POLICE PROFESSIONALISM: TO WHAT EXTENT CAN RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING PRACTICES IMPACT ON POLICE PROFESSIONALISM IN GHANA?

Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the degree of Doctor of Social Science in Human Resource Development at the University of Leicester

By

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THESIS – ABSTRACT

POLICE PROFESSIONALISM: TO WHAT EXTENT CAN RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING PRACTICES IMPACT ON POLICE PROFESSIONALISM IN GHANA?

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SAYIBU PABI GARIBA (MSc Leicester)

This study examines police professionalism in Ghana by focusing on how the enforcement of stringent recruitment and training standards as well as compliance with policy and procedures could enhance the effectiveness of police officers. To achieve the research objectives, a total of sixty-five (65) serving officers were randomly selected from five different units of the Ghana Police Service (GPS) and interviewed for the study. A number of published studies reviewed indicate that professionalism could be better achieved through the institution and use of processes, procedures and rigid standards. However, the present study finds that the extent to which the GPS abides by established tenets of police professionalism remains to be seen. It also emerged that the existence and use of police recruitment policy and training standards is unclear within the GPS. Similarly, the existence of continuous capacity building programmes for officers seems equally challenging. Although the GPS includes a formidable Human Resource Development (HRD) component in its organisational structure, that department lacks the capacity to develop and implement appropriate training standards. This has resulted in weak implementation of capacity building initiatives and a general inability on the part of the GPS to create solid career development paths for police officers in Ghana. However, it is obvious that a better-trained police force will be more effective and responsive to the people in a democracy. Transforming police culture in Ghana requires the introduction of a new recruitment and training regime, coupled with a reformation of the entire organisation. The findings of this study strongly demonstrate the need for a complete overhaul of police culture, leadership and capacities in order to achieve police professionalism in Ghana. Consequently, the commitment of the GPS to implement existing standing orders; to administer stricter criteria for recruitment and training; and, to pursue continuous capacity building initiatives for serving officers is paramount in attaining police professionalism in Ghana.
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DEDICATION

Dedicated to the memory of my mother Madam Abena Yakah and my father, Abukari Gariba Pabi (both of blessed memory) of Chinderi, Krachi – Nchumuru District in the Volta Region of Ghana, who contributed immensely to my childhood education but did not live long enough to see what the Lord has done for their Children. May their souls rest in everlasting and perfect peace in the bosom of the almighty God!
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<td>ADC</td>
<td>Aide Camp</td>
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<tr>
<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
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<td>AIDS</td>
<td>Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome</td>
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<td>AMISOM</td>
<td>African Union Mission for Somalia</td>
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<td>APAB</td>
<td>Appointment, Promotion and Advisory Board</td>
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<td>APP</td>
<td>Authorised Professional Practice</td>
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<td>APSA</td>
<td>African Peace and Security Architecture</td>
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<td>ASF</td>
<td>African Standby Force</td>
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<tr>
<td>ASP</td>
<td>Assistant Superintendent of Police</td>
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<td>C3IS</td>
<td>Command Control Communication Information Systems</td>
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<td>CALEA</td>
<td>Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement</td>
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<td>CHRAJ</td>
<td>Commission of Human Rights and Administrative Justice</td>
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<td>CHRI</td>
<td>Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative</td>
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<tr>
<td>CID</td>
<td>Criminal Investigations Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIS</td>
<td>Communication Information Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIT</td>
<td>Communication and Information Technology</td>
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<td>CLMS</td>
<td>Centre for Labour Market Studies</td>
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<td>CLT</td>
<td>Cluster Sampling Technique</td>
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<td>CMD</td>
<td>Conflict Management Division</td>
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<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>Cadet Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COESPU</td>
<td>Centre of Excellence for Stability Police Units</td>
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<tr>
<td>CPX</td>
<td>Command Post Exercise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>C/SUPT</td>
<td>Chief Superintendent of Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr.</td>
<td>Doctor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSocSci</td>
<td>Doctor of Social Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSP</td>
<td>Deputy Superintendent of Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DTS</td>
<td>Detective Training School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAFSC</td>
<td>Ghana Armed Forces Command and Staff College</td>
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<tr>
<td>GCE</td>
<td>General Certificate of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>GoG</td>
<td>Government of Ghana</td>
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<td>GPS</td>
<td>Ghana Police Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>HIV</td>
<td>Human Immune Virus</td>
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<tr>
<td>HL</td>
<td>Human Rights Law</td>
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<tr>
<td>HLZ</td>
<td>Helicopter Landing Zone</td>
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<tr>
<td>HQ</td>
<td>Headquarters</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRD</td>
<td>Human Resource Development</td>
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<td>ICC</td>
<td>Intermediate Command Course</td>
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<tr>
<td>IGP</td>
<td>Inspector General of Police</td>
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<td>INTERPOL</td>
<td>International Police Association</td>
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<td>JCC</td>
<td>Junior Command Course</td>
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<tr>
<td>LEA</td>
<td>Law Enforcement Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSc</td>
<td>Master of Science</td>
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<tr>
<td>MTTU</td>
<td>Motor Traffic and Transport Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCO</td>
<td>Non Commissioned Officers</td>
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<td>NPTS</td>
<td>National Police Training School</td>
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<td>NRCD</td>
<td>National Redemption Council Decree</td>
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<td>PIPS</td>
<td>Police Intelligence and Professional Standards Bureau</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>PLANELM</td>
<td>Planning Element</td>
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<td>POLCOL</td>
<td>Ghana Police College</td>
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<tr>
<td>PPR</td>
<td>Police Population Ratio</td>
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<td>PSD</td>
<td>Peace and Security Department</td>
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<td>PSOD</td>
<td>Peace Support Operations Division</td>
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<td>PTS</td>
<td>Police Training School</td>
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<tr>
<td>QIS</td>
<td>Questionnaire and Interview Schedule</td>
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<td>RP &amp; IT</td>
<td>Research, Planning and Information Technology</td>
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<td>SB</td>
<td>Special Branch</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCC</td>
<td>Senior Command Course</td>
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<tr>
<td>SLT</td>
<td>Structure Laying Technique</td>
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<td>SLEA</td>
<td>Security and Law Enforcement Agencies</td>
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<td>SO</td>
<td>Standing Orders</td>
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<td>SOP</td>
<td>Standard Operating Procedures</td>
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<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
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<td>SSCE</td>
<td>Senior High School Certificate Examination</td>
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<tr>
<td>STD</td>
<td>Sexually Transmitted Disease</td>
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<tr>
<td>SUPT</td>
<td>Superintendent of Police</td>
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<tr>
<td>TOT</td>
<td>Trainer of Trainers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ULSM</td>
<td>University of Leicester School of Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIPP</td>
<td>Very Important Personnel Protection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VTC</td>
<td>Video Telephone Conference</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH

Reiner (2000:89) argues that policing is concerned with the preservation of a valued way of life and the protection of the weak against the predatory. The study is based on police professionalism in Ghana and the extent to which recruitment and training practices influence police efficiency and effectiveness. The central research question the thesis seeks to answer is: To what extent do recruitment and training practices impact on Police Professionalism in Ghana? The research is premised on the principle of professionalism in organizations and its role in the quest for excellence in the provision the requisite services to the general public or the clientele. The research is also informed by the philosophy that professionalism is primarily premised on the provision of acceptable services to society. This is because policing is all about the provision of services to humanity at large. Democratic polity enjoins modern police forces to critically reflect on the importance of police effectiveness, accountability and transparency while providing services to the people. Furthermore, the need to focus on the detection of crime and the protection and maintenance of order in society so as to provide an environment conducive for the general public to live in safety and security is fundamental in democratic systems (Reiner, 2010). Therefore, the need for an effective, accountable and transparent police service is central to the Republic of Ghana within the framework of the 1992 Constitution and tenets of democratic polity. Unfortunately, however, the Ghana Police Service (GPS) is perceived as an ineffective organisation characterised by low morale and lacking the required capacities of a modern police
organization (Archer Report, 1997). Among other things, the police in Ghana has been criticised for lack of capacity and required skills, corruption, rampant abuse of human rights, and political interference in its administration (CHRI, 2007). The resultant effect is the inability of the GPS to provide effective, accountable and transparent policing services to the people, which in turn led to questions being raised about the legitimacy and professionalism of the GPS.

Therefore, the quest for police professionalism in Ghana has become a fundamental social, political and economic problem in the country. Hence, the need for this research, which examines police professionalism in Ghana and the extent to which recruitment and training practices can impact on police professionalism.

**BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

Democracy is premised on the principle that organizations forming part of the machinery of government will work in line with the rule of law thereby guaranteeing the fundamental human rights of the people (Maravall and Przeworski, 2003; Terrill, 1997). Hence, the police organization must work within the parameters of democratic principles including the rule of law and respect of human rights, leading to police effectiveness, accountability and transparency (Bayley, 1999). Kratcoski (2000) has argued that police forces cannot achieve democracy on their own, but if they act according to democratic norms, the possibility that democracy will be embedded is great. Notwithstanding the foregoing, the concepts of policing and democratic policing are two different notions. Police organisations are usually not structured democratically even though they are charged with enforcing the laws of democratic societies. The major distinction is that in a democracy, the police force is ultimately accountable to the
people, while within the police organisation itself, the organisational structure tends to be authoritarian (Kratcoski, 2000). Das (1995) argues that the fundamental elements of democratic policing mandate that all police activities must be regulated in accordance with the law. Hence, police performance and responsibility to society must be effective, accountable and transparent (Das, 1995). Viewed through the lens of respect for democratic tenets, the question of police professionalism in Ghana and the extent to which recruitment and training practices can impact on police professionalism becomes critical.

