situations, is not new. Similar observations were made with regard to reflective practice in other occupations. However, it would likely be beneficial for senior security risk management practitioners to incorporate reflective practice into routine practice situations to improve on the latter by taking advantage of the benefits that reflective practice provides.

Increase the number of beneficiaries by incorporating reflective practice much wider in security risk management practice and training

The notion that senior security risk management practitioners perceive reflective practice as supportive of professional practice appears to be an advantage from at least two perspectives. Firstly, having the support of senior security risk managers would likely facilitate the introduction of reflective practice in security risk management training and education. Cooperation between the industry and educational institutions appears essential

to build reflective practice (theory) into training curricula. Secondly, senior security risk management practitioners' supportive position of reflective practice would most likely also assist the introduction of reflective practice to the workplace. Introducing the tool from the top down rather than from the bottom up would likely create greater impact as well as momentum in the introduction and application of the tool in the workplace.

6.4: Key recommendations

As discussed in the previous section, the findings of the study appear to have implications on security risk management practice. Reflective practice offers an added value for professional security risk management practice as it allows practitioners to reflect on their professional activities to engage in a professional learning process. In turn, professional learning processes enable practitioners as well as practices in general to develop. To ensure that security risk management practitioners are able to harvest the benefits that reflective practice offers, a few key recommendations are made:

Formally introduce reflective practice into security risk management

To improve senior security risk management practitioners' currently limited knowledge of reflective practice theory, which would certainly enhance security risk managers' application of reflective practice in the workplace, it would be beneficial to introduce reflective practice theory properly through education and training programmes. For example, reflective practice already forms an effective element of the professional doctorate courses at the University of Portsmouth's Institute of Criminal Justice, and could be extended more fully into undergraduate and postgraduate university courses or professional training.

Use reflective practice also in routine workplace situations

Reflection on professional practice is mostly employed in non-routine workplace situations. Routine workplace situations or activities do not receive the same reflective treatment as atypical situations. An attempt should be made to introduce reflective practice also into routine security risk management practice; this would ensure that routine practice, which probably occupies the majority of the security risk managers' time and effort in the workplace, also benefits from the advantages of reflective practice.

Conduct further research

Although this study offers both a substantive theory about how senior security risk managers experience reflective practice as well as practical information about reflective practice in security risk management, it is suggested more research is required to test the substantive theory and explore the topic in greater detail. The output of this study is important as it fills a gap in our theoretical understanding about the relationship between security risk management and reflective practice, and it offers recommendations that can assist in enhancing security risk management practice. However, as outlined earlier, security risk management is a rapidly-growing and multifaceted practice; more research into the two dimensions of this study is suggested toward investigating the utilisation of reflective practice within the occupation in greater detail. A better understanding of how reflective practice is employed across the broad spectrum of the occupation will likely further enhance its application within security risk management.

7 Appendices

Appendix A: Ethics self-assessment

Professional Doctorate in Criminal Justice (DCrimJ)

Ethics self-assessment form



Record of ethical considerations in planning your small-scale research.

The information below should be supplied prior to commencement of the small-scale research.

Student Name / Number: 475506/ Alexander Nikolaus HASENSTAB

Date: 05 October 2013

Proposed research topic (s) (*please print clearly*):

Reflective practice in security risk management.

Background/preparation (*student to complete as self-assessment*)

1 Student has read the relevant section in the unit handbook (Part 3, Section 5)
Yes [] No []

Student has read the *British Society of Criminology* ethical guidelines
(see <http://www.britsoccrim.org/codeofethics.htm>)
Yes [] No []

3 Student has attended the taught research ethics session (*campus only*)
Yes [] No [] Not applicable []

4 Will the research involve the collection and analysis of primary or secondary data?

Primary data Yes [X] No []

Secondary data Yes [] No [X]

If 'no' to both parts of Q4, outline any ethical issues that may arise in your research at the end of the questions below (e.g. political considerations in taking a critical stand on a sensitive issue).

If 'yes' to either primary or secondary data collection, go on to answer ALL the following questions.

