

## Bridging the Security gap in Ghana: The role of Private Security Actors

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### ABSTRACT

Traditionally, the police have been the mechanism for protecting the right to security. Policing is an authority conferred by the country's constitutional system to secure generally the comfort, safety, morals, health, and prosperity of its citizens by preserving public order. The term private or non-state actors broadly refers to individuals, groups and organisations that provide security services, but are not part of the formal, statutory institutions and agencies mandated to provide security related services, such as the police, the military, intelligence agencies, or para-military organisations like the Immigration Service. Non -state security actors have received greater attention from scholars and policy-makers in recent years as their prominence and persistence in many weak states have become increasingly acknowledged. In many developing countries, state security provision has largely been inadequate, being focused mainly on using military, police and intelligence services for state preservation against external aggression and internal disorder. An inordinate focus on this form of security has resulted in the neglect of the physical and other socio-economic needs of a majority of citizens, who have consequently resorted to 'self-help' mechanisms using the private, non-state sector to address their security needs. Therefore, this study sought to empirically evaluate the implication of complementing private security actors in the policing of Ghana for the police administration. The researcher used both the qualitative and quantitative strategies (mixed-methodology) in the study. The qualitative approach was used in describing and presenting the background information on the implication of complementing the activities of the Ghana Police Service with private security actors, while the quantitative approach dealt with providing the needed numerical data to assess the working relationship between private security actors and the Ghana police service, and the perception the public hold about private security actors in the Country. The following major findings emerged; both the police and the private security have not complemented their patrol activities frequently; both public actors and police personnel see the importance in collaboration and complementing their activities together; the working relationship between the police and the private security actors was found to be partially effective; there are inadequate platforms for both the police and the private security actors to complement their activities together to enhance their working relationship. To enhance effective coordination between private and public security actors, the study recommended that; Security officers should be appointed as members of the police reserve force, but their powers and duties should be limited to matters concerning their employers.

**Key Words:** policing, constitutional mandate, security gap, complimentary roles, statutory institutions

### Introduction

Adequate and effective security has long been recognised as a pre-requisite for the socio-economic development of states and societies, and thus most individuals and states engage in various activities aimed at the achievement of security. Generally, states are responsible for the provision of security to their citizens. Significant shifts have been occurring over the last several decades with regard to combating crime and delivering security in many countries. Whereas formerly the state was the focal point for the attribution of responsibility, a range of actors is now explicitly looked upon to supply security services. Arguably, the most important of these new actors is the private security industry, which has been growing rapidly since the 1960s and 1970s (Claassen, 2011). In terms of the number of personnel employed, Claassen noted that private security now equals or outnumbers the public police in many countries. Traditionally, the police have been the mechanism for protecting the right to security. According to Black (1979), policing is an authority conferred by the country's constitutional system to secure generally the comfort, safety, morals, health, and prosperity of its citizens by preserving public order. As such, there is the rationale for utilising private security actors as derived from the New York State Private Security Guard training curriculum (New York State Division of Criminal Justice Services, 1995). The term private or non-state actors as used by Badong (2009) broadly refers to individuals, groups and organisations that provide security services, but are not part of the formal, statutory institutions and agencies mandated to provide security related services, such as the police, the military, intelligence agencies, or para-military organisations like the immigration Service. Non-state security actors have received greater attention from scholars and policy-makers

in recent years as their prominence and persistence in many weak states have become increasingly acknowledged. In many developing countries, state security provision has largely been inadequate (Olonisakin, Ikpe&Badong, 2009), being focused mainly on using military, police and intelligence services for state preservation against external aggression and internal disorder. An inordinate focus on this form of security has resulted in the neglect of the physical and other socio-economic needs of a majority of citizens, who have consequently resorted to 'self-help' mechanisms using the private, non-state sector to address their security needs. The private security industry provides a general and specialised workforce to enforce the rules, regulations and procedures of employers and clients, control access and prevent trespass to an employer's or client's property, prevent loss of or damage to persons and property, represent the employer to authorized visitors and other employees, manage traffic flow and deter criminal activity on the employer's or client's property (Badong, 2009). According to Alan, N'Diaye and Olonisakin(2008), Ghana's security system is described to consist of: The Ghana Armed Forces (Army, Navy and Air force), The Ghana Police Service; Paramilitary Organisations: the Ghana Immigration Service and the Customs and Excise Preventive Service (CEPS); The Penal System: The Ghana Prisons Service; Intelligence Organisations: domestic (the Bureau for National Investigation – BNI), external (the Research Bureau), and military (the Defence Intelligence Agency); Private security organisations (currently numbering some 47 licensed organisations, as well as a variety of neighborhood security organs, yet to be enumerated). Thus there are two parallel security systems operating in the country; the state system which largely caters for the needs and interests of the elite and its network of cronies, and an informal sector, where those without access to the state structures retreat (Olonisakin et al, 2009). A legal framework exists to regulate the activities of private security actors, but this is limited to the activities and operations of the commercial, private security organisations, with the law being silent on the activities of other non-state or private entities in the security arena (Badong, 2009). Thus, the security landscape in Ghana is diverse and not homogenous, with various actors operating outside the state mechanism to provide security to various segments of the population. Much of the discourse in the country on the activities of these other actors relegates them to the realm of criminality, with the impact of their activities being generally perceived as negative (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2007). Whilst the wealthy are able to afford the services of the commercial, private security organisations, a majority of the population is unable to afford them (Atuguba, 2009). Consequently, Atuguba (2009) noted that in urban areas, crime has shifted to the poorer and more deprived areas, whilst rural communities have also been largely neglected by state security agencies. The judicial system is also viewed as widely skewed to the interests of businesses and the economically well-off, and neglecting the justice needs of the poor (Atuguba, 2009).

The recurring message is that the state alone is not, and cannot be responsible for preventing and controlling crime in addition to their human rights. Everyone has to recognise that they have their own responsibility in reducing crime opportunities and increasing informal control; whether they are property owners, parents, residents, town planners, school authorities or retailers. According to Bayley and Shearing (1996), "policing now belongs to everybody". The increased sense of insecurity, coupled with the availability of various actors to fill this security gap, has led to an increase in the number of people seeking security solutions from the private sphere. Additionally, the country's political stability, combined with increased investor activities in the natural resources sector, has led to a corresponding need for security services, resulting in a burgeoning commercial, private security sector (Badong, 2009). Thus, a paradoxical situation exists where the peace and stability of the country has resulted in an increase in the number of commercial, private security companies to meet the security needs and demands of international businesses and organisations.

## **THEORITICAL ISSUES**

### **Overview of security**

The concept or notion of security has undergone a progressive change from an orthodox, state-centric focus on the usually territorial, military-like protection of states and individuals from conflicts and physical harm, to a focus on individuals and their various complex and related physical and socio-economic needs, commonly referred to as human security (Thomas, 1999). Traditionally, the state is responsible for the provision of security to its citizens as a public good and in much of Africa, this is about protection against local crime and personal security, protection of land, property and livestock, access to justice such as raising bail or paying fines, the resolution of community disputes, and access to public services (Olonisakin et al., 2009). Justice and security institutions in the developing world, particularly in Africa, are a legacy of the colonial period when these institutions were put in place to protect the colonial power structures, some of which remained in place after independence. The political elite who took over running the affairs of the state after independence, in most cases,

maintained these systems, to protect and serve their interests. In addition, many of these institutions lack the necessary human capacity and material resources to deliver these services on a large scale.