Nonetheless, the concept of democratic policing may be misleading when applied to the internal functioning of police institutions as they are traditionally structured along the military style command and control model. Decision-making authority is concentrated at the top levels and there is very little room for individual initiatives on policy and operational issues to originate from the lower ranks (Kratcoski, 2000). Likewise, it is instructive to note that policing a democracy does not require that the police be organised democratically. According to Waddington (1991), the notion of democratic policing has been linked to the concept of police legitimacy. Legitimacy in policing has generally been understood as policing by consent. In this regard, consent is premised on the police being perceived as effective and having legitimate authority (Waddington, 1991; 2005). Durston (2000) argues that police legitimacy is derived from diverse factors that together, may encompass the entire theoretical scope of democratic policing. These factors include police accountability, police legitimacy and local consultation. On the contrary, police authority in several emerging democracies remains highly centralised. Centralised police systems are perceived to be under direct political influence and therefore undemocratic, while decentralised systems are seen as democratic in most western countries, particularly in the United Kingdom and the
United States of America (Kratcoski, 2000). Bayley (1999), however, argues that democracy is compatible with both centralised and decentralised police systems. To this end, adherence to democratic policing principles is fundamental in every society, particularly in Ghana, a democratic country.

Like any other Police Service, the GPS ought to be primarily concerned with upholding the freedoms and human rights of the people of Ghana as well as with the provision of services to the people considering that policing mainly concerns the provision of services to humanity. Thus, policing within the framework of protection of human rights must be characterised by transparency in the performance of routine tasks and accountability under the law and to the people instead of a political authority (Bayley, 1999; Reiner, 2010). Ironically, in many countries governments have failed in their most important duty to provide the public with an honest, efficient and effective police service that ensures the application of the rule of law and the maintenance of an environment of safety and security. Basically, in a democracy, police legitimacy is measured in terms of the extent to which the provision of services generates an environment in which the public is free from fear and the police respect human rights (Bayley, 2001; Daruwala and Doube, 2005). It is within this framework that this study on police professionalism in Ghana and the extent to which recruitment and training practices can impact on police professionalism is conducted.

The reputation of the GPS in providing services to the general public in Ghana may have been in contention since the early days of Ghana’s independence in the late 1950s. Unfortunately, numerous allegations ranging from the lack of capacity, appropriate skills and training; corruption, abuse of power and of people’s freedoms; to political interference in the performance of duties and management have been levelled against the GPS in Ghana (Afari, 2004; CHRI, 2007). It is against this background that this
This thesis seeks to explore the subject matter of ‘police professionalism in Ghana by examining how recruitment and training practices can impact on professionalism within the GPS’. In broad terms, the research considers professionalism in the work place as being concerned with the capacity of officers to appropriately perform their functions in accordance with acceptable norms and standards. Specifically, it questions whether police officers have the required skills, capacity and the ethical discipline to perform their duties while adhering to relevant code(s) of conduct. In principle, professionalism therefore critically emphasises employees’ knowledge (know-how) of a profession and using such a capability appropriately in accordance with rules and regulations; acceptable ethical code and behaviour.

In line with the foregoing argument, a conception of professionalism that incorporates principles of responsibility and expertise as mechanisms for managing development and execution of training might be more practical. But for the police to perform efficiently in society, Johnston (2006) argues that while the functions of the police is to enhance public reassurance, it is also anticipated that recruiting a more diverse force and thereby making the police representative of the different communities they serve may be equally essential. However, police professionalism cannot be discussed without paying due attention to police culture. According to (Westmarland, 2008), what a police officer will do or not do will depend on the culture of the police organization. This implies that, the culture of any police organization has a direct influence upon the attainment of professionalism. Waddington (1999) posits that what police officers will do or not do may be influenced by the circumstances within which they operate. Therefore, every organization has a formal and an informal culture that, more often than not, makes the organization different. Therefore, the notion of police culture is essential because of the critical role that police officers play in society (Waddington, 1999; 2005). This role is so
vital that it is linked to the discretionary powers that officers have over the general public while performing their functions within defined considerations (Wilson et al., 2001). Conversely, the discretionary powers of the police outline authority through the exercise of lawful power from the highest to the lowest levels of authority within the police chain of command. In practice, officers with minimal operational experiences rather employ discretion in dealing with the general public (Wilson et al., 2001). Therefore, a police officer's reaction to the operational environment may be influenced by how they see the work generally and within the branch of the service where they work. The dilemma is that police culture may have negative consequences because it is a concept that is representative of some form of routine injustice while, at the same time, it empowers the police not to accept change. Nevertheless, what police officers say and how they behave are mostly determined by the context within which they find themselves rather than police culture (Wilson et al., 2001).

Similarly, police professionalism cannot be discussed without considering the oversight and accountability mechanisms of the police organization. Jones (2008) argues that, the foundation of modern, democratic and transparent policing is purely rooted on the notion of police governance and accountability. Accountability in this context is considered in a tripartite domain, viz: accountability to the state; accountability to the people; and, accountability to the law (Jones, 2003; 2008). Police accountability mechanisms therefore assist the police in focusing on the provision of services to the public while complying with ethical policing and codes of conduct of the police profession (CHRI, 2007; Jones 2003; 2008). According to CHRI (2007), Ghana enjoys an effective police accountability mechanism with established standards of conduct and behaviour as well as internal complaints units aimed at controlling police misconduct. Also, there are organised institutions such as the GPS Council that serves as an
independent advisory body to the President of the Republic of Ghana in matters involving appointments, finance and administration within the GPS. Moreover, the existence of a very strong Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) in Ghana that receives complaints against the police has been lauded. However, the perception that the GPS is very corrupt and unprofessional severely detracts from police accountability mechanisms. For instance, the Africa Peer Review Mechanism Country Review Report on the Republic of Ghana for 2005 revealed that the GPS violated and infringed upon the human rights of citizens. Consequently, the visibility of both internal and external police accountability mechanisms in terms of their actual contribution to police performance in Ghana appears unclear. In consequence, more needs to be done in the context of accountability mechanisms if the GPS is to move forward. This study on police professionalism in Ghana and the extent to which recruitment and training practices can impact on police professionalism is one of the approaches aimed at addressing the issue.

**PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Professionalism is central to any police institution that seeks to provide services to the public create an environment free from fear and appear sensitive to individual's guaranteed human rights (CHRI, 2007; Afari, 2004). The political neutrality of the GPS was seriously compromised when the police and military in Ghana worked in harmony to overthrow the first Republican Constitution and the government of Dr. Kwame Nkrumah. The Ghana Police thereafter remained involved in domestic politics and governance, with officers constituting one half of the total membership of the ruling council at the time (CHRI, 2007). The sad aspect of the involvement of the police in domestic politics was the attempted assassination of President Kwame Nkrumah at the
Flagstaff House in Accra, Ghana on 2nd January 1964 by a Police constable named Kwame Ametewee. After the assassination attempt, the GPS immediately lost the trust and confidence of the President and the people of Ghana (Barker, 1979).

Police corruption and the involvement of the police in scandals have also eroded the trust and image of the GPS in Ghana in recent years (CHRI, 2007). The alleged involvement of senior police officers in ‘narcotics and the drug trade’ greatly dented the reputation of the GPS. Reports of the disappearance of large quantities of seized cocaine from the Police Exhibit Store at the Criminal Investigations Department (CID) Headquarters (HQ) in Accra and dealings with drug barons further worsened the already bad reputation of the Police (The Statesman, 2006). Confidence in the institution that was supposed to uphold human rights and provide an environment of safety and security was totally gone. In light of the above, if the GPS is ever to regain its professionalism, there is the need for a complete overhaul of police capacity, culture, attitude and mindset. It is therefore pertinent to examine police professionalism in Ghana and the extent to which recruitment and training practices can impact on police professionalism. The CHRI (2007) report made some proposals for police reform aimed at achieving police professionalism in Ghana as quoted below:

‘recruitment and training must be revised .... this means aiming to recruit police officers with a good level of basic education. Training systems must be re-designed to build a thorough foundation in accountability concepts, capacities, human rights, and practical application of ideas to new entrants. In addition, training ought to be structured, constant and on going to ensure that all officers are equipped with the appropriate levels of capacities and skills’.

(CHRI, 2007:66)
Given the above extract from CHRI (2007), it is imperative to explore the extent to which recruitment and training practices can influence professionalism in the GPS, hence, the need for this present study. In order to attain professionalism, the need for a good recruitment policy that is complimented by a high quality training policy and standards cannot be over emphasised (Robbins and Coulter, 1999). In this vein, it has been argued that training is extremely important for new and existing staff in any organization (Robbins and Coulter, 1999). The most important determinants of training are the task to be accomplished and the employee’s abilities and attitudes. Nonetheless, a systematic approach to recruitment, training and career development, followed by a logical sequence of activities through the establishment of a policy, assessment of recruitment and training requirements as well as evaluation and feedback are crucial in organizations (Cole, 2002). Consequently, the existence of an appropriate recruitment policy and procedures in the GPS should be part of the police code of conduct and ethics in order to achieve professionalism.

**AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

This thesis examines the notion of professionalism in organizations by considering how recruitment and training can impact on police professionalism in Ghana. Thus, through an historical and contemporary analysis, this study examines professionalism in the GPS and the extent to which recruitment and training practices can influence professionalism. This is achieved by examining: the general definition of professionalism in organisations; the concept of police professionalism; the notion of police culture; recruitment and training; and, the overall issue of professionalism in the GPS. Furthermore, this research analyses the current training curriculum of the GPS to
ascertain whether it equips police officers at various levels with the requisite skills. The overall objective is to determine the extent to which police professionalism in Ghana could be attained through the application and enforcement of processes, procedures and standards.

Therefore the primary aim of the study is to achieve the following objectives:

- To understand the concept of professionalism as it pertains to organizations
- To understand police professionalism including the link between recruitment and training in the GPS.
- To understand the principles, practise and operation of democratic standards and norms in the GPS.
- To examine the extent to which recruitment and training can impact on police professionalism in Ghana.
- To evaluate the appropriateness and the applicability of police professionalism in Ghana.

THE RESEARCH QUESTION

The central research question investigates the extent to which recruitment and training is related to the levels of police professionalism in Ghana. In order to achieve the aim of the study, commissioned officers (leadership) and the rank and file (junior officers) in the GPS were interviewed. Alongside the main research question, three sub questions were identified:

- Whether there are recruitment and training standards in the GPS?
- How important is capacity building and career development of officers to the GPS? and,
• To what extent is the GPS effective and professional in the conduct of policing functions?

STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study commences with a comprehensive discussion of the Ghana Police Service in Chapter Two. This Chapter considers the political history of Ghana, policing as a service to humanity, the organization and structure of the GPS including the relevance of recruitment, training and development in the GPS.

The Literature Review is presented in Chapter Three and it includes a careful consideration of academic theories and principles underpinning the foundation of the research. The Chapter discusses organizational culture and leadership theories, as well as professionalism in organizations. The Chapter also considers police accountability mechanisms as well as recruitment, training and career development in the GPS to the police and transformational leadership. Chapter Four deals with the methodology of the research by discussing issues such as definitions, concepts and scope of the methodology, research instruments, practical application of the chosen methodology, advantages and disadvantages as well as ethical issues. Other discussions in the chapter focus on research design, the sampling methods, pilot study and pre–testing. Chapter Five considers the findings, observations and analysis of the research. Chapter Six concludes the thesis with a summary of the main contributions and relevance of the study, recommendations and the way forward.
CHAPTER TWO

THE GHANA POLICE SERVICE

INTRODUCTION

The basis of this research is grounded on the GPS in relation to police professionalism. This Chapter therefore considers the political history of Ghana and the evolution of policing in the country both during the colonial and post-colonial periods. The structure and organization of the GPS is also discussed as well as the role of recruitment, training and development in police professionalism in Ghana.

THE POLITICAL HISTORY OF GHANA

Geographically Ghana is located in Sub-Saharan Africa (West Africa). Ghana, formerly called ‘The Gold Coast’ became a British colony in 1874. On 6th March 1957, the then Gold Coast gained independence from British rule and changed its name to Ghana. The Portuguese were the first Europeans to set foot in the Gold Coast in 1470 to conduct trade. The Portuguese established the first permanent trading colony in 1482 in Elmina near Cape Coast in the Central Region of Ghana (Appiagyei-Atua, 2006). The British are reported to have first visited the Gold Coast in the year 1553, but only managed to gain control of trading forts in the Gold Coast in 1821. This control was facilitated by an agreement known as the Bond of 1844 signed between the British and local chiefs for the legitimacy of British presence in the Gold Coast. Initially, British control in the Gold Coast was limited to the coastal areas. However, in 1902, the British gained control over the Ashanti and northern territories and established the British Protectorate.
In 1922 the British took administrative control of some parts of what now constitutes the Volta Region of Ghana, (a former German colony) as a result of a mandate from the League of Nations following the defeat of Nazi Germany in the Second World War. It was in the year 1946 that the British consolidated their position and fully controlled Ghana as a single colonized country (CHRI, 2007).

In the 1940s, the colonized people in the Gold Coast developed increased political consciousness. In addition, there was a proliferation of nationalist movements. As a result, Ghana’s attempts at gaining independence from colonial rule grew significantly in 1951, culminating in agitations for self-rule. A Constitution adopted in 1954 created a Cabinet of African Ministers through popular vote. Elections were later conducted and the Convention People’s Party won the majority of seats in the Legislative Assembly and, its leader, Dr. Kwame Nkrumah, became the Prime Minister of the Gold Coast. In 1956, the Dr. Nkrumah proposed independence for the Gold Coast. The British Colonial Government agreed and set 6th March 1957 as the day of independence (Afari, 2004). The Gold Coast eventually gained independence from British colonial rule in 1957 and the country was renamed Ghana.

Ghana’s post independence history has been one of political and economic instability. However, the country began moving towards democracy and economic stability in 1992, where a Constitution allowing for a multi-party system was approved in a referendum, ushering in a period of democracy (Petchenkie, 1993). His Excellency John Agyekum Kufuor’s victory in the presidential elections of December 2000 marked the first ever transfer of political power through elections in Ghana. The successful conduct of the 2008 and 2012 general elections respectively in Ghana and the re-transfer of power through elections have further increased Ghana’s political stability.
and have made the nation a model of democracy in Africa. Beside its democratic credentials, Ghana can also boast of some significant economic achievements. For instance, in December 2010, Ghana began pumping oil in commercial quantities after discovery of offshore oil reserves at the Jubilee Fields. It is anticipated that by 2020 550,000 barrels of oil would be produced daily (Ghana National Petroleum Corporation, 2013). Furthermore, Ewusi (2011) projects that the Ghanaian economy should grow at a rate of 17.5 per cent in 2011 and at an annual rate of 10 per cent between 2012 and 2015. However, notwithstanding the democratic and economic achievements made by Ghana, the extent to which policing in Ghana conforms to contemporary democratic culture and norms is still not clear. In view of the need to have effective, efficient and accountable policing in Ghana, the need to examine police professionalism and the extent to which recruitment and training practices can impact on police professionalism in Ghana cannot be overemphasised.

POLICING AS A SERVICE TO HUMANITY

As a term, policing has been defined as the process of preventing and detecting crime and the maintenance of order in society (Mawby, 2008). The police as an agency can be distinguished in terms of its legitimacy, its structure and its functions (Mawby, 1990). Legitimacy implies that the police are granted some degree of monopoly within society by those with power to so authorise, whether this is the elite within society, an occupying power or the community as a whole. With respect to structure, the police are considered as an organised force, with some degree of specialization and a code of practice, which specifies the legitimate use of force. In terms of function, the role of the police focuses on the main task of maintaining law and order within society as well, the preventing and detecting offences (Mawby, 2008). However, in respect of function, the
extents to which specialization and the modalities of use of force in the performance of duties are considered appropriate vary depending on various factors. Similarly, with function, there is a dichotomy in terms of what constitute crime and law enforcement including order maintenance as well as such responsibilities like welfare, restorative justice and political amongst others are undertaken by the police (Wilson, 1968).

Interestingly, policing functions exist in every society. However, the form it takes differs greatly. Typically, policing functions are vested in a group of selected individuals officially organised and coordinated by the state. The justification for state control of policing, otherwise known as the contract theory, appears fascinating and also credible. To this effect, the need for members of society to trade off some degree of their freedom to the state in return for a measure of protection provides primary justification for policing (Kleinig, 1996). Bowling and Foster (2002) in their work on ‘Policing and the Police’ emphasise the importance of policing in society as follows:

‘Human beings in a state of nature were prevented from enjoying basic rights: the rights to life, to liberty and to property because of: ignorance, powerlessness, insecurity and arbitrary violence. To preserve these fundamental rights, it was necessary to set up civil government. Having set up a legislature to make a known and settled law and then a judiciary to apply it in individual cases, enforcement agencies were required to give it due execution’.

(Bowling and Foster, 2002:981-98)

In many democracies, the only legitimate policing is policing that helps to create an environment free from fear and also favourable to the attainment of people’s human
rights (Bayley, 2001; Daruwala and Doube, 2005). In practice, the police may intrude on the rights of others while protecting human rights. However, human rights law (HL) accepts that some rights may be limited in certain circumstances for the purpose of protecting the rights of others. It is, however, the duty of the police to decide when intrusions into the rights of some people are required and acceptable for the purpose of protecting the rights of others. In this context, the police ought to have a code of ethics, a defined body of knowledge, and pre-determined criteria and standards for entry into the profession as well as commitment to service, as argued by Das (1995).

Bayley (1985) argues that, the modern police are distinct from their predecessors in terms of their specialization, professionalism and public ownership. Specialization in the modern police represents a system where people are employed wholly for policing. Also, units within the police organization need a lot of expertise in the performance of their day-to-day tasks. To this end, professionalism requires critical emphasis on individual selection, training and performance of employees’ duties (Bayley, 1985). It is in line with this analogy that this study on police professionalism in Ghana and the extent to which recruitment and training practices can impact on professionalism is considered to be of fundamental relevance. The Police Accountability Project in Ghana initiated by the Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative (CHRI) in 2007 hinted at the lack of professionalism in the GPS thus:

‘... the police are the first and often the only experience people in the community that deal with the criminal justice system have in Ghana. Unfortunately, this experience is marred by widespread corruption, illegal arrest and detention, excessive use of force
and a failure to respond to complaints. These are all the hallmarks of a regime style police force that is not held accountable for its actions’.