5 Does proposed research involve face-to-face contact with members of the community?

Yes [X] No []

6 Is access to personal or confidential data sought?

Yes [] No [X]

7 Are you aware of the need to ensure anonymity and confidentiality of research participants?

Yes [X] No []

Are there potential risks to you and/ or research subjects in the research? (*Specify which in the space provided*)

Physical Yes [] No [X].....

Psychological Yes [] No [X]

Compromising situations Yes [] No [X]

Are there data protection issues? Yes [] No [X]

Do you believe you need to deceive research subjects? (e.g. by not being clear about the purpose of your research)

Yes [] No [X]

11 Is there any likely harm to participants involved in the research? Yes [] No [X]

12 Is there any potential role conflict for you in the research? Yes [X] No []

13 Is participation in the research voluntary? Yes [X] No []

14 Have you considered how you are going to obtain informed consent from research participants?

Yes [X] No []

15 Are there *any other* potential sources of ethical issues or conflict in the proposed research?

Yes [] No [X]

16 If you are using secondary data, is the data available in the public domain?

Yes [] No [] Not using secondary data [X]

If "no", please explain how you have access to the data and address in an ethical narrative

.....
.....

Any other ethical issues? (e.g. political considerations, sensitivity of the topic) Yes [] No [X]

YOU MUST SUBMIT THIS FORM TO THE DCrimJ ADMINISTRATOR (ann.treagus@port.ac.uk) WITH AN ETHICAL NARRATIVE WHICH EXPLAINS IN DETAIL HOW YOU INTEND TO ADDRESS THE ETHICAL ISSUES THAT YOU HAVE IDENTIFIED. YOU SHOULD ALSO SUBMIT, WHERE APPROPRIATE, ACCOMPANYING DOCUMENTATION SUCH AS DRAFT LETTERS OF INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE, ETC.

Signature of Student..... Date: 05 October 2013

Date sent for Ethical Review.....

Outcome of Ethical Review

Favourable outcome: fit to proceed to data collection Yes [] No []

Provisional favourable outcome: proceed to data collection if recommendations of ethical review are met. The implementation of recommendations must be overseen by supervisor.

Yes [] No []

Unfavourable ethical review: Do **NOT** proceed to data collection, contact your supervisor and respond to the issues identified by the ethical review. Yes [] No []

Date of Ethical

Review.....

Signature of ICJS Ethics

Officer.....

Advice/decisions/responsibilities

Answers in bold and underlined require further consideration. You may need to seek advice. The **unit coordinator and your supervisor** can advise. **Jane Winstone** is the ICJS ethics officer and also deputy course leader and she will be consulted in cases that cannot be resolved by the unit tutor/supervisor. Cases not resolved by these processes will go to the Faculty Research Ethics Committee (FREC).

Your **Course Leader** takes on the responsibility for supervising what you do. You must keep him/her informed of any changes to the original proposal. Your supervisor in turn may wish to consult with the ethics officer or Faculty Research Ethics Committee if he/she is unhappy about the ethical implications of any proposed changes.

Appendix B: Interview guide (final version)



Interview Guide 1.2

(Semi-structured one-to-one
interviews)

Institute of Criminal Justice
Studies
Ravelin House, Ravelin Park
Museum Road, Portsmouth
PO1 2QQ
T: +44 (0)23 9284 3933
F: +44 (0)23 9284 3933

Study title: The thoughtful security practitioner: Exploring reflective practice in security risk management

REC Ref No: 13/14:08

Preamble

Dear [Research Participant],

My name is Alexander Hasenstab and I am a doctoral student at the University of Portsmouth in the United Kingdom. I am conducting a small-scale research project for my doctorate degree, on reflective practice in security risk management. I will be talking to experienced security practitioners in corporate or organisational security roles across different organisations. I will be asking everyone the same questions, about their perception and experiences of reflection or reflective practice in their daily workplace practice. Would you have any question relating to the focus of the interview?

This is for research purposes only and will be strictly confidential, and your comments totally anonymous. If you are willing to participate, I would be grateful if you could confirm your consent in the attached *Participant Consent Form*. Please feel free to keep a copy, which explains that should you change your mind, just inform me and I will not use your information.

Thank you very much.