### **The main actors of national security globally**

According to Ibeanu & Momoh (2008), the privatisation of security in contemporary times has manifested itself in two broad forms which are motivated by different actors and motives. One is formalized and refers to private security organisations consisting mainly of private military companies (PMCs) and private security companies (PSCs). The second consists of non-state actors, who provide security, usually to the poor and marginalised who are unable to procure the services of commercial security, and their services are sometimes ill-defined, and they are commonly referred to as informal actors. They include individual security provisioning, neighborhood watch committees, traditional security mechanisms and vigilantes among others. Much of the literature on security privatization in Africa has tended to focus on the activities of private military and commercial private security companies, with little on the non-commercial, non-state private actors. Yet, in many developing countries, these systems are the primary providers of justice and security to the poor (Olonisakin, et al 2009). PMCs and PSCs consist of individuals and organisations structured along corporate lines and providing services independent of the state (Gumedze, 2007), with PMCs primarily offering services of a military nature to organisations and states, whilst PSCs primarily provide security services to individuals and organisations on a commercial basis. The activities of the more combat-oriented PMCs in Africa, particularly in relation to the various natural resource conflicts on the continent are controversial, with arguments that they exacerbate violence in conflict areas, commit human rights abuses and are basically modern-day mercenaries (Musah, 2000). Such concerns notwithstanding, PMCs can play a positive role in contributing to security, particularly in conflict zones through such activities as de-mining and the provision of security to international and humanitarian organisations, including the United Nations (Wright & Brooke, 2007). In countries not involved in active conflict, they are mainly involved in security sector reform. In Nigeria, the American PMC, Military Professional Resources Incorporated (MPRI) has trained the Nigerian armed forces in peacekeeping operations and is currently assisting in its reform, (Ibeanu & Momoh, 2008) whilst another American PMC, DynCorp International, is presently involved in rebuilding the Liberian armed forces. Much less controversial are the activities of PSCs, both local and international, which are more defensive and involve guarding services, escorts, protection of cash in transit and alarm response among others (Kirunda, 2008). Some of the activities of PSCs, however, sometimes result in human rights abuses (Alao, 2002). Communal security arrangements are another form of security provisioning that exist in many African states, for example Rwanda and Uganda (Baker & Scheye). Such communal, usually non-commercial security systems are mainly found at the local community levels and usually provide security not for profit, but on an exclusionary basis for political and broader socio-economic reasons, and often in response to the same exclusionary provision of security that stimulates the commercial security market (Bourne, 2002). Poor people, particularly in urban locales, often live on the margins of illegality in society in terms of illegal acquisition of housing, non-payment of taxes, etc. Consequently, they are unable or unwilling to approach formal state institutions to seek security and justice to avoid drawing attention to themselves (Badong, 2009). They therefore tend to rely on such community based systems. In Alexandria, Egypt, for instance, about 68 percent of the city's population live in squatter settlements built informally in violation of building regulations (Olonisakin et al, 2009). This makes squatters vulnerable to police action and exploitation, and consequently unwilling to approach state institutions for their security and justice needs. Communal systems include vigilante groups, neighborhood watch committees and community policing. Some problems are however associated with some of these community security arrangements, including mob actions, and the criminal activities of some groups that mutate from community security provision to activities like armed robbery, kidnappings and extortion (Ibeanu & Momoh, 2008). Such problems notwithstanding, the majority of poor people still sees such systems as offering practical solutions and consequently patronizes their services. For example, in Sierra Leone, justice and security shortfalls, as well as the negative perception of the justice system by the poor, have led to the formation of community-level self-help patrols comprising young people (Ismail & Hendrickson, 2009). Apart from the above groups and mechanisms, civil society organisations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) also play a vital role in the provision of security through such activities as human rights advocacy, research, peace building and conflict mediation, and dispute resolution, particularly in the justice sectors. It should be stated here that whilst the above mentioned groups do not usually have any links to the state, some, such as the Hisbah religious organisation that operates in northern Nigeria are state-sponsored arrangements. Overall, however, state actors tend to be more hostile to informal security systems than they are to informal justice systems, perceiving the former as undermining the monopoly of the use of force by the state (Ismail & Hendrickson, 2009). Despite some of the problems associated with security provision by these non-state

mechanisms in developing countries, due to the inability or unwillingness of the formal state security systems to provide equitable security to all, a majority of citizens turn to these non-state mechanisms, which are seen as largely legitimate, to meet their security and justice needs.

### **The growth of the private security industry in Africa**

The private security industry is considered one of the fastest growing industries in many nations. The industry is not a clear defined homogenous group, but rather a 'multitude of industries', large and small, all somehow related to the provision of security services investigations, crime prevention, order maintenance and security design' (Steden&Sarre, 2007). It typically includes the work of security guards, corporate security and loss prevention personnel, alarm and surveillance specialists, private investigators, armoured vehicle personnel, manufacturers of security equipment, locksmiths, security consultants and engineers, and people involved in a variety of related roles from private forensic laboratory scientists to guard dog trainers and drug testing specialists (Forst, 2000) **Gumedze (2007) states that** in recent years, specialised private companies have proliferated and expanded within the global security arena. They offer military and police services that were previously the preserve of the state. This phenomenon has changed the traditional role of the state dramatically in that it affects the state's traditional monopoly on the means and resources of violence that distinguished it from all other social formations. More ominously, this trend occurred in tandem with mercenary activities' taking on a corporate form and fishing in the troubled waters of Africa. The question why the private security sector has expanded so fast during the last decades has been the subject of academic attention. It has been stated that the substantial shifts have occurred rather suddenly by most historical standards. 'It had taken centuries for public policing to establish dominance over privately paid security agents, and less than three decades to reverse the trend,' as Forst (2000: 21) states. The growing private security industry in some countries now employs more staff than the public police (Button, 2007).The phenomenon of private provision of security in the form of traditional and communal security arrangements has long existed in Africa, particularly among rural communities, whilst the Western version of provision of security functions by private actors, especially in areas of conflict, is also not new; it dates back to the early Greek and Roman empires (Holmqvist, 2005). The broader phenomenon of private security provision should however be distinguished from the narrower, neo-liberal and mainly western originated phenomenon of commercialized private security, where security has become a marketplace commodity for sale. It should also be distinguished from the provision of private security by public security agencies, though in such cases, the dichotomy between private and public security is not clear-cut (Bourne, 2002).Globalization, and the inability or unwillingness of some states to provide security as a public good are some reasons attributed to the increased activities of private security actors.

### **Relationship between private and public security actors**

According to Stenning (2000), the relationship between public and private police is more often complementary than adversarial, as well as that it is increasingly difficult to identify policing tasks and responsibilities which are the exclusive preserve of public rather than private police.

Early analysts of private policing suggested that the respective roles of public and private police were determined by the geographical domains in which they worked: the policing of public places was the responsibility of public police and is to be undertaken in the 'public interest', while the role of private police is confined to the protection of private property in the interests of its owners (Burren, 2009). Stenning (2009) argues that this generalisation is no longer true, as public police obtained more and more power and technological possibilities to intrude the private property and private relationships and more and more public life is being policed by private police. Another way in which the public intelligence community is aiding the private sector is through the transfer of personnel. Through the entry of trained intelligence professionals into private sector intelligence activities, the government is donating some capabilities and knowledge the private firms might otherwise find hard to obtain (Arthur 1996). According to Loyens (2008), both public and private policing shares the same characteristics that could potentially have ethical implications. Both have certain power, so they can also abuse their power. Second, the wage of police and private security officers is often considered to be inadequate. The third factor, professional status, is somewhat connected to the second. Despite their uniform, authority, and wide discretion, police officers and private guards are a regular target of taunt, ridicule, and mockery. A fourth characteristic of the policing job in the public and private sector, is boredom. The perceived action-oriented and exciting nature of the police and private security job is often overstated (Loyens 2008).