(CHRI, 2007:28)

It is pertinent to recall that the nature and context of policing in Ghana spans the pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial eras. Therefore, an overview of the specific context of policing during each of these periods provides a solid foundation for clarifying the subject matter of the study, police professionalism in Ghana.

POLICING IN GHANA

Traditional Ghanaian Policing

According to Afari (2004), Ghana had a good system of policing before the era of colonization and, specifically, the introduction of the colonial model of policing. Before colonization, security was everyone’s responsibility in Ghanaian society and its various communities. In that era, the society relied upon closely-knit social networking schemes to protect itself. Also, local chiefs and clan heads had a system of using strongly built men to perform some security and protection duties. Such strong men could conduct arrests of offenders and summon people to the local chiefs and elders who had the responsibility of ensuring peace and security within their respective communities. The policing tasks performed through these traditional policing methods were similar to modern policing duties of patrols, apprehension of criminals, and prevention of crimes amongst others (Ankama, 1983). However, with the advent of colonization, the traditional method gave way to the colonial method of policing. Appiagyei-Atua (2006) has argued that:
traditional Ghanaian societies had notions of policing which were put in practice to protect and promote the cultural values and democratic ethos of the state. This social control mechanism, however, was disrupted at the advent of colonialism and replaced by the Colonial Policing Model, which was built with the goal of advancing and protecting colonial interests at the expense of the rights of the colonised people’.

(Appiagyei-Atua, 2006:8; CHRI, 2007:10)

The Colonial Policing Model

Mawby (2008) posits that, while the French administered the centralized and militaristic system of policing structures in their colonies, the British government established specialized forms of policing systems and structures within their colonies. In this regard, the colonial policing model was considered by the British to be a system of policing that was more suitable for controlling a conquered populace (Mawby, 2008). Captain George Maclean established the colonial model of Policing in Ghana around 1831 with the aim of providing security for British trade and of protecting the general colonial interest in the Gold Coast. As such, the colonial police was interested in patrolling trade routes and protecting colonial merchants and officials. In addition, the maintenance and enforcement of agreements signed between the local chiefs and the British was a key function of the Police (Quantson, 2006; Appiagyei-Atua, 2006). The British Colonial Policing Model continued to evolve over the years. In 1873, an ordinance to provide for a better functioning Gold Coast Police was enacted. Finally, in 1876, the Gold Coast Police was renamed the Gold Coast Constabulary. The 1876 reform saw the establishment of the following specializations and divisions within the force: Railways and Mines Detachment; Escort Police; Marine Police; Criminal Investigations Department (CID); and later, the Intelligence Unit of the Police called the
Special Branch (SB). In 1894, another ordinance was enacted to establish the Civil Police in the Gold Coast whereby Police Stations and the standardization of policing in the British controlled territories of the Gold Coast became the norm (Quantson, 2006).

In 1914, a centralised Police Force known as the Gold Coast Police Force was established for the entire colony.

The system of policing introduced by the British is still very much evident today after over half a century of independence. As a result, policing in Ghana is still dominated by the colonial model of policing (Arthur and Marenin, 1996; Mawby, 2008), although new forms of policing have emerged since independence. The post colonial trend demonstrates a move away from the inherited colonial policing model, towards a more representative, accountable and transparent police force. However, the extent to which these attempts have been fulfilled is unclear (Gariba, 2005). From the foregoing, it is clear that the emphasis of the colonial policing model was not to achieve the norm of service to humanity within the context of democratic policing. Consequently, the foundation of policing in Ghana was purely built on the protection of colonial interests, which was not always necessarily attuned with police professionalism.

Contemporary writers have classified various policing systems, including the colonial policing system used in West Africa during the colonial period. The colonial system had basic characteristics that are worth citing. Mawby (2008) for instance defines the colonial policing system in terms of structure, function and legitimacy. In terms of structure, the police was centralised and militaristic (i.e., armed and living as units in barracks). In terms of function, the police concentrated on public order and administrative tasks. Finally with regard to legitimacy, Mawby (2008) argues that the colonial police was loyal to the colonial government rather than the local population as the source of power. Nevertheless, the British Government considered the existence of a
strong police force as critical to the attainment of control and legitimacy across colonized countries (Mawby, 2008).

For various reasons, many academics have argued that the colonial system of policing lacked accountability and transparency (Dermont and Dickson, 1994; Mawby, 2003; Reiner, 2000). This was related to the fact that, the British government considered the existence of a strong police force as fundamental to the establishment of control, legitimacy and authority across the colony. Therefore, the colonial model was established in line with a militaristic model although not necessarily armed nor centralized (Anderson and Killingray, 1991). The resulting effect was that, the police were tied to the colonial administration and hence considered the protectors of (colonial) life and property as well as political establishments and colonial businesses. To this end, the colonial police employed a draconian approach to the enforcement of law and order as well as repressive policing strategies (Kratcoski, 2000). Ironically, the police in post-independence Ghana continued to use the same approach in the performance of their functions because the police was considered as being capable of assisting the new government to establish a so called ‘rule of law’ foundation (Clinard and Abbott, 1973). The colonial police was interested in upholding the authority of the state rather than upholding the interest of the people through the observance of basic human rights and protection of the life and property (Ahire, 1999; Jeffries, 1952; Kaviraj, 1994). Academic debate has since focused on the question of whether there has been continuity or change in the post-independence context as well as on discursive practises and analyses aimed at deepening the understanding of policing in post-colonial Ghana.
Post-Colonial Policing in Ghana

Dr. Kwame Nkrumah, the first Prime Minister of Ghana made the following statement during the first graduation parade of the Ghana Police College in Accra in 1959:

‘there are colonial police forces, which exist to enforce authority of a foreign power on a colonial people. In such forces, this will be demonstrated by the fact that the police will be peremptory and even brutal in their dealings with the inhabitants of the colony while they will be ingratiating and subservient to those in authority. In a free and independent country, the conduct of the police must be the exact reverse of this. They must demonstrate to the people at large that the country is free and independent by behaving towards the ordinary man in the street with exactly the same politeness as they would behave towards those in superior positions’.

(Ening, E. K., 2006: 6; CHRI, 2007:12)

Indeed, the above statement did convey to Ghanaians the message that the new African government was interested in establishing a police force that would uphold and protect the human rights of the populace. This is where the debate about police professionalism in Ghana and upholding the interest of the people commenced. However, the extent to which the government and the police organization alike applied the in the post-independence period is unclear. This is because Ghanaian policing did not really change much after independence (CHRI, 2007). This dilemma may be attributed to the situation in which most colonized countries in Africa found themselves after gaining independence. In the case of Ghana for example, the imminent independence of the Gold Coast forced the then colonial administration to engage and advisor to conduct an inquiry into the organisation, training and methods for policing in the Gold Coast
(Young, 1951). Ironically, when a colonised country attains independence, the administration of the country changes hands but the political, social and economic institutions appear to remain the same (Clinard and Abbott, 1973). As such, even though independence might have created a change in the political systems of the countries involved, there may not have been a significant effect on the structure and functions of the police.

The people of Ghana deserve a police service that upholds the interest of the people instead of exclusively safeguarding the authority of the state. Professionalism is therefore critical in any police institution that seeks to provide services to the people and create an environment free from fear and that is also willing to uphold human rights (CHRI, 2007; Afari, 2004). Unprofessional policing in Ghana is epitomized by instances of corruption, illegal arrest and detention, excessive use of force and failure to act on complaints (CHRI, 2007). These are trademarks of a regime-style police force that is not held accountable for its actions (Daruwala and Doube, 2005). Most recently, the Inspector General of Police (IGP) observed that, the police in Ghana is unprofessional – using abusive methods which damage democracy, weaken the rule of law, and lead to gross violations of human rights (Corporate Guardian, 2009). There are also many reports of police officers and men receiving bribes, extorting money from people, committing brutalities and assaults against civilians at will, and above all, about the increasing number of “trigger–happy” policemen shooting and killing innocent civilians (CHRI, 2007). While addressing a police graduation parade in May 2006, a former President of Ghana noted that police responsibility in society is critical and cautioned against the rampant shooting of civilians in some parts of the country:
'Police personnel should exhibit sound judgement and competence in the handling of weapons, even in the application of force. As law enforcement agencies, such qualities are required of the police to be able to maintain the confidence of the public'.

(Kufuor, J.A., 2006 – Daily Graphic, 29/05/2006)

It is in light of the above that a strategy to attract the right calibre of officers and men into the GPS through recruitment and training is so critical to attaining police professionalism in Ghana. Thus the importance of setting and enforcing strict criteria and standards of selection for police officers and of implementing continuous education and training programmes in the GPS cannot be overstated.