Interview Schedule

1. By way of introduction, could you tell me a bit about your current role and professional background?

Time in role

I would like to start with some questions about the discipline of security risk management:

2. How do you see the security discipline as having evolved in the period of your experience?

How is security perceived?

3. What operational issues (e.g. budget, promoting a security culture, threat assessments) are of greatest concern to you?

4. What are your main security concerns as a security risk manager?

5. What do you see as being the core knowledge, skill and qualification requirements of a security risk manager?

How important is a relevant academic education?

How important are soft-skills (e.g. ability to adapt, think on your feet, integrity)?

I would now like to explore the topic of reflective practice with you:

6. What is your understanding of the concept and nature of reflective practice?

Professions in which it is used?

What is your understanding of the idea of reflection?

7. Do you ever reflect on your own practice?

When?

How?

Methods/Frameworks

How familiar are you with exercises like lessons learned, after action reviews/reports or root cause analysis?

Example situations

8. Why do you find it useful to reflect on your practice?

What is particularly useful to you?

9 How might reflecting on practice help security risk managers to solve workplace problems?

Other ways you could use it

Ways that others could employ it

10. How valuable and important do you think reflective practice is?

What may be the added value to the business?

11. Is there anything you would like to add that we haven't already covered?

Thank you very much for your help

Appendix C: Participant consent form



Participant Consent
Form

Institute of Criminal Justice Studies
Ravelin House, Ravelin Park
Museum Road, Portsmouth
PO1 2QQ

Researcher: Alexander Hasenstab
alexander.hasenstab@myport.ac.uk

Supervisor: Dr Alison Wakefield
alison.wakefield@port.ac.uk

**Head of Department/ Secondary
Supervisor:** Dr Phil Clements
phil.clements@port.ac.uk

Study Title: The thoughtful security practitioner: Exploring reflective practice in security risk management

REC Ref No: 13/14:08

Name of Researcher: Alexander Nikolaus Hasenstab

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated
05 October 2013 (version 1.3) for the above study. I have had the opportunity
to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to
withdraw at any time without giving any reason. Please note that should you decide to
withdraw it may not be possible to extract or destroy data
provided by you once it has been incorporated in the data analysis.

3. I understand that data collected during the study, may be looked at by individuals from University of Portsmouth or from regulatory authorities.

I give permission for these individuals to have access to my data.

4. I agree to my interview being audio recorded

5. I agree to be quoted verbatim

6. I agree to take part in this study by commencing the phone or Skype interview.

Name of Participant:

Date:

Name of Person taking consent:

Alexander Hasenstab

Date:

Appendix D: Participant information sheet



Participant Information
Sheet

Institute of Criminal Justice
Studies
Ravelin House
Ravelin Park
Museum Road
Portsmouth
PO1 2QQ

Study Title: The thoughtful security practitioner: Exploring reflective practice in security risk management

REC Ref No: 13/14:08

Researcher: Alexander Nikolaus Hasenstab

Dear Participant,

I would like to invite you to take part in a research study on reflective practice in security risk management. Before you decide, I would like you to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Talk to others about the study if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear.

What is the purpose of the study?

This study seeks to explore how security risk management practitioners perceive and use reflection in their practice. Whilst reflection on practice is well established in health care and education, there is very little academic research on this process in security. This study aims to

explore processes of reflection, not specific incidents upon which security risk management practitioners reflect. I am conducting this research as student at the Institute of Criminal Justice Studies at the University of Portsmouth and it forms part of the requirements for the award of my professional doctorate.

Why have I been invited?

You have been invited because you are a security risk management practitioner with important relevant professional experience. You have been approached because I know you personally from current or previous common work assignments or because another participant of this research study has recommended you. I anticipate that in total approximately 30 security risk management practitioners will be interviewed.

Do I have to take part?

No. It is entirely up to you to decide to join the study. If you decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet, which you can keep, and you will be asked to acknowledge the study's participant consent form.

What will happen to me if I take part?

I will interview you, via phone or Skype Internet based calling software, which will take approximately 45 minutes of your time. The interview will be recorded using a Dictaphone or computer based audio recorder. During the interview you will not be required to identify yourself or where you work. Neither will you be required to answer any questions you feel uncomfortable with nor do you need to reveal any personal or confidential information.