### **Private Security Companies (PSCs)**

Private Security Companies (PSCs) help to reduce the security deficit in the face of police incapacities, by performing roles that would either not have been performed by the police, such as providing CCTV operations or, if the police were to perform such tasks, for example guarding critical national infrastructure like airports, that would have further overstretched their already limited capacity. A Presidential Commission in 1997 into the functions of the Police Service thus recommended the empowerment of PSCs to take over some mundane activities that were being carried out by the police, such as guarding banks. In this vein, it recommended an amendment to Legislative Instrument 1571 to permit security guards to handle weapons (Aning, 2006). The recommendation has still not been implemented. Private Security Companies thus complement the police by relieving them of the need to perform some routine so that they can concentrate on core policing duties such as intelligence gathering and investigations. PSC operations have a downside however, in that they are urban-focused and profit-motivated, and since it is only the wealthy that are able to afford their services, crime is invariably displaced from wealthy neighborhoods to poorer communities, further reinforcing existing socio-economic inequalities (Heyns&Steifisyn, 2006). Also, with neither minimum training standards nor a legal obligation for PSCs to train their guards before deploying them, coupled with poor oversight of their operations by the Ministry of Interior, the profit motivation of some PSCs could lead to some companies exploiting employees through underpaying them, as well as delivery of poor quality services to clients. Watchmen however offer cost-effective guarding and protection services for those who cannot afford the services of PSCs. Steden and Sarre (2007) also indicated that the danger posed by these private military and police forces is that they operate beyond the realm of legal accountability and public oversight, thereby threatening the state within which they operate, as well as its citizens. Even worse, because these private forces are available for hire, they sell their services to whoever can afford them. In this way, they constitute a serious security risk in Africa. The involvement of PMCs in training some of the security agencies like the military has both positive and negative implications for security in the country. On the positive side, it could be argued that such training improves the tactical and operational competence of these agencies, indirectly contributing to improved security (Badong, 2009). On the downside however, their focus on technical training, with little emphasis on broader aspects of security such as human rights training make their services less beneficial to the majority of Ghanaians. Additionally, with no parliamentary oversight of their activities, the effectiveness of their services cannot be benchmarked, particularly as the Ghanaian Parliament has no oversight over their activities.

### **Neighborhood Watch Committees (NWC)**

Neighborhood Watch Committees (NWC) offer one of the most effective security solutions to a majority of Ghanaians. Being formed by residents to address specific security concerns, they are able to deliver relevant security solutions whilst simultaneously helping to foster a culture of security awareness among residents (Badong, 2009). NWCs offer an entry point for the police to establish a greater support base and improve upon their intelligence-gathering capabilities in communities. In line with this objective, the Police Administration launched a Community Policing Unit in 2002 to bridge the communication and interaction gap between the police and the communities they serve (Ghana Police Service, 2008), routinely advising the leadership of NWCs on crime prevention strategies and issues of mutual interest, without getting involved in the administration of committees. Some problems associated with NWCs include vigilante violence, and the fact that a lack of assured means of remuneration for committee members makes them susceptible to collusion with criminals. Also, they are only suited for physical safety and security, and not justice delivery. Such problems notwithstanding, a great number of people still regard such systems as offering practical security solutions and consequently patronize their services.

### **NGOs and Civil Society Groups**

Civil society groups and NGOs play diverse roles in conflict prevention and resolution, peace building and reconciliation programs, which contribute to enhance security in the country (Badong, 2010). Their advocacy role serves to exert pressure on the state to provide security beyond a state-centric focus, to cover issues such as the rule of law and promotion of human rights, economic empowerment and access to health and education. Their engagement in reforms to improve access to the judicial sector and the promotion of good practices in the natural resource extraction sector helps contribute to an enhanced security environment. NGO and civil society engagements in the security sector are however weakened due to limited knowledge, a lack of skills and expertise in the field of security and limited resources, particularly in the case of the local organisations. There is also an increasing proliferation and consequent competition among some groups clamoring for relevance and funding from various donor agencies (Badong, 2010).

## **Overview of the security organisation in Ghana**

The current organisation of the Ghanaian security agencies and judicial system can be traced to the colonial era, when institutions were put in place by the colonists to protect and secure their economic exploitation of the country. Thus, the Ghana Army originated from the Gold Coast Regiment of the Royal West African Frontier Force which was formed to consolidate and extend British colonial rule in West Africa (Ibeanu & Momoh, 2008). The Ghana Police Service similarly originated in 1831 (Aning, 2006) and whereas at the time, the objective of the Police in England was to serve the British public, and as such their actions in England were geared to achieve mass legitimacy, in Ghana (then Gold Coast), the police placed little emphasis on serving local communities, and this reflected in a para-military orientation (Tankebe, 2008). Additionally, under colonisation, western models of social control and justice administration were introduced to replace traditional systems of maintaining peace and order embodied in the institution of chieftaincy. Under the Native Authority Ordinance, chiefs were only allowed to administer customary disputes and grievances in accordance with western normative traditions of law (Dzivenu, 2008). The police and court systems were thus for the self-preservation of the colonists, and to persecute natives who were seen as a threat to efforts at maximizing taxation revenues and natural resources extraction (Ibeanu and Momoh, 2008). These institutions and mechanisms were sustained by the political elite of the country after independence to protect their parochial interests and for 'national unity', and little has changed in that approach to security provision in the country (Atuguba, 2007). Ghana has a National Security Council made up of the President, Vice- President, Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Defense, the Interior, and Finance, as well as the service chiefs of the Armed Forces, Police Service, Prisons Service, Customs, Military Intelligence and External Intelligence. Some of the functions include; considering and taking appropriate measures to safeguard the internal and external security of Ghana, and ensuring the collection of information related to the national security of Ghana (Ministry of Justice, 2005). The military is responsible for defense against external aggression, the police for preserving law and order, whilst the intelligence agencies are responsible for dealing with issues critical to state security.

### **The Ghana Police Service**

The Ghana Police Service was estimated at 17,806 officers strong in 2005, serving 20.67 million Ghanaians (Wakulat&Ochill, 2006). This puts the police population ratio at 1:1161; the United Nations approved police population ratio is 1:500 (Atuguba, 2006). The notion that a single sovereign power could govern all social life was enhanced in the last century by the creation of a strong state apparatus and the development of a public police force which has being mostly symbolic, a professional monopoly over the function of crime control. This 'myth of sovereign crime control' (Garland, 1996) however has proved unsustainable and the limitations of the state's ability to govern social life have become more and more apparent. The Ghana Police Service is created by the Constitution (Quantson, 2006) and requires that the "police service shall be equipped and maintained to perform its traditional role of maintaining law and order" (Section, 200(1), Constitution of the Republic of Ghana, 1992). As well as providing a broad framework for the police, the Constitution enshrines the protection and promotion of human rights into Ghana's legal fabric. Article 13(1) enshrines the right to life, liberty and security of the person, while article 15(1) protects the Ghanaian people from torture and cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. Article 14(1) prohibits arbitrary arrest, detention and exile.