**ATTEMPTS AT REFORMING COLONIAL POLICING IN GHANA**

The major problem with post-colonial policing in Ghana stems from the fact that there has been no agreement to back its operations. Agreement here refers to the legitimacy of the government or politicians in power since policing is a practise that is inseparably related to the political regime and the discourse of power (Ening, 2006; Nkrumah, 1971). Policing, however, cannot be understood by mere analysis of structural features without reference to history (Mawby, 2003). According to Brogden (2005) democratisation/or independence need not necessarily eliminate colonial policing strategies and practises, but rather should engage in adapting this policing model to social and political changes in the interest of the masses. Post-colonial policing systems and practices may still have some connection with the colonial policing methods, practises and strategies in Ghana as argued by Clinard and Abbot (1973). This is because, the maintenance of public order which has been a unique colonial legacy
remains linked to policing in a democratic state where social protests – the universally accepted manner of expressing disagreement with authority – is the order of the day. The National Reconciliation Report of Ghana (2001) points to the fact that no significant efforts were made to reform the GPS between 1957 and 1992 in the following words:

‘None of the civilian and military regimes during the period from 1957 to 1992 made any serious attempt to provide mechanisms that would enable the service to exercise its functions in the society efficiently and honestly, while respecting individual dignity, rights and liberties’

(National Reconciliation Report of Ghana, 2001: 1.32.2)

Notwithstanding the foregoing, there were frantic efforts to reorganise the police force prior to independence as evidenced by the Young (1951) Study on the Gold Coast Police Force. It is pertinent to recall that, the stated aim of British Colonial Government study on the Gold Coast Police Force was to bequeath a modern, efficient, transparent and accountable policing system to Ghana (Young Report, 1951). To this end, Young (1951) examined the organization, training and strategy of the Gold Coast Police Force with a view to ensuring that Ghana would inherit an effective and efficient Police Force well trained and equipped for the newly independent country. The idea of establishing police accountability and transparency for a modern Police Service along the lines of what then pertained in England was envisaged. Young's (1951) recommendations facilitated the establishment of the GPS Council, an institution that has remained to date
(Young, 1951; Afari, 2004). The functions of the GPS Council has been defined as: “the police Council shall advice the President on matters of policy relating to internal security; including the Police Service, budgeting and finance, administration and the promotion of officers above the rank of Assistant Commissioner of Police” (Article 203, 1992 Constitution of Ghana). Among others, Young’s (1951) recommendation included the following:

‘the alignment of Police districts and regions to coincide with those of political districts and regions in Ghana; the merger of the General and Escort Police Branches into a one unified force without any segregation; and, the acceleration of the Africanisation Policy of the force with an African heading the Gold Coast Police Force’.

(Pokoo-Aikins, 2002: 8; Young, 1951)

In addition, at the time of independence, Ghana inherited a significant number of modern police stations, with a high percentage of personnel accommodated in good buildings (Pokoo-Aikins, 2002). Fortunately, the independent government of Ghana continued the expansion policy of police development in order to build a solid foundation for the maintenance of law and order in the country. In this regard, a five-year police development plan for the GPS was initiated in 1957, the main objectives of which are as outlined below:

‘… building of modern police stations to replace the poor ones; the building of police accommodation to house the rank and file; the opening of new Police Stations across the country; the building of a new Police Headquarters and the establishment of the
Criminal Investigations Department Forensic Laboratory; the establishment of the Police College to train Superior Police Officers; the establishment of the Armoured Car Squadron to manage public order and civil unrest; the recruitment and increase in strength of Women Police [officers]; and, the creation of a Police Dog Unit to assist in investigations and prevention of crime’.


From the foregoing, it can be seen that there were attempts to create a police service that would provide the required service to humanity in Ghana. However, the extent to which, and the commitment with which, these attempts were enthusiastically pursued is yet to be seen. It has been argued that, starting from 1993, the most serious attempt to reform the GPS was made through the establishment of a Presidential Commission to look into the GPS in 1996 (Archer Commission Report, 1997). The Commission made very good recommendations for police reform in Ghana. However the “political will” to implement those recommendations was absent and hence nothing has been done to date.

ORGANISATION AND STRUCTURE OF THE GPS

In Ghana, the Head of the Police is the Inspector-General of Police (IGP). The IGP is appointed by the president of the Republic of Ghana in consultation with the Council of State (Article 202, 1992 Constitution of Ghana). The GPS therefore is centralised under a unified command structure headed by the IGP. However, the supervisory power over the administration and operations of the GPS held by the Minister responsible for the interior. The appointment of the IGP by the President and the subsequent exercise of
supervisory control by the Minister of Interior have, on occasion, instigated claims that the police in Ghana is politically controlled (1992 Constitution of Ghana). In this connection, the extent to which the GPS could be independent of government influence is yet to be seen.

For the purpose of ensuring effective administration and operation of the GPS, the IGP is assisted by a deputy IGP. The administration of the GPS at the level of the headquarters is organised into schedules, each with a Commissioner in charge. These schedules comprise: administration; operations; human resource development; criminal investigations department; welfare; technical and general services; research, planning and information communication technology; and, finance. In addition to the administrative structure at the HQ, the GPS is further decentralised into 13 regions, 51 divisions, 179 districts and 651 stations and posts. The approximate population of the GPS as distributed by regional basis as of the first quarter of 2013 is shown in Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1: Regional Distribution of Strength (Officers) of GPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SERIAL</th>
<th>REGION</th>
<th>STRENGTH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Police HQ, CID HQ and HQ Units</td>
<td>5,223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Accra Region</td>
<td>4,081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Tema Region</td>
<td>1,412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Railways and Ports</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ashanti Region</td>
<td>3,949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Brong Ahafo Region</td>
<td>1,882</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Central Region</td>
<td>1,764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Region</td>
<td>Strength</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Volta Region</td>
<td>1,620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Western Region</td>
<td>3,382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Eastern Region</td>
<td>2,125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Northern Region</td>
<td>996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Upper East Region</td>
<td>784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Upper West Region</td>
<td>686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>TOTAL STRENGTH</strong></td>
<td><strong>28,077</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: The Establishment State of GPS, March 2013*

With a unitary command structure under the leadership of the IGP, the chain of command runs from top to bottom. Therefore, station officers report to district/unit commanders who in turn report to divisional commanders and finally to the respective regional commanders. Regional commanders report directly to the IGP at the National Police HQ. The idea of distribution of commands into regions, divisions and districts is premised on the concept of decentralization for effective command and control, leading to effective policing. Unfortunately, the implementation of the concept of decentralization within a highly hierarchical and bureaucratic GPS under unitary command has not achieved the desired results. The lack of decentralization is amplified by the unified command structure of the GPS and the extraordinary powers conferred upon the IGP under entrenched provisions of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana. As a result, nothing can be done in the GPS without the approval of the IGP (1992 Constitution of Ghana).

In addition to the police regions, the GPS has specialized units that support the operations of the service. These special units are:
- Motor Transport and Traffic Directorate (MTTD)
- Courts and Prosecutions Directorate
- Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit (DOVVSU)
- Highway Patrol Unit (HPU)
- Rapid Deployment Unit (RDF)
- National Protection Unit (MFU)
- Marine Police Unit (MPU)

The MPU was re-established in 2011 following the discovery of oil and gas in Ghana. The task of the unit involves policing the country’s oil and gas industry, including the enforcement of Ghana's fisheries laws and regulations. The special unit falls under the command of various regional commanders and is considered as a force enabler designed to support GPS operations (Ghana Police Service Instructions).

In examining the structure, operations and administration of the GPS in line with the 1992 Constitution of Ghana (Article 203), a similarity may be observed in the legal and cultural norms of policing in both the colonial and post-independence eras. Policing in Ghana is still largely confined to the maintenance of law and order and upholding the authority of the state (Article 200 of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana) rather than upholding and protecting the human rights of the populace. For example, section 1 of the Ghana Police Service Act, 1970 (Act 350) defines the functions of the police in the following terms: ‘it shall be the duty of the Police Service to prevent and detect crime, to apprehend offenders, and to maintain public order and safety of persons and society’. However, it has been argued that the mandate given to the GPS in Act 350 fails to
consider issues of ethical policing and the GPS code of conduct – a statement of value and guidance that sets standard criteria against which police behaviour can be objectively measured – in the performance of those functions (CHRI, 2007). When viewed against this backdrop, the subject matter of this thesis – police professionalism and the extent to which recruitment and training can impact thereon – becomes extremely relevant.

GPS Ranking and Establishment State

Undoubtedly, the post-independence GPS ranking was inherited from the British Colonial Policing Model. The ranks comprising two main categories (i.e., superior officers and subordinate officers) are shown in Table 2.2 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Superior Officers</th>
<th>Subordinate Officers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Inspector General of Police</td>
<td>10. Chief Inspector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Commissioner of Police</td>
<td>12. Sergeant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Deputy Commissioner of Police</td>
<td>13. Corporal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Assistant Commissioner of Police</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Chief Superintendent of Police</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Superintendent of Police</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Deputy Superintendent of Police</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Assistant Superintendent of Police</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2: Ranking of the GPS
The strength of the GPS (officers) was approximately 28,000 as of the first quarter of 2013 and this number was distributed amongst the various ranks (i.e., from the highest, IGP to the lowest, Constable). With the population of Ghana recently estimated at 25 million (2010 Population Census of Ghana), the police population ratio (PPR) stood at about 1: 892. The United Nations PPR targets 1:500 for effective and efficient policing. Much as the attainment of the UN PPR might be crucial to policing, it is equally fundamental to examine the skills and competencies of police officers and men in Ghana. Therefore the issue at stake is not the mere achievement of the UN PPR in Ghana, but the attainment of a positive correlation between effective policing and capacity building in the form of training and career development in the GPS. Generally, training and development in the GPS is either non-existent or very low (Ghana Police Strategic Plan 2010).