Expenses and payments

Participating in this study might involve some Internet charges in relation to the use of Skype. Unfortunately I am unable to offer any compensation for this expense should it occur.

What will I have to do?

All that will be expected of you is A) to have a functioning phone connection or access to Skype, an Internet based calling software, in order to participate in a short interview, and B) to give your consent by either 1) signing and returning (via email) the participant consent form or 2) sending me a short email acknowledging that you have read and understood both the participant information sheet and participant consent form and stating that you agree to take part in this study. The interview will then take place at a mutually agreed time.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

This study attempts to explore the perception and utilisation of reflective practice amongst security risk management practitioners. The study does not seek to elicit sensitive or confidential personal or professional information. At this point in time, the researcher has identified no disadvantages or risks. However, for professional or personal reasons you might not feel comfortable to share your experiences in this study. Should this be the case you are free to withdraw from the study up to the point of data analysis.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

Reflective practice is widely perceived as contributing an improvement of professional practice and professional development. A better understanding of how reflective security risk management practitioners are may contribute to enhance security risk management practice.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

If you join the study, it is possible that some of the data collected will be looked at by authorised persons from the University of Portsmouth. Should there be an accidental disclosure of personal or sensitive information this information will not be included in the transcript. Data may also be looked at by authorised people to check that the study is being carried out correctly. All will have

a duty of confidentiality to you as a research participant and we will do their best to meet this duty. All data will be anonymised, encrypted and securely stored by the researcher. Raw data will be retained until the award of my degree. As soon as the requirement to retain the data is fulfilled all data will be securely destroyed. Participants have the right to check the accuracy of data held about them and correct any errors.

What will happen if I don't want to carry on with the study?

Should you change your mind, you are free to withdraw from the study, up to the point of data analysis, without providing a reason. Whether you participate in this study or not will have no effect, either positive or negative, on any relationships we might have. Please note that should you decide to withdraw it may not be possible to extract or destroy data provided by you once it has been incorporated in the data analysis.

What if there is a problem?

If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you should speak to my supervisor, Dr Alison Wakefield, or me as the researcher; we will do our best to answer your questions (see Contact Details). If you remain unhappy and wish to complain formally, you can do this by contacting the head of the department, Dr Phil Clements (see Contact Details).

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of this study will be summarised and included in the thesis paper, which will after completion be submitted to the University of Portsmouth. Once the thesis has been examined and approved by the university it is my objective to publish the findings of this study in either separate journal articles or as a whole, in form of a book. You will not be identified in either the thesis, journal articles or a book unless you have given your consent.

Who is organising and funding the research?

This research study is sponsored by the University of Portsmouth and will be funded by me.

Who has reviewed the study?

Research in the University of Portsmouth is looked at by an independent group of people, called a Research Ethics Committee, to protect your interests. This study has been reviewed and given a favourable opinion by the university's Research Ethics Committee.

Contact Details

Researcher

Alexander Hasenstab

Institute of Criminal Justice Studies

University of Portsmouth

Mobile: +234 803 403 5185

Email: alexander.hasenstab@myport.ac.uk

If you would like further information about this research project, other research conducted by the University of Portsmouth or have specific concerns about the manner in which I have conducted this research please contact Dr Alison Wakefield as detailed below.

Supervisor

Dr Alison Wakefield

Institute of Criminal Justice Studies

University of Portsmouth

Ravelin House

Ravelin Park

Museum Road

Portsmouth

PO1 2QQ

Telefon: + 44 (0)23 9284 3933

Fax: + 44 (0)23 9284 3939

Email: alison.wakefield@port.ac.uk

Head of Department/ second Supervisor

Dr Phil Clements

Institute of Criminal Justice Studies

University of Portsmouth

Ravelin House

Ravelin Park

Museum Road

Portsmouth

PO1 2QQ

Telefon: + 44 (0)23 9284 3933

Fax: + 44 (0)23 9284 3939

Email: phil.clements@port.ac.uk

Concluding statement

I would like to thank you for considering taking part in this research study. Should you decide to take part in this research you will be given a copy of the information sheet to keep and I will ask you to give your consent.