### **Legal framework of private security provision in Ghana**

In Ghana, Section 38 of Act 350 (1970) of the Ghana Police Service Act regulates the activities of private security organisations. According to the Act, a private security organisation is any organisation 'which undertakes private investigations as to facts, or which performs services of watching, guarding, patrolling, but does not include the Police Service, Prisons Service or the Armed Forces of Ghana' (Aning, 2006). Two additional legal instruments were passed by the state to streamline the conduct and activities of these organisations. These are Legislative Instruments 1571 of 1992 and 1579 of 1994 (Aning & Lartey, p19). These legal instruments govern the activities of registered, commercial private security organisations, of which according to the Association of Private Security Organisations of Ghana (APSOG), there are over 350, many of which are not licensed to operate. No legal instrument, however, exists in the country for the regulation of other forms of private security provisioning, such as neighborhood watch committees, or the activities of non-governmental organisations that are involved in the security sector. Effective private security should be accountable to and serve the needs of users without having negative consequences on either the users or other members of the community, and neither should it expose providers, especially employees, to unacceptable risks. Thus, its provision would demand that the actors are accountable to the state and citizens, and this can be

achieved through a system of effective state regulatory and oversight mechanism, (Richards & Smith 2007) as well as working in cooperation with the state.

## **RESEARCH APPROACH**

### **Research Design**

According to Kothari (2005), research design is a way to systematically solve the research problem. It comprises the various steps that are adopted in studying the problem. Denzin (2010) indicated that in social research, there are a few research paradigms within which quantitative and qualitative approaches can be best worked. Researchers can use both research paradigms which have emerged from different philosophies to shape their understanding of the study. To meaningfully conclude and answer the formulated research problem and its related sub questions in relation to the objectives of this study, both the qualitative and quantitative strategies (Mixed-methodology) were employed. The qualitative approach was used in describing and presenting the background information on the implication of complementing the activities of the Ghana Police Service with private security actors, while the quantitative approach dealt with providing the needed numerical data to assess the working relationship between private security actors and the Ghana police service, and the perception the public hold about private security actors in the Country. Using a mixed method approach greatly enhanced our understanding of the extent to which complementing the activities of the Police Service in Ghana by private security can enhance the police administration. The mixed design is necessary because of the wide range of data needed to develop effective communication in the effective complementation of both the private and state security actors.

### **Target population**

In relation to the study's research questions and objectives, the target population is the Ghana Police Service and the Private Security Actors in the Tamale Metropolis. Data obtained from the office of the Bureau of National Investigation (BNI) in Tamale showed that there are nine private security actors in the Metropolis. This includes: AFWEST Security; Stones Security; Westec Security; Ederm Security; GForce Security; Interco Security; Domass Security; All City Security; and Bechinsi Task Force.

However, the units of analysis include:

- Management of the Ghana Police Service including the Regional Commander, and the Operational Manager;
- Personnel of the Ghana Police Service;
- Head of the various private security actors;
- Personnel of the various private security actors; and
- The general public.

### **Sample and Sampling techniques**

To effectively sample the target population, the study employed both the simple random and purposive sampling methods. The purposive sampling method was used to sample management of the Police Service and the Private Security Actors involved in the policing of Ghana in the Tamale Metropolis. Purposive sampling was considered appropriate for the sampling of management of the various security actors because it is based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand and gain insights and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned. Gay (1992) argues that the logic and power of purposive sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research. On the other hand, the simple random sampling method was used to sample personnel of the various security actors and the general public. In this method, staff of the Police Service and Private Security Actors, and the general public were chosen randomly and entirely by chance such that each person had the same probability of being part of the sample. It is also important to note that in employing the simple random sampling method in the sampling of the respondents, attempts were made to ensure equal representation across the major demographic variables such as gender, age and rank for the security actors. The sample size of every statistical study to a very large extent has an influence on the level of precision obtain from such studies. Many researchers such as Tannor (2011) have argued that the larger the sample size for a particular study, the more accurate the result obtained. The sample size for the study was determined using the Slovin Formula (Umar, 2000)

$$S_s = \frac{Z^2 (p) (1-p)}{C^2}$$

Where:

Z = confidence level at 95% (standard value of 1.96)

p = estimated units of analysis in the Metropolis (0.75 used for sample size needed)

C = margin of error at 5% (standard value of 0.05)

S<sub>s</sub> = sample size

The determination is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} S_s &= \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.75) (1-0.75)}{(0.05)^2} \\ &= 288 \end{aligned}$$

This sample was distributed across the study's unit of analysis. Table 1 shows the distribution of the sample size and the various sampling techniques for the study's unit of analysis.

#### **Table 1: Distribution of the sample size**

Thus in all, 288 respondents were expected to participate in the study. The simple random sampling was used to select the sample size through proportional allocation. Among the Private security actors, actors who have more personnel had the largest representation of personnel selected randomly. Among the police, the sample size was randomly distributed across gender as well as ranks.

#### ***Sources of data***

The quality of a research may be influenced by the types and sources of evidence used. Various sources and types of evidence abound and could be used for a study as indicated by Yin (2003). This study employed both the primary and secondary data (multiple source of evidence). The primary sources of data were obtained directly from the study's unit of analysis through the use of interviews and structured questionnaires. Secondary data on the other hand was obtained through library research of books, journals, and the internet using search engines like Google and Mozilla.

#### ***Instrument for data collection***

Due to the fact that the study is making use of both the qualitative and quantitative research methods to improve the validity and reliability of the result, different instruments were used for gathering data relevant to answering the research questions. Although a number of instruments for data collection could have been used, a structured questionnaire was deemed most appropriate for the collection of quantitative data for the study. Questionnaires are easy to administer, friendly to complete and fast to score and therefore take relatively very little time of researchers and respondents (Tannor, 2011). Additionally, questionnaires are valuable methods of collecting a wide range of information from a large number of individuals or respondents. Management of the Tamale Police administration and the private security actors participated in the interview through the use of an interview schedule. The interview sought to ask questions in relation to the study's topic. The interviews were tape-recorded with the permission of all the respondents and support with notes taken by the researcher. Each interview averagely lasted between 10-15 minutes. This eliminated the boredom often associated with long interviews.

#### ***Instrument structure to meet research objectives***

Two different questionnaires were designed. This include questionnaire for the general public and the other for the personnel of the Ghana Police Service and the Private Security Actors. The first part of each questionnaire relates to the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents including age, gender, educational background, number of years of working with the security service (Security officials only). The other sections of each questionnaire were designed and structured in relation to each of the study's objective. The second part of



the questionnaire for personnel of the Ghana Police Service and the Private Actors elicits views on the implications of Private Security Actors for the Police Administration while the third part focused on the working relationship between Private Security Actors and the Ghana Police Service. The questionnaire ended with the challenges Private Security Actors and the Ghana Police service encounter in complementing their activities. On the other hand, the second part of the questionnaire for the public investigated the patronage of security service among the public whereas the third part assessed the perception the public hold about private security actors. In doing this, the respondents were given five variables on a four point Likert scale to indicate their perception regarding private security actors. A four-point scale is used for the study as against the traditional five-point scale due to the tendency for individuals to select responses in the centre of the scale if an odd number response scale was. The responses for the four-point scale are, *strongly agree* (4), *agree* (3), *disagree* (2), and *strongly disagree* (1). The questionnaire for this study contained open and closed -ended items with the majority of the items being closed-ended to make data analysis easy. Regarding the close ended items, respondents were provided with a set of options (multiple choices) to a question and were to choose among them, while with the open-ended; respondents provided answers in their own words through writing. The open ended questions allowed the respondents to express an opinion without being influenced by the researcher (Foddy, 1993). Thus the opened ended questions allowed respondents to include more information, including feelings, attitudes and understanding of the subject.