In light of the foregoing, it is equally important to illustrate the distribution of the strength of the GPS in terms of the various ranks and gender. This is paramount for purposes of determining the extent of gender mainstreaming within the GPS vis-à-vis the general population of Ghana. While the male to female ratio of the general population of Ghana is almost 1:1, the police ratio is so appalling. Female officers constitute only about 25% of the total strength of the GPS. Table 2.3 below provides an approximate distribution of male and female police (officers) of the GPS as of the first quarter of 2013.
Table 2.3: Gender Distribution of GPS Strength (Officers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SERIAL</th>
<th>RANK</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Inspector General</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Deputy Inspector General</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Commissioner</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Deputy Commissioner</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Assistant Commissioner</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Chief Superintendent</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Superintendent</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Deputy Superintendent</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Assistant Superintendent</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Sub-Total Superior Officers</strong></td>
<td>1,013</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>1,180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Chief Inspector</td>
<td>1,184</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>1,489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Inspector</td>
<td>2,101</td>
<td>578</td>
<td>2,679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Sergeant</td>
<td>1,491</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>1,912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Corporal</td>
<td>2,918</td>
<td>644</td>
<td>3,562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Lance Corporal</td>
<td>6,453</td>
<td>2,232</td>
<td>8,685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Constable</td>
<td>5,923</td>
<td>2,653</td>
<td>8,570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Sub-Total of Subordinate Officers</strong></td>
<td>20,064</td>
<td>6,833</td>
<td>26,897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>GRAND TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>21,077</td>
<td>7,000</td>
<td>28,077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(75%)</td>
<td>(25%)</td>
<td>(100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: The Establishment State of GPS, March 2013*

**RECRUITMENT, TRAINING AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN THE GPS**

According to Schneider (2009), there are some fundamental principles that cannot be overlooked in any effort to attain police professionalism. The idea of professionalism was intended to encourage higher standards of selection for police officers, culminating
in continuous education and training. In addition, rigid adherence to recruitment and training standards, police legitimacy, the availability of specialized training as well as the enforcement of an ethical code of conduct and the commitment to serve the people are all pertinent to the attainment of police professionalism. According to Schneider (2009: 12-13) true professionalism in policing could be attained with strict observance of the following fundamental tenets:

- High standards of recruitment and selection
- Formal educational requirements
- Formal training in a police academy or college and state certification
- State mandated annual specialized training and re-certification
- Sworn police officers empowered to arrest
- Armed police officers specialized in the use and application of firearms
- The availability of official policies and standard operating procedures (SOP) for the operations and functions
- Commitment and dedication to service.

Furthermore, professionalism encompasses such elements as appearance, ethics and adherence to codes of conduct. Therefore, professionalism is about the existence of total dedication and commitment to high standards and ideals, principled values and incessant development (Schneider, 2009). Efficient recruitment policies and procedures alone would not necessarily guarantee professionalism. Therefore, a good recruitment policy should be complimented with equally high-quality training policy and standards in order to achieve professionalism. If the right recruitment and training processes and standards are available, the likelihood that the GPS will get the right calibre of officers into the profession will be high. Such officers will be better placed to acquire the right capacities, practical skills and morale, thereby reducing abuse, corruption, mistakes and
unprofessional conduct. It is in the light of the above that the examination of police professionalism in Ghana and the extent to which recruitment and training can impact on police professionalism is critical to the democratic polity of the country. Police effectiveness is about better and more productive police officers, thus a more efficient police organization. The ultimate objective is to have better educated, highly trained and motivated, and above all rule-oriented police officers within the GPS. This issue of recruitment, training and development is covered in more detail in the following chapters.

CONCLUSION

This Chapter has analysed the political history of Ghana including the history of policing in Ghana. The Chapter has also elaborated on the complexities of pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial policing in Ghana. Furthermore, the organization and structure of the GPS were discussed in an effort to provide a comprehensive understanding of the philosophical foundations of the research. The importance of recruitment, training and career development was also considered. The next chapter presents the Literature Review conducted as part of the research.
CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

The conceptual framework at the foundation of this research hinges on the culture of organizations with emphasis on police culture to leadership theories. Organizational culture has been chosen with a view to understanding how organizations work generally in relation to the police to achieve professionalism. The chapter also examines education and training including oversight and accountability of police organizations. Police leadership, specifically, effective leadership and performance management support the basis of this work. Therefore, academic debates outlined in the literature on the concept of organizational and police culture as well as police and effective leadership underpins the foundation of this study.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

According to Armstrong (1999), organizational culture otherwise known as corporate culture maybe described as the patterns of values, norms, beliefs, attitudes and assumptions that shape the way employees behave and conduct their business. Nonetheless, organizational culture is fundamental to the way and manner in which people behave in every organization (Armstrong, 1999; Deal and Kennedy, 1982). Schein (1985) defines organizational culture as: ‘the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organization, that operate unconsciously
and identified essentially in a taken for granted in the way and manner an organization recognises itself and surroundings’.

*Schein (1985:6)*

According to Robbins and Coulter (1999) and Smircich (1983), organizational culture is a system of shared values and norms within an organization that critically determine the way and manner in which its employees behave. In this vein, organizations have norms and principles that determine the behaviour of their members. Therefore, systems, patterns, symbols, perceptions, myths and traditions persist in organizations and they often change from time to time (Robbins and De Cenzo, 1995; Robbins and Coulter, 1999). Invariably, these norms and practices influence the way and manner in which members of an organization perceive things and respond to the world. Besides, organizational culture normally controls the way and manner employees respond to a dilemma as and when it becomes visible. Nevertheless, organizational cultures have peculiar methods through which a subject matter is conceptualised, examined and resolved. To this effect Kilmann et al. (1985) and Foster (2003) have argued that all organizations have cultures that inevitably control the perceptions as well as the interpretations of employees and the way and manner in which they conduct themselves and also perceive the world at large. Nevertheless, organizational culture does have salient characteristics that are worth considering in this work (Chatman and Jehn, 1994). Accordingly, organizational culture should be seen as a continuum that swings from lower to higher levels as posited by O’Reilly et al. (1991). This continuum ranges from commitment to results, management decisions and to detailed examinations including adherence to policy and procedures to the degree of employees’ aggressiveness and loyalty to the organization (O’Reilly et al., 1991).
Denison (1990) notes that, in principle, organizations have differences in the strength of their cultures. To this end, organizational culture could be strong or weak, and not all cultures influence employees in the same way. Organizations are said to demonstrate strong cultures where the key norms and values are to a great extent treasured and shared with significant control over employees. The implication here is that employees ought to know and adopt the values, demonstrating total commitment to the values of the organization. Consequently, the size of an organization, the length of its existence, and the degree to which its culture is treasured and respected are all relevant factors that determine the strength or weakness of the organization's culture. It is important for an organization to define what constitutes culture. As such, where an organization fails to define what is significant and what is not, obviously the risk of a weak culture appears imminent (Schein, 1985).

Indeed, it is absolutely fundamental for organizations to define what is important by explaining what constitutes good employee behaviour as well as what it takes for an employee to gain promotion and a host of others (Orphen, 1993). To this effect, it is argued that employees in organizations that have strong cultures may be more committed and dedicated to their work and to the organization than those in weak cultures. Organizations with strong cultures normally capitalize on their recruitment and training practices as well as socialization processes to build up employee commitment and loyalty, which inevitably bring about better organizational success and performance (Orphen, 1993).

It is equally pertinent to underscore that the personality of an organization reflects its culture. Robbins and Coulter (1999) have argued that persons have individual personality, which comprises a set of relatively permanent and stable traits. These personal traits may be described as warm, innovative, relaxed or conservative.
Similarly, organizations, like persons, also have personality frequently known as culture. Hence, culture is a perception whereby persons identify organizational culture depending on what they see or hear within an organization. Nevertheless, employees often have different backgrounds but often understand organizational culture in the same fashion. Fundamentally, organizational culture is all about how employees perceive the organization, and is not about the acceptance of those perceptions (Robbins and Coulter, 1999). In this vein, a cultural viewpoint might go further than other viewpoints that may influence the organization and the work ethic of its employees. Therefore, organizations have differing characteristics that nurture diverse personalities. Sheridan (1997) argues that the culture of a number of organizations promotes a strong phenomenon of risk taking personalities. However, this viewpoint works perfectly where organizational culture encourages employees who take risks. Nevertheless, some employees uphold strong attention to detail in instances whereby the organization focuses on the particulars of its daily routine functions for the purpose of quality control (Case, 1996). The willingness to concentrate on strong outcome-oriented personalities also contributes equal commitment by some organizations that consider customer service to be fundamental. To this effect, organizations may be able to concentrate on developing employee culture by adopting the concept of strong people orientation personalities.