Appendix E: Invitation letter

Invitation Letter



Institute of Criminal Justice Studies
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Museum Road
Portsmouth
PO1 2QQ
T: +44 (0)23 9284 3933
F: +44 (0)23 9284 3933

Study Title: The thoughtful security practitioner: Exploring reflective practice in security risk management

REC Ref No:

Researcher: Alexander Nikolaus Hasenstab

Dear Potential Research Participant

I would like to invite you to participate in a research study on reflective practice in security risk management. I am conducting this research as student at the Institute of Criminal Justice Studies at the University of Portsmouth. This research study forms part of the requirements for the award of my professional doctorate.

This study seeks to explore how security risk management practitioners perceive and use reflection in their practice. Whilst reflection on practice is well established in professional areas such as health care and education, there is little academic research on this process in security. This study aims to explore processes of reflection, not specific incidents upon which security risk management practitioners reflect. This study has been reviewed and given a favourable opinion by the university's Research Ethics Committee.

If you would like further information about this research project, other research conducted by the University of Portsmouth or have specific concerns about the manner in which I conduct this research please contact my research supervisor Dr Alison Wakefield (E: alison.wakefield@port.ac.uk or T: +44 [0]23 9284 3933).

Kind regards,

Alexander Hasenstab

Date: Version No. 1.1

Contact information: Email - alexander.hasenstab@myport.ac.uk; Phone - +92(0)345 85 09 011

Appendix F: Ethics Committee Protocol

ICJS ETHICS COMMITTEE – PROTOCOL

Date: 30 January 2014

Researcher name:

Alexander Nikolaus Hasenstab

Supervisor name:

First: Dr Alison Wakefield, UoP ICJS

Second: Dr Phil Clements, UoP ICJS

Project title:

The thoughtful security practitioner security risk manager: exploring reflective practice reflection in security risk management

Brief summary of project – to include a rationale:

This research study – based on an empirical investigation using grounded theory methodology – will explore reflective practice in security risk management. A preliminary review of the literature did not provide any information about the role reflective practice plays in security risk management, although the literature review revealed a considerable body of knowledge in relation to reflective practice in other occupations. Security risk management is a fast developing and increasingly professional area of practice, which is becoming more and more important in institutional risk management. Constant developments in security risk management require security risk management practitioners to carefully consider their own professional development and the advancement of security practice in general. Therefore it is surprising that so far researchers have shown little interest in the area of reflective practice in security risk management, especially as there has been considerable interest amongst researchers and practitioners of other occupational

disciplines in reflective practice. I believe that a better understanding of how security risk management practitioners perceive and use reflective practice might - by identifying practical strategies and suggestions for the application of reflective practice in security risk - enhance security practice and professional development.

Project aims and outcomes:

The general aim of this research study is to explore, with a sample of security risk management practitioners, how security risk managers utilise and perceive reflective practice. The following three focused questions will be used to guide the research study:

- 1) Do security risk managers reflect on their own practice?
- 2) How do security risk managers reflect on their own practice?
- 3) Is reflective practice suitable for security risk managers?

I cautiously expect that this study will provide a rudimentary understanding of: A) whether any form of reflection is used in security risk management practice; B) whether any frameworks of reflection are used and in which situations reflection is employed; and C) whether reflective practice might be an appropriate tool to improve security risk management practice.

Summary of design and methods (to include power calculations if relevant):

The methodology employed in this research study is empirical. Grounded theory methodology has been chosen to explore the research problem, whereby both reading and empirical research will take place in parallel as part of an iterative process with the data analysed on an ongoing basis and fed back into the research design. This process will continue until an as full a theoretical understanding as possible is achieved. This approach will then inform the thesis structure, which will presents the data thematically rather than

by separating out the literature review and empirical data to reflect the more linear process followed in a more traditional research study.

The scope of this research study is limited to experienced and senior security risk management practitioners working in a corporate or organisational security management role. The reason for focusing on experienced security risk management practitioners as research participants is the notion that experienced professionals respond differently to a workplace situation than novice practitioners, as suggested by Johns (1998, p. 1). The author argues that experts respond ‘intuitively’ to a situation while the novice breaks ‘downs situations in to stages within a linear decision making process’ (1998, p. 1)

In this research study a partial literature review will be carried out prior to primary data collection. The purpose of this initial literature review is to identify existing knowledge in the subject area and to provide a theoretical background and context for the conduct of this research study. A detailed review of the literature will be conducted after the collection and analysis of the primary data.