### **Procedure for data collection**

The questionnaire for police personnel was self-completed. In other words, this group of respondents completed the questionnaire on their own. This was considered appropriate as respondents are literate and could read and write to adequately respond to the items on the questionnaire. With regards to the administration of the questionnaire for the general public, the face to face form of administering questionnaire was employed. This was as a result of the literate level of this group. This method allowed for further probing and clarification of items. Ethical matters or considerations are very important for every research adventure or study (McNamara, 1994). This is most important for studies that involve the use of human subjects. Participants have a right to know what the research is about, how it will affect them, the risks and benefits of participation and the fact that they have the right to decline to participate if they choose to do so. Therefore, the policy of voluntary participation was strictly adhered to during the data collection phase for the purpose of ensuring the privacy as well as the safety of the participants. For the researcher to obtain access to the participating security companies, an introductory letter was obtained from the University of Development Studies (UDS) to the management of the Ghana Police Office in Tamale and the other security actors in the Metropolis. This letter introduced the researcher as a student of the University who is on academic research assignment and should be accorded the needed assistance.

### **Pre-testing of survey instrument**

Ultimately, designing the perfect survey questionnaire, interview guides and protocols is impossible (Tannor, 2011). However, effective surveys can still be created. To determine the effectiveness of a survey instrument, it is necessary for it to be pre-tested before actually using it. The questionnaire and interview guides for the study were pre-tested. This was done by asking 15 security officials and personnel both from the private and the police administration in Navrongo through a discussion on the items. Navrongo was chosen for the pre-test because it has similar characteristics with Tamale in terms of policing. The pre-testing was done to help determine the strength and weaknesses of the survey instruments regarding reliability and validity before proceeding to the actual field work. Also is to reveal any unanticipated problems with question wording, format, instructions to skip questions, and to make sure that respondents understand the questions and provide useful answers to develop and so refine the questions. A few revisions were made to the instruments before finally using them for the main survey.

### **Fieldwork and challenges**

Data collection for the study took a month (pls specify the period). Of the 100 questionnaires administered to the private actors, 85 were returned constituting 85 percent response rate. On the other hand, of the 50 questionnaires distributed to the police personnel, 47 were returned, giving a response rate of 94 percent. A number of challenges were encountered which made the field work quite challenging. These include:

- i. The unwillingness of the respondents to participate in the study;
  - ii. The low literacy level of the public made the completing of the questionnaire very difficult;
- and

- iii. The partial literacy level of some of the private actors made the editing of the completed questionnaires quite difficult since it was difficult to read what some of them wrote

### **Method of data analysis**

Before analysing the data from the field, all completed questionnaires and interview guides were adequately checked for completeness. Thus data cleaning and processing was done to identify errors in data recording prior to the data analysis. The quantitative data gathered was coded and entered using the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS), version 18. Quantitative analysis involved the generation of descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages in the form of tables and figures were used to present the results. Qualitative analysis also involved the categorisation of data from interviews and field notes into common themes.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

### **Demographic Background of Respondents**

The demographic background of respondents is assessed and discussed in this section. In all, 270 respondents participated in the study. This was made up of 85 private security personnel, 47 police personnel, two management of the police service, six management of the private security actors and 130 members of the general public. In examining the background characteristics of the respondents, the following demographic variables were analysed: gender; age and educational background. The gender analysis of both police and private security personnel indicated that majority (84.1%) of the respondents were males. For the private security respondents, 90.6% were males while for the police, 72.3 % were also males. Thus the proportion of females who responded to the study from the police service (27.7%) was 18 % more than that from the private actors (9.4%). On the other hand, 60.5% of the public who also responded to the study were males while the other 35.5% were females. Thus more males from the public responded to the study than females. Figure 1 shows the graphical view of the gender distribution of the respondents.

It is noted in Figure 1 that more than half of each of the actors had the majority of its personnel been males while the police service had more females in its workforce as compared to the private security actors. The observation from the gender analysis shows that generally, not many females have been attracted to the security services most especially the private security services. This disparity in gender across both the private and public security actors could be explained by the fact that the nature of the job requires more strength and have also not be made female friendly.

In exploring the educational background of the respondents, the following educational qualification variables were used; basic, secondary, diploma/HND, university degree, and no formal education. Depicted in Table 2 is the educational background of the respondents across private and police personnel.

Table 2 shows that the most reported educational background (49.4%) among the private security actors is secondary education. A similar trend in educational background is noted for the police officers were more than half (57.4%) also possessed secondary education. In relation to those without formal education, there was no police respondent. However, about 20 % of the private security personnel had no formal education. Also, while 12.8 % of the police personnel had a university degree, none of the private security personnel had a university degree. However, for the general public, the most (47.7%) educational background was Diploma/HND followed by secondary education (31.8%).

The educational background of the respondents shows generally that, both police and private security respondents had low educational backgrounds and that the police service have more personnel with higher educational backgrounds than the private, although the general educational backgrounds for the two groups is low. The educational background of the public was also found not to be that high. The age distribution of respondents was also analysed. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics on the age of the respondents across the private and public security actors.

The descriptive statistics obtained showed that averagely, the security personnel aged 35 years with the minimum and maximum ages being 20 years and 56 years respectively. A standard deviation of 9.45 was also obtained. Further disaggregation of the age data shows that, averagely, respondents from the private security aged 38 years while those from the police aged 31.92 years. The mean age noted for the general public was also 38 years. An assessment of the results in Table 3 shows that although not much variation existed between the ages of the respondents, private security actors seemed to be quite older than that of the police. Additionally, a standard deviation of 7.63 for the ages of the police personnel implies that the general ages of the police are much dispersed than that of the private actors. To further explore age, the study recorded age into four consistent

age groups with an interval of 10 based on the minimum and maximum ages obtained for the private, police personnel and the general public. The most reported (44.7%) age group among the police personnel was 30-39 years followed by 20-29 years (42.6%). On the other hand, the most reported age group for the private security actors was 40-49 years (30.6%). Further analysis showed that majority (74.1%) of the private security personnel were age between 30-50 and above years, while the majority of the police personnel were aged 20 -39 years. More than half (57.8%) of the general public were aged 20-39 years. Figure 2 shows the age distribution of the respondents.