Consequently, an organization cannot survive without employees and hence employee development has been fundamental to the attainment of objectives. Equipment alone cannot bring about success in any organization because the creativity of employees is fundamental to bringing about success (Verespej, 1996). According to Sheridan (1997) various organizations are developing their specific cultures through the establishment of strong team orientation personality concepts. Therefore, the performance of work by
some organisations and professional entities are conducted in teams. The foundation of
the team concept hinges on commitment to the definition of one's personality through
teamwork. It is paramount to stress that the adoption of a strong aggressive personality
concept in an organization is more important than the promotion of any other initiative.
Microsoft and Coca-Cola have been associated with the adoption of aggressive
personality concepts (Sellers, 1996; Levy, 1996). Some organizations favour developing
their culture by stressing on expansion in strong non-stability personalities. In this
context, organizations ought not to depend on other organizations to grow but must aim
at personality leadership through the generation of markets for their products
(Kirkpatrick, 1997; Nakarmi, 1997).

Essentially, culture does not exist in a vacuum but is rather established on solid
foundations. An organization's customs, traditions and mode of doing its works depend
to a large extent on the procedures of doing things, and the degree to which it succeeds
in its tasks within those procedures. The foundation of an organization's culture is also
dependent on the vision or mission of those who established the organization (Robbins
and De Cenzo, 1995; Robbins and Coulter, 1999). The pioneer leadership of the
organization normally has the basis and therefore may hold some biases on how to get
the job done without following the challenges of any custom. Accordingly, the pioneers
develop the culture of the organization by presenting an image of what it ought to be
(Robbins and De Cenzo, 1995; Robbins and Coulter, 1999). However, employees learn
about organizational culture in several ways through: stories, rituals, material symbols
and language. In this vein, organizational stories involve narratives of critical situations
covering founders of the organization, successes and failures, lessons identified and
learnt amongst others (Boje, 1991). Therefore, organizational stories link the present to
the past given explanations and legality for current practices and emphasizes what is
fundamental to the organization (Boje, 1991; Pettigrew, 1979; Austin, 1995). Rituals may be described as a sequence of programmes that re-affirms the formal procedures of an organization, determining the goals that are fundamental to employees who are relevant and those employees who are irrelevant (Pettigrew, 1979). An example of an organizational ritual is the process that university faculty members go through to secure permanent appointment. In some universities, the faculty member ought to be on probation for six years after which the appointment is extended or a one-year terminal contract is issued. The principle of extended appointments depends solely on satisfactory teaching performance, loyal and dedicated service to the university as well as outstanding academic and scholarly work. However, conditions for the extension of tenure of appointment differ from one department in a university to another department and from one university to another university. The importance of assessing an employee in determining good performance and suitability for the job is critical in the process. Nevertheless, public and non-profit organizations may have appointment policies and procedures that are different from those of educational institutions; however, they do re-enforce key values (Pettigrew, 1979).

Organizations may adopt a language as a method of identifying members of a culture. Employees agree to culture when they accept to learn the language and to safeguard it. Consequently, organizations create distinctive terms for equipment, key personnel suppliers, customers or products that are important to the organization's tasks. New employees have no choice but to familiarize themselves with the terms and acronyms of the organization, which are considered a common aspect of employee culture in line with Robbins and Coulter (1999) arguments to wit:
‘Material symbols cannot be separated from the layout of an organizations facilities, dress, attire, custom and badges. This is because: the size of offices, the mode of furnishing; club membership, sit, dining facilities, employee lounges, reserve parking spaces are all material symbols for organizations’.

(Robbins and Coulter, 1999:87)

Given the foregoing extensive discussion of organisational culture and police professionalism, it is important to accurately define the environmental factors that control the day-to-day functioning of an organization. Robbins and Coulter (1999) have argued that no organization operates independently and hence external factors have a significant impact on the performance of management towards the achievement of organizational goals. According to Miles (1980), the term 'environment' constitutes factors outside the organization that affect the performance of organizations. Environment may be described in general or in specific terms. The general environment describes those things outside the organization that influence organizational success, including: economic factors, political conditions, socio-cultural influences, globalization and technology. Specific environment, on the other hand, describes the part of the environment connected to the attachment of organizational objectives. This is about the key partners capable of impacting on the effectiveness of organizations, either positively or negatively. Usually, the specific environment of every organization is very important and this changes from time to time depending on the situation. Suppliers, clients, competitors, governmental agencies and pressure groups all constitute the specific environment of an organization. In principle, the specific environment of organisations differs considering the standing of the organisation, its products, the services rendered or offered, and the market coverage (Robbins and Coulter, 1999).
In a bid to ensure accurate definitions in any environment, there is the need to conduct an assessment of environmental uncertainty. An organization’s environment is fundamental to management because environments vary significantly. However, there are two elements of environmental uncertainty, which are described as: (1) the degree of change and (2) the degree of complexity. An organization is said to have a degree of change where its environmental conditions are fragile or where the components of the organization’s environment remain unstable from time to time. On the contrary, the environment is defined as stable where the impact of changes in an organization’s environmental situation is insignificant. A stable environment may be akin to the absence of competition and/or the existence of little or no public pressure to frustrate the organization (Robbins and Coulter, 1999).

Nonetheless, for a change to be accepted, the degree of change ought to be virtually unpredictable. If the change can be predicted, then it would not necessarily offer surprises, hence, management would have the option to control it. The result is that the state of uncertainty increases the level of environmental complexity. This complexity is about those elements of an organization’s environment as well as the knowledge that the organization has about those fundamentals. Furthermore, complexity is determined by measuring the knowledge that the organization wields on its environment. Uncertainty is principally a fundamental challenge to the successful performance of an organization, which requires that management endeavour to minimise it, if not avoid it totally (Robbins and Coulter, 1999).

According to Robbins and Coulter (1999), organizations inevitably ought to engage and are mostly influenced by the environment within and without which they work. Therefore, organizations cannot be presumed to be self-sufficient. Organizations invariably depend on their environment for inputs and then for customers. More so,
organizations ought to accept the laws and regulations of the jurisdictions in which they work. As well, they must consider pressure from the people on actions of the organization. Therefore, suppliers, customers, governments, pressure groups, civil society can influence the work of organizations. Where management does not encounter problems from pressure groups, they cannot ignore other changes within the environment where they function (Robbins and Coulter, 1999).

POLICE CULTURE
Reiner (1996) argues that, it was a combination of labelling theory (Becker 1963), thus civil rights and public order that created awareness in the academic discourse on police culture. These studies could be traced back to the 1950s and 1960s, an era of observation studies mostly based on power and interaction with authority (Loader and Mulcahy, 2003). Initially, the understanding of the attitudes of the police officer on the frontline was considered fascinating and appealing to observe. Besides, the application of police discretion, which was observed to have granted more authority to junior officers on the beat, was equally interesting to examine (Reiner, 1996; Westmarland, 2008). In expatiating on the power differentials, Reiner (1996; 2010) argues that, because policing is about the exercise of authority and the regulation of conflict, it has been naturally contentious and equally challenged. Consequently, policing has been the natural place to seek reform for the application of authority in society with the resultant quest to explore the inconsistent dynamics of routine police functions (McLaughlin, 2007).

The concept of police culture is not easy to define since various writers have used differing terminologies such as: police culture, police cultures, street culture, patrol
culture, canteen culture, cop culture, headquarters culture, and cardigan culture (Heidensohn, 2003:369; Chan, 2005; Waddington, 2005; Westmarland, 2008). Notwithstanding the foregoing, police culture is the terminology adopted for the purpose of this thesis.

Police culture encompasses the images officers have of their role along with their assumptions about the social world, which subsequently underpin and inform their conduct (Manning, 1977). Loftus (2009) argues that, informal norms and values in policing most often than not seem to have contributed immensely to developing police officers day-to-day decision-making and practices whilst on the frontline. In this vein, the phenomenon of police culture contributes greatly to the conceptualization of policing and the manner in which officers learn the skills of the job integrate with the public and also conduct themselves in their free time. Reiner (2000; 2010) defines core characteristics of police culture as entailing: a sense of mission; suspicion; isolation/solidarity; conservatism; machismo; pragmatism; and, racial prejudice. To this effect, police roles are considered to have ambiguous mission and thus consider responsibilities that relate to crime prevention as an integral part of police work. Consequently, in most cases, the police prefer masculine duties and display a willingness to apply force in association with traditional working practices.

According to Coffey and Atkinson (1994), occupational culture, which also involves approaches to police culture, could be effectively considered through the promotion of acceptable and unacceptable facets of a phenomenon aimed at checking unwanted behaviours. Westmarland (2008) notes that the significance of police cultures has been premised on police discretion and its application. To this effect, the application of police discretion has been a daunting task because of the enormity of daily routine duties,
which extend beyond law enforcement to the maintenance of order and the provision of service to the people (Dixon 1997). As a consequence, in the conduct of their routine daily duties, police officers ought to make decisions on what to do such as: who is to be arrested; who is to be stopped; and, who is to be questioned amongst others. Therefore, the classification of those to be arrested and those to be questioned might be controversial thereby considering wrong people as either criminals or innocent. Moreso, it is pertinent to note that, anything that controls behaviour of frontline police officers, such as their own beliefs, class and perceptions in relation to who commit crimes and who doesn’t do not influence the judgment of officers (Chan, 2005; Westmarland, 2008).

Police discretion is so critical to the foundation of routine police functions because the law is never the same in practice and in theory. Therefore, police culture is fundamental to the understanding and the application of police discretion (Banton, 1964; Skolnick, 1996; Van Maanen, 2005; 1978). According to Wilson (1968), the concept of police culture hinges on the fact that police discretion seems outrageous in terms of power differentials as the application of discretion increases as one move down the police chain of command. In the application of discretion, a police officer has to make decisions on whether to arrest or not to arrest. However, the fundamental basis of police discretion is that, the decision so made by a police officer must be free, fair and transparent without any biases. Nevertheless, the worry in applying discretion is where police culture influences the judgment of officers and thereby undermines the objectivity of the decision making process (Westmarland, 2008).