Participants (who, how many, relationship to researcher – if any):

My intention is to interview between 20 and 30 full-time security risk managers. The exact figure is subject to theoretical saturation in this grounded theory study. Some prospective research participants (convenience and purposive sample) are already known to me, either via university (professional doctorate cohort) or work-related activities. I intend to recruit both convenience and purposeful sample participants directly through my existing network of security practitioners. This direct contact with (potential) research participants might also increase the likelihood of voluntary responses, and it will serve to assess whether or not any formal access permission might be required. Should any formal access permission be required, I will provide a summary of the study to the gatekeeper to obtain permission

to interview participants. This approach will also be adopted during the theoretical sampling stage.

Table 1 (below) provides an overview of the intended sampling strategy.

A. Open beginning and research questions	B. Ethics Approval
C. Convenience Sampling	
Interviews: 2 security practitioners who already practice reflection	<i>Memo writing after each interview</i>
D. Data Analysis: coding and memo writing	
E. Purposeful Sampling	
Interviews: 3 security practitioners who already practice reflection	<i>Memo writing after each interview</i>
F. Data Analysis: coding and memo writing	
Ethics modification submission and approval (alterations in security practitioners interview question routes are anticipated)	
G. Theoretical Sampling	
Interviews: 5 security practitioners	<i>Memo writing after each interview</i>
Repeat F, G and new Ethics modification submission and approval (alterations in security practitioners interview question routes are anticipated)	

Interviews: 5 security practitioners	<i>Memo writing after each interview</i>
Repeat F and G	
Interviews: 5 security practitioners	<i>Memo writing after each interview</i>
Repeat F	
Interviews: 5 security practitioners	<i>Memo writing after each interview</i>
H. Conclusion, memo writing	

Table 1: Overview of sampling strategy

Summary of known ethical concerns and strategies to manage these; examples might include:

From the outset of this research study consideration was given to research ethics. The issue of ethics was first considered during the development of the research project proposal, which was submitted to the Institute of Criminal Justice Studies of the University of Portsmouth. During the compilation of the relevant research ethics documents that are required to secure ethics approval from the University of Portsmouth Ethics Committee, I familiarised myself with relevant ethical codes and guidelines; including the Code of Ethics for researchers in the field of criminology (British Society of Criminology, 2006)

and the Framework for Research Ethics of the Economic and Social Research Council (2012).

This study does not seek access to privileged, sensitive or personal data. Should any such data be identified it will be omitted from the research or securely destroyed. There have been no risk issues identified. The Economic & Social Research Council (n.d.) states that research conducted outside the United Kingdom could involve some risk. Although this study will be conducted from outside the United Kingdom no additional risks were identified at this point. Whilst I know some prospective research participants via university or work-related settings, I do not have any other duties towards these participants nor am I in a power relation with them. The focus of this study is on professional security risk managers, therefore there is no intention to include any research participants who are in any way vulnerable. No reputational issues have been identified. No deception of any sort will be employed in this study. All prospective and actual research participants will be provided with as much information about the research as possible. To address issues of confidentiality all (prospective and actual) research participants will, prior to the commencement of the data collection, be informed that all responses will be treated with confidentiality and that all data will be handled securely. To safeguard the participants' identification all real names will be omitted and pseudonyms will be used instead. This will include any information in relation to the research participants' employer. Should any participant in the course of the data collection reveal any potentially confidential, sensitive, or personal information, it will be omitted from the transcription of the interviews and data analysis process. All research data will be securely stored on my own personal computer. Access to this computer will be protected.

In order to keep my employer, the United Nations Department of Safety & Security, informed about my research activities I will provide the Office of the Under Secretary General for Safety & Security with a copy of this research protocol.