Table 4 shows that more than half (54.5%) of the respondents were of the view that it is very important for the police to complement their activities with the private security actors. It is also vital to note that none of the respondents indicated that it is irrelevant for the police to complement its activities with the private security actors. This meant that whereas formerly the state was the focal point for the provision of public policing as indicated by Black (1979), there is the need to explicitly employ a range of private security actors in supplying security services. Thus there is the rationale to utilise private security actors as derived from the New York State Private Security Guard training curriculum (New York State Division of Criminal Justice Services, 1995) to secure generally the comfort, safety, morals, health, and prosperity of the citizens of Ghana by preserving public order. Further analysis shows that there was no difference in the views of the respondents in relation to the importance of the police service complementing its activities with the private actors. These findings indicate that both public actors and police personnel see the importance in collaboration and complementing their activities. Also, is the explicit need for a range of security actors to supply security services to complement the work of the police service as indicated by Claassen (2011). In other words, the need for the collaboration of the two actors could be explained by Claassen (2011) that whereas formerly the state was the focal point for the attribution of responsibility, a range of actors is now explicitly looked upon to supply and complement the security services of state actors. The study also examined the frequency at which the private security complement their patrol arrangement with the police as well as the frequency at which the police complement their patrol with the private security actors. Of the 47 police service personnel who responded to the study, half (50%) indicated that the police service sometimes complements their activities with the private actors while the other half (50%) indicated that the police service has never complemented its activities with the private security actors. None of the police personnel was of the view that the police service has always complemented its patrol arrangements with the private security personnel. Further analysis shows that the views of the respondents (police personnel) did not vary across the number of years for which they have worked with the service. On the other hand, of the 85 private security personnel who responded to the study, half (50%) indicated that they sometimes complement their patrol arrangement with the police service, while 30% were of the view that the private security has never complemented its activities with the police. About 20 % also mentioned that they have always complemented their activities with the police

It is deduced from the findings that generally, both the police and the private security have not complemented their patrol activities frequently and that the private security personnel are more likely to complement their patrol arrangements with the police than that of the police. One of the management of the private actors indicated: *It is always a privilege for us to complement our activities with the police. But how do we complement the activities when we have not been invited by the police for any collaboration?* This implies that non-state security actors have not received greater attention from the police administration in recent years as their prominence and persistence in the country's security provision is yet to be acknowledged. The lack of coordination between the police and the private security actors could further be attributed to the silent nature of the legal framework on the activities of other non-state or private entities in the security arena as noted by Badong (2009). Since in many developing countries, state security provision has largely been inadequate as observed by Olonisakin, Ikpe and Badong (2009), it is very critical that the police extensively complement its activities with private security actors to ensuring that there are police and intelligence services for state preservation against external aggression and internal disorder. The views of management on the implications of the police complementing their activities with the private actors were also explored from the interview data obtained. All the management from both the private and public actors indicated that the provision of security by their outfit has enhanced the policing system in the metropolis. The following were noted as the prospects associated with the police complementing their activities with the private security actors as noted from the interviews:

- Complementing the work of the police with the private actors allows the police to reach more places since they are not many;
- Complementing the police with the private security will minimize the over scheduled role expected from the police service with its low staff strength; and
- Complementing the police helps in giving out information to the police

These results give the indication that the state alone is not, and cannot be responsible for preventing and controlling crime in addition to their human rights responsibilities and that the need for private security collaboration is very vital in the policing of the country as mentioned by Bayley and Shearing (1996). The Police Commander stated: *Since the police to citizen ratio is very small, there is the need for private security actors to complement the role of the police to enhance effective policing.* These reasons are similar to Olonisakin, Ikpe and Badong (2009) that in many developing countries, state security provision has largely been inadequate and that there is the need for state security actors to complement their activities with private actors. Also, the results could be linked to Atuguba (2009) that the state alone is not, and cannot be responsible for preventing and controlling crime in addition to their human rights hence the importance of both private and public security actors complementing their activities. The following reasons were also gathered from the management of the police in relation to why the police do not complement its work frequency with the private security actors:

- Private security actors are not well trained and resourced and as such, do not work effectively; and
- Ignorance of the private actors in dealing with cases that needs to be referred to the police for further actions

One of the management of the police service stated: *The private security actors do not have the technical know-how to deal with criminal cases hence enhancing effective collaboration is often a challenge.*

It is noted in Table 5 that, majority (53%) of the respondents described the working relationship between the police and the private security actors as partially effective while about 8.2 % described the relationship as ineffective. It is not surprising that majority of the respondents have described the working relationship as partially effective since both actors do not always complement their patrol activities and do not frequently complement their operational activities together.

The weak working relationship between the police and private actors could be linked to Stenning (2000) assertion that the relationship between public and private police is more often complementary than adversarial and that it is increasingly difficult to identify policing tasks and responsibilities which are the exclusive preserve of public rather than private police. Also, the weak working relationship between the two parties could be attributed to the geographical domains in which they worked. According to Burren (2009), the respective roles of public and private police were determined by their geographical domain where the policing of public places was the responsibility of public police and the role of private police is confined to the protection of private property in the interests of its owners. The study also examined if the views of respondents on the effectiveness of the working relationship between the police and the private security actors was dependent on the kind of actor (private or public). The results are shown in Table 6

According to the results in Table 6, majority of the respondents both in the police and private security described the relationship as “partially effective” (47.1 % for private actors and 61.7% for police personnel). Also, 43.5 % in the private security unit and 31.9 percent in the police described the relationship as “very effective” respectively. As part of exploring the working relationship between the police and the private security actors, the study found out whether there have been enough platforms for the police and the private security actors to complement their activities together. Of the 132 security personnel that responded to the study, about 73.9% indicated that there are no enough platforms for both the security and the private security actors to complement their activities together. This could be linked to Lilly and Von-Tangen (2002) that while various attempts have been made in some developing countries to improve upon security provision, which have largely been focused on donor-led and driven security sector reforms targeted mainly at state security actors, namely the police and law enforcement agencies, armed forces and in some cases the judiciary, but largely neglecting the private security sector. Further analysis was done to determine if the views of the respondents differ across personnel. Generally, the personnel held the same view. Of the 47 police personnel who responded to the study, 85.1 % indicated that there are no enough platforms for the two parties to complete their activities. Also, of the 85 private security actors, 67.1% indicated the same. In other words, more than half of each actor was of the view that there are inadequate platforms for both parties to complement their activities.

The following platforms were however noted as areas that create the opportunity for both parties to work together:

- Independence data celebration;
- Durbar grounds; and
- National holiday activities.

The above platforms give the indication that there have not been formalized and systematic platforms for the two parties to complete their activities together. This could further explain the reason majority of the respondents



described the relationship between the private actors and Ghana Police as partially effective. In furtherance of determining the working relationship between the police and the private security actors, the study also examined how the working relationship has affected the performance of both parties. However one of the police officials was of the view that, the weak working relationship between the two parties will not affect the police because of the high level of training for police personnel

One of the management of the private actors stated: *Because of the partially effective working relationship between we the private actors and the police, sometimes information that we report to the police are not even taken seriously. This I think does not affect the policing of the metropolis and the nation at large positively.*

The views of the general public on the working relationship between the police and private security actors were explored. Majority (89%) of the public who responded to the study described the working relationship between the two actors as not encouraging in enhancing public policing. One of the respondents (citizen) stated: *I am not sure I have ever seen the police and the private security actors going for patrol together in this metropolis. Maybe, the police do not regard the private security actors as major partners in the fighting of crime since most of these private actors do not have the professional training in public policing.*

It can further be deduced from the findings that although the security landscape in Ghana is diverse and not homogenous, with various actors operating outside the state mechanism to provide security to various segments of the population, these actors have not actively coordinated their activities in enhancing policing.

Majority (53.0 %) of the respondents responded affirmatively. Further disaggregation of the data set shows that over 50 percent of the respondents (56.5%) in the private security indicated that they do not experience significant challenges in complementing their activities with the Ghana Police. The case was the opposite for respondents in the Ghana police as majority of the respondents (70.2%) indicated that they encounter significant challenges in complementing their activities with the private actors. The results depict that the police encounter significant challenges in complementing their activities with the private actors than the challenges the private actors encounter in complementing their activities with the police.

The following reasons were gathered from the private actors who responded to the study as to why they encounter significant challenges in complementing their activities with the private actors:

- Lack of tools or equipment (guns, safety boots) that will help to apply force at certain times ;
- Limited powers delegated to private actors ; and
- Less technical know-how making the issue of collaboration sometimes challenging.

There is therefore the need for the entry of trained intelligence professionals into private sector intelligence activities, by the government through the donation of some capabilities and knowledge the private firms might otherwise find hard to obtain as noted by Arthur (1996).

The study also explored the extent to which the attitude of the general public affect the private and the police in complementing their activities together. Majority (60%) of the respondents in the private actors were of the view that the attitude of the public has affected their collaboration with the police to a large extent. On the other hand, similar responses were noted from the police where about 69.8 % indicated that the public affect their collaboration with the police to a large extent. Data obtained from the management during the interviews showed that one of the major challenges the police encounter in its quest to complement its activities with the private security actors is the lack of technical expertise by the private security actors in the combating of crime. Additionally, it was noted that the private security actors are not well resourced in terms of equipment to face certain challenges. From the management perspective, another major challenge affecting the activities of private security actors is the legal framework (Section 38 of Act 350, 1970) of the Ghana Police Service Act.

One of the management of the police service stated: *The Act has controlled the activities of private security. For example, based on the Act, they are not supposed to carry weapons, so this sometimes hampers their operations.*

This result implies that there is the need for trained intelligence professionals entering into private sector intelligence activities through the government donating some capabilities and knowledge the private firms might otherwise find hard to obtain as supported by Arthur (1996).

### **Perception of the General Public in Relation to the Provision of Security by the Private Security Actors**

According to Bayley and Shearing (1996), through World War II, private security was looked on as a somewhat unsavoury occupation. It had the image of ill-trained bands of thugs hired by private businesses to break strikes, suppress labour, and spy on one another. In this section, the perception of the general public in relation to the provision of security by the private security actors is explored. As such, the patronage of security services by the general public was examined. In this, the study examined which of the security services have the public ever



patronized. Table 7 shows the results. In Table 7, it is noted that the total number of responses is more than the 130 public respondents who responded to the study. This is because, the variable 'security service ever patronised' was treated as a multiple response since a respondents could patronize both services. Table 8 shows that a majority (70.6%) of the respondents have ever patronized the services of the police while only 29.4 % has patronized the services of the private security actors. This result could be explained by Burren (2009) that policing of public places was the responsibility of public police and is to be undertaken in the 'public interest', while the role of private police is confined to the protection of private property in the interests of its owners. Also, the findings could be explained by Black (1979) that policing is an authority conferred by the country's constitutional system to secure generally the comfort, safety, morals, health, and prosperity of its citizens by preserving public order. Further analysis was done to find out from the general public whether given the opportunity, they would patronized the services of private security actors. About 60 % of the respondents were unwilling to patronise the private actors while 15.4 percent of respondents were not sure. On the other hand, less than 30 % (24.6%) of the public were willing to patronize the services of private security actors. The reasons for which the respondents were unwilling to patronize the services of the private security actors when gathered as follow:

- They are not competent because they are not well trained as the police;
- Most of them involved in corrupt practices because of their bad conditions of service; and
- They are not fully armed so they cannot be trusted as far as the provision of security services is concerned.

The low standards of professionalism in the private security industry could be explained by the minimal recruitment requirements and the lack of proper training standards. One of the respondents (public) indicated: *In future, if the issue is not that serious, I may consider using the services of the private security actors, but if it is, then I will never patronize their service.*

Another respondent indicated: *The private actors are not professionals; therefore trusting them will jeopardize the lives of the people;*

This finding is similar to Schneider (2006) that a ubiquitous critique leveled at private security is that they are untrained, unprofessional, unregulated and unaccountable police wannabes that simply get in the way of "real police work". Also, the public negative image about the private actors meant that there is the need to replace the negative images as well as bad practices exhibited by some private security actors as indicated by Livingstone and Hart (2003).

Among those who indicated that they will patronize the services of private security actors, one thing that was common was the cheap nature of their services as compared to the police. One of the respondents indicated: *The only thing that will attract me to use the services of the private security actors would be the fact that their services are not that expensive as compared to the police service. At least, they can deal with minor security issues like guarding of my house*

This implies that people are most likely to patronize the services of private security actors because of the cheap nature of their service. This result could further be explained by Atuguba (2009) that whilst the wealthy are able to afford the services of the state owned security services, a majority of the population is unable to afford them. Even though the majority of the respondents have showed that they will not patronize the services of private security actors, more than half (55.5%), disagreed that private security actors use unethical and illegal tactics. This refutes Schneider (2006) assertion that the private security use unethical and illegal tactics. Also, about 70.8 % agreed that private security actors maintain order in private space where a large amount of public life takes place. The study also examined from the public whether private security actors should be allowed to handle weapons. About 72.2% said no. Further analysis performed shows that there was no difference in the views of the respondents in relation to allowing the private security actors to handle weapons across their educational backgrounds. This meant that the views of the respondents (public) were independent on their educational backgrounds and that both the highly educated and the less educated held the same views of not allowing the private security actors to handle weapons. The major reason attributed to this was that private actors are not properly trained in weapon handling. As part of exploring the confidence of the general public in the private actors, respondents were asked the extent to which the public would be adequately protected by private security actors without the service of the police. Table 8 shows the responses.

About 47.9 % of the respondents indicated that the public would be protected to a low extent by private security actors without the service of the police while 37.7 % indicate to a large extent. About 15.4 % were of the view that the public would not be adequately protected at all by the private security actors without the service of the police. The perception of the police about the private security actors was also explored. About 67.4 % of the police believed that the private security actors use unethical and illegal tactics while 77.8% indicated that private

security actors are unprofessional. The findings gathered suggested that the perception of the police on private security actors is similar to that of the public which supports Bayley and Shearing (1996) assertion that the police, as well as the public, viewed private security companies as unprofessional and ill-trained forces.

## CONCLUSIONS

### Summary of Findings

The study assessed the implication of complementing private security actors in the policing of Ghana for the police administration with specific focus on the working relationship between private security actors and the Ghana Police Service, the perception of the public about the role Private Security Actors play in the policing of Ghana and the challenges private security actors and the Ghana police service encounter in complementing their activities.

In all, 85 private security personnel, 47 police personnel, two management of the police service, six management of the private security actors and 130 members of the general public participated in the study. Sampling of the respondents was done through purposive sampling and simple random sampling. Data collection was through interviews and questionnaires while data analysis was done using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) now called Statistical Product and Service Solutions, version 18.

The first objective investigated the implications of complementing the police service with the private security actors for the policing of Ghana. The following major findings emerged:

- i. Both the police and the private security have not complemented their patrol activities frequently;
- ii. Both public actors and police personnel see the importance in collaboration and complementing their activities together;

The working relationship between private security actors and the police was explored in the second objective with the following key finding:

- i. The working relationship between the police and the private security actors was found to be partially effective;
- ii. There are inadequate platforms for both the police and the private security actors to complement their activities together to enhance their working relationship.