Role conflict

This study will be carried out as part of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Criminal Justice. Therefore, the reasons for conducting research in a work-related setting are mainly related to the study programmes' requirement to contribute to academic knowledge and professional practice in the candidate's area of professional practice. Whilst work-based research is becoming increasingly common it presents its own set of vulnerabilities. By undertaking this research study, I recognise that I am an insider from two perspectives; the study will be conducted within the setting in which I work, security risk management; and fellow security risk managers might participate in this research study. Hence an important issue might arise, role conflict. Potentially conflicting identities - i.e. that of being a researcher and a practising security risk management professional at the same time - might present a challenge that would need to be addressed. As a security risk manager and security risk management researcher my concern is twofold; 1) that my own professional experience might influence the interpretation of data, and 2) that research participants might tailor their responses around the fact that I am 'one of their own'. Colbourne and Sque (2004, p. 303), however, stated that, despite a prevailing considerable 'angst' in relation to role conflict, the issue – if adequately addressed – could actually benefit the research. According to the authors '... recognising that there is a conflict is probably the most important factor in trying to resolve it, together with honesty in determining how this role may have impacted negatively on the research and, more importantly, positively on it...' (2004, p. 303). Costley et al. (2010, p. 3), for example, argued that insiders are in a 'unique position' to examine workplace situations because of the 'special knowledge' they possess about a particular phenomenon. The authors also pointed towards specific issues that an inside-researcher should consider: e.g. deception of colleagues, the researcher's own organisation, and other organisations and communities

within the relevant professional area (2010, p. 31). As stated above no form of deception will be used in this study, and my as well as other organisations (participants employers) will be provided with as much information about the research as possible.

Annex:

Annex A – Prospective Research Participant Dimensions

ACTIVITY		PROSPECTIVE RESEARCH PARTICIPANT DIMENSIONS				
	RP	Function/ Role	Nationality	Type of Organisation	Gender	Description

C. Convenience Sampling						
Primary	RP1	Training Officer	Dutch	IG*	Male	Diverse experience as senior police & senior security officer/trainer
Primary	RP2	Risk Consultant	British	Corporation	Male	ProfDoc student
Alternate	RP3	Managing Director	British	Self-	Male	MD of a security

				employed		consulting firm & ProfDoc student
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E. Purposive Sampling	<i>Tentative</i>					
Primary	RP4	Managing Director	British	Corporation	Male	MD of a security consulting firm & ProfDoc student
Primary	RP5	Security Advisor	British	IG*	Male	Diverse experience as police officer & security advisor
Primary	RP6	Security Advisor (retired)	Canadian	IG*	Male	Diverse experience as senior police officer & senior security advisor

Alternate	RP7	Security Advisor	Fijian	IG*	Male	Diverse experience as senior military officer & senior security advisor
Alternate	TBD***					
Alternate	TBD***					
Alternate	TBD***					

G. Theoretical Sampling 1st round	<i>Tentative</i>					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					

Primary	TBD***					
Alternate	TBD***					

G. Theoretical Sampling 2nd round	<i>TBD***</i>					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Alternate	TBD***					
Alternate	TBD***					

G. Theoretical	<i>TBD***</i>					
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Sampling 3rd round						
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Alternate	TBD***					
Alternate	TBD***					

G. Theoretical Sampling 4th round	<i>TBD***</i>					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					

Primary	TBD***					
Primary	TBD***					
Alternate	TBD***					
Alternate	TBD***					

Legend:

* = Inter-governmental organisation

** = International non-governmental organisation

*** = To be determined

Table 2: Prospective Research Participant Dimensions

Annex B – Thesis outline

Structure	Percentage	Words
Abstract		
Content		
Table of Figures		
Abbreviations		
Chapter 1 - Introduction	Up to 10%	Up to 4,000 words
Chapter 2 - Theoretical background	Up to 20%	Up to 8,000 words
Chapter 3 - Methodology	Up to 20%	Up to 8,000 words
Chapter 4 – <i>related to research question 1</i>	Up to 13%	Up to 5,200 words
Chapter 5 – <i>related to research question 2</i>	Up to 13%	Up to 5,200 words
Chapter 6 – <i>related to research question 3</i>	Up to 13%	Up to 5,200 words
Chapter 7 - Conclusion	Up to 10%	Up to 4,000 words
References		
Annexes		

Table 3: Thesis outline

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