In relation to the challenges private security actors and the police service encounter in complementing their activities, the following are the key findings:

- i. The attitude of the general public largely affects the collaboration of the private and the public actors ;
- ii. The lack of technical expertise by the private security actors in the combating of crime is a major challenge for the police in complementing its activities with the private actors.

Perception of the general public in relation to the provision of security by the private security actors was examined in objective four. The following are the major findings:

- i. Majority of the public were unwilling to patronise the services of private actors because they are not well trained as the police and that most of them involved in corrupt practices because of their bad conditions of service.
- ii. Majority of the respondent were not in favour of the private actors handling weapons because they are unprofessional

### Recommendations

The following recommendations are made for policy making based on the major findings and conclusions arising from the study:

- **Establishment of coordination mechanisms for an effective collaboration**

To enhance effective coordination between private and public security actors, the study recommended that:

- i. Security officers should be appointed as members of the police reserve force, but their powers and duties should be limited to matters concerning their employers;
- ii. Transporting to and guarding of prisoners in court can be delegated to security companies;
- iii. Patrolling of neighborhoods can be undertaken in conjunction with the Police; and
- iv. Security companies should be allowed to transport suspects arrested by their personnel to the nearest police station. This would mean that the police do not personally need to attend to the scene of the crime or arrest.

- **Better training for the private actors**

A number of illegal training centres exist in the country that offer crash courses in security training. There is also no minimum educational standard for entry into the private security industry or to become a registered security officer. This study recommended that there should be an effective monitoring of the operations of private security actors by the Association of Private Security actors to ensure that the kind of personnel they produce are of some level of professionalism.

- **Provision of adequate platform for collaboration**

It is recommended that enough platforms should be created by both the police administration and the private actors to enhance the collaboration of the two parties. Some of the platforms that can bring together these two security services include indulging in patrols together, maintaining orderliness in political rallies, attending to emergencies together, having general meetings together and other platforms.

- **Amendment of the legal framework**

Currently, security personnel have limited powers in terms of the arrest of suspects, and the search and seizure of property. This will have to be amended legally if their activities are extended. The execution of these powers will also have to be carefully controlled, as they may become fertile ground for fraudulent or unauthorised activities.

- **Education of the public on the role of private security actors in policing**

The police administration through the Public Relations Department should organize training programmes through brochures, seminars and TV adverts about the role of private security actors in enhancing the policing of the country. This is expected to help develop some positive image among the public and also enhance the confidence of the public in the private security actors.

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**Table 1: Distribution of the sample size**

Unit of analysis	Sampling technique	Sample Size
Management of the Police Service	Purposive sampling	2
Management of Private Security Actors	Purposive sampling	6
Personnel of Police Service	Random sampling	50
Personnel of the Private Security Actors	Random sampling	100
General Public	Random sampling	130

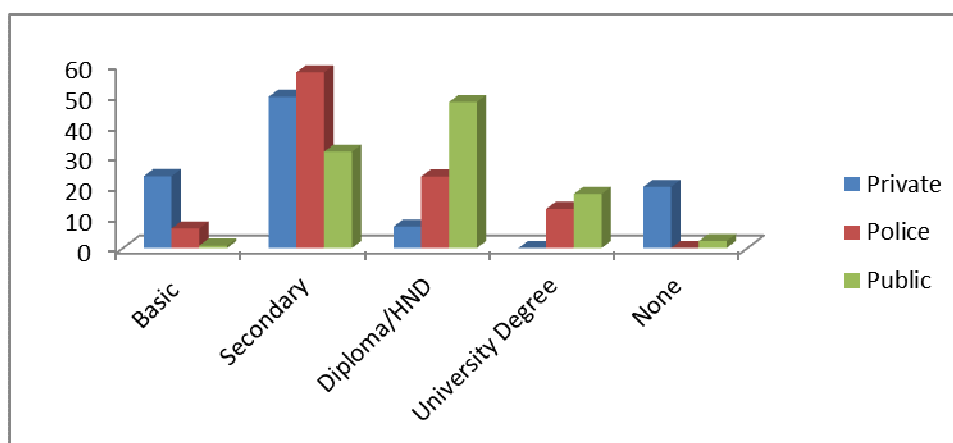
Source: Researcher's construct 2012

**Table 2: Educational background of respondents**

Private Actors	Police Personnel		General Public			
	f	% f	f	%f		
Educational background					f	%
Basic	20	23.5	3	6.4	1	0.8
Secondary	42	49.4	27	57.4	41	31.5
Diploma/HND	6	7.1	11	23.4	62	47.7
University degree	0	0.0	6	12.8	23	17.7
None	17	20.0	0	0.0	3	2.3
Total	85	100.0	47	100.0	130	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2012

**Figure 1: Percentage distribution of the educational background of respondents**



Source: Field Survey, 2012

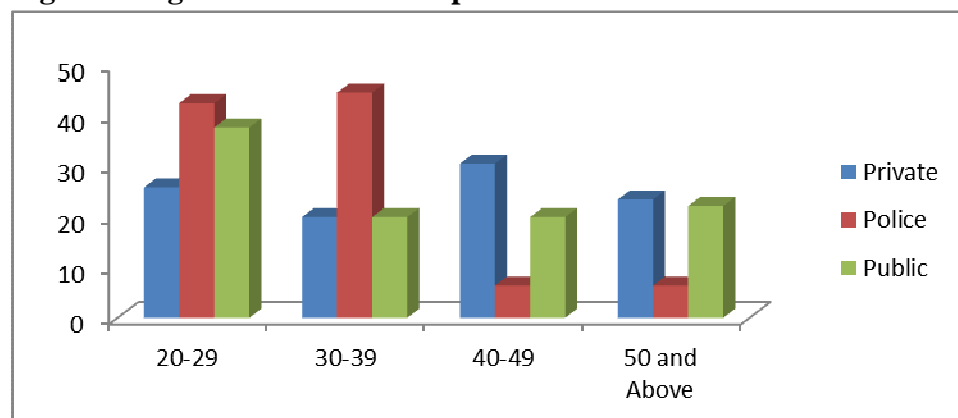


**Table 3: Descriptive statistics on the ages of the respondents**

Descriptive statistics (Years)				
Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Standard deviation	
Private actors	38.0	20	56	11.02
Police	31.92	20	52	7.63
Public	37.53	23	64	11.55

Source: Field Survey, 2012

**Figure 2: Age distribution of respondents**



Source: Field Survey, 2012

**Table 4: Importance of the police complementing their activities with the private security actors**

Importance	Frequency	Percent
Very important	72	54.5
Important	60	45.5
Total	132	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2012

**Table 5: Working relationship between the police and the private security actors**

Relationship	Frequency	Percent
Very effective	50	37.8
Partially effective	71	53.0
Ineffective	11	8.2
Total	132	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2012

**Table 6: Description of relationship between private security actors and the police**

Response	Private Actors		Police Personnel	
	f	%	f	%
Very effective	37	43.5	15	31.9
Partially effective	40	47.1	29	61.7
Ineffective	8	9.1	3	6.4
Total	85	100.0	47	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2012

**Table 7: Security service ever patronized**

Service	Frequency	Percent
Police	120	70.6
Private	50	29.4
Total	170	100.0

Field Survey, 2012

**Table 8: Protection of the public by private actors**

Response	Frequency	Percent
Very Large extent	3	2.3
Large Extent	46	35.4
Very Low Extent	46	35.4
Low Extent	15	11.5
Not at all	20	15.4
Total	130	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2012

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