Van Maanen (2005; 1978) argues that police culture has had a strong and equally pervasive approach to a mission of winning the war philosophy of policing. This is
because, the police in most cases, categorises the population into groups such as obedient citizens, troublemakers and/or challengers. Although, there are various methodologies that could be used in making such classifications, the police rather unfortunately, trust themselves to be good judges of moral character and, hence, able to identify who is a criminal (Innes, 2003). Westmarland (2008) states that, the police have made grave mistakes in the application of the mission to win the war philosophy in classifying the population into who is susceptible to crime and who is not, leading to a miscarriage of justice. But Deutcher (1973) argues that, there is general acceptance of the existence of beliefs of the police myth within the framework of police discretion is considered so critical to the phenomenon. In this vein it is stated that, if what we say and what we do are different, as long as the police act impartially and objectively, there should not be any complaints. Westmarland (2008) posits that, it is never surprising for police attitudes and behaviour to be seen as fiction. To this effect, it is said that the myth associated with policing is because, there are in existence some organizational secrets about the police to which the public are not privy. Furthermore, police officers wield a great deal of power, which, if applied, makes life unpleasant to some members of the public. Besides, the police do have the authority to assist and make life easier for some people. On the contrary, there are avenues for police officers to engage in corruption by accepting bribes to cover up or suppress evidence among other things (Westmarland, 2008). According to Westmarland (2008), a blue code persists amongst police officers, and the code is in agreement with perpetual corruption and police brutality, with a planned strategy by the police to cover up such misconduct (Klockars et al., 2004). The reason behind covering police misconduct is the spirit of solidarity and the protection of each other in the line of duty, the philosophy of the police esprit de corps. Indeed, this practice appears to be part of the recruitment and training processes of policing, which
embodies laid down rules as enshrined in service instructions and doctrines (Holdaway, 1996). Simon Holdaway (1983) and Malcolm Young (1991) were insiders - they conducted research on police culture while they were serving police officers. They observed and recorded examples of police culture in all its dark and deviant glory (Westmarland, 2008). The intriguing outcomes were that, Holdaway (1996) was able to record and publish his colleagues’ racist attitudes and actions, while Young (1991) came out with very interesting cultural aspects revealing the fear and loathing of old police officers towards the young (Young, 1991).

According to Young (1991), like the street cop culture, management culture is transferred from one person to the other, and unfortunately, is resistant to change with police reforms as exemplified below:

‘many of those holding senior ranks had been formed and groomed in this cultural style, and were unable to consider alternatives forms. Furthermore, the new ideology had no credence with the troops on the ground. ... new high flying senior officers and their new management styles were used simply to support the belief that top management can never care for the problems of the troops in the field ... for they are merely ships that pass in the night on their journeys to even more glorious ports of call’

(Young, 1993:84)

Conversely, the hands of the street cop are tied by management culture because, the street cop culture sees local response and flexibility as more important than pre-planned and packaged solutions to problems that may or may not ever occur in the day-to-day work of policing (Reuss - Ianni and Ianni, 2005; 1983; Newburn, 2005). The result is that the distinction between the rule makers and the rule breakers has contradictory
goals, as these cultures do not share common goals with differing objectives (Reuss – Ianni and Ianni, 2005; 1983; Newburn, 2005).

It is in the light of the above that the need for efficient, transparent and accountable policing is central to service provision. The degree to which police professionalism could be achieved in Ghana may depend on the nature and context of police culture within the GPS.

But Waddington (1999) criticises misconceptions about police cultures in noting that, the idea of police sub cultures was aimed at the protection of police in group – out group survival through the application of a strategy of “them” and “us” war. Therefore, the rationale is not to entrench racist behaviours within police culture. In addition, canteen culture is part of the police tradition unknown to the public but which fundamentally transfers knowledge that bonds police officers together in the routine duties aimed to ensure that officers cooperate with each other in difficult situations (Waddington, 2005; 1999). Chan (2005; 1997) argues that, there has been too much concentration on canteen culture as a method of understanding police misdemeanours and racist or sexist attitudes. To this effect, it has been argued that, as a concept, police culture has been poorly defined with little analytic value (Chan, 2005; 1996).

Skolnick (2008) argues that the police have a discernible culture that is associated with the context of the job whereby police behaviour is strongly influenced by the underlying value and politics of the community that funds the police organization. Nevertheless, police culture has had a negative influence on police officers themselves (Reiner, 2010; Loftus, 2009). The police are generally suspicious of everything leading to isolation with a high degree of self-protective unity with their own colleagues. Furthermore, police officers appear conservative in politics and morality with a great deal of cynicism.
and pessimism. Therefore, the general life of the police officer includes, among other things, a simplistic and decontextualized understanding of criminality with a degree of prejudice to any challenge to the status quo (Loftus, 2009; Loftus, 2010). The nature and context of the job and the socialization processes through recruitment and training as well as the requirements of the police organization influence the justification for the life and world of the police officer.

However, recent developments within the police organization (through the implementation of a crime prevention strategy with the community policing concept which requires that policing should be part of the community) have dissipated the cultural expression of the police (Fielding 1995; Tilley, 2003). The community policing concept makes limited time available for traditional crime detection strategies and rather focuses on addressing the root causes of crime. Hence, the community policing concept has relegated physical law enforcement to the background and now emphasises on partnerships with the community in policing, effective communication and interpersonal skills. The approach invaluably de-emphasises the masculine features of police culture (Miller, 1999). According to Loftus (2009), the definition of the public as customers of policing services has automatically offered legitimacy to the people to be provided for and also be part of policing. To this effect, police officers attract less animosity from the people but, rather, they face a population that demands for more services from the police (Loader and Mulcahy, 2003). Furthermore, the need to measure police performance through the application of benchmarks has limited the autonomy of police officers clearly changing the face of policing the world over. Foster (2003; 2008) argues that, police officers have no choice but to recognise the changing face of policing, because, police misconduct is carefully monitored by the civil society, media
and even government. Hence, there is political sensitivity to police infractions, which is today a measure of police effectiveness and professionalism. Today, police officers ought to know and accept the fact that they are required by society and government to provide better services to the people (Loftus, 2009; Loftus, 2010). This implies that, police officers should be helpful, courteous and willing to provide services to their customers - the general public. However, the principle of handling members of the public as if they are customers was totally inconsistent with what really constituted proper policing (Loftus, 2009; Loftus, 2010).

From the foregoing argument, it is obvious that a study on police professionalism and the extent to which recruitment and training influences professionalism is paramount in addressing the dynamics of police culture and the application of police discretion in the GPS. To this effect, an examination of police professionalism, emphasising the role of training and development, will be of immense significance.

WHAT IS PROFESSIONALISM?

In considering the meaning of professionalism, it is pertinent for this study to conceptualise the following terminologies: professions and professionalisation. A profession, according to Seigfried (1989), is an organised undertaking characterised by a body of specialised knowledge that is achieved by extensive education; a set of ethical requirements that hold members of the profession committed and accountable to the organization that they serve (Seigfried, 1989). Armstrong (1999) defines a professional occupation as an association or a service like medicine or law that provide its members with exclusive authority to practice their profession. Therefore, a profession is more
concerned with service provision and exists to service clients. The Hayes Committee (1972) defines the context of professional as:

‘work done by the professional is usually distinguished by its reference to a framework of fundamental concepts linked with experience rather than by impromptu reaction to events or the application of laid down procedures. Such a high level of distinctive competence reflects the skilful application of specialized education, training and experience. This should be accompanied by a sense of responsibility and an acceptance of recognised standards.

(Hayes Committee, 1972)

Professionalism and professional organizations are very crucial topics in policing. Hence, Glenn et al. (2003) posit that, it is paramount to examine law enforcement as professionalism as well as consider military professionalism and also highlight ways in which to consider law enforcement as a profession. Millett (1977) identifies six definitive elements of any profession that are worth exploring in this thesis below:

- ‘the occupation is a full-time and stable job, serving continuing societal needs;
- the occupation is regarded as a lifelong calling by the practitioners, who identify themselves personally with their job subculture;
- the occupation is organized to control performance standards and recruitment;
- the occupation requires formal, theoretical education;
- the occupation has a service orientation in which loyalty to standards of competence and loyalty to clients’ needs are paramount.’

(Millett, 1977: 2-3)
The occupation is granted a great deal of collective autonomy by the society it serves, presumably because the practitioners have proven their high ethical standards and trustworthiness (Millett, 1977). Professional status encourages its holders to behave in a more socially responsible manner. At the same time, there is considerable freedom and responsibility granted to individuals who make this sacrifice. They create their own ethical codes; establish their own educational system; recruit their own members; and maintain a unique occupational culture on the assumptions that the services provided by the professionals represent the social good that the monopoly conditions that the professional prefers represents human progress. The competency of the professional ought to be judged by peers, and one's conduct ought to be determined by the norms of the profession. There is absolutely no avenue to abuse society’s faith in competencies by ignoring client’s needs or the regulating judgment of colleagues (Millett, 1977). Nevertheless, the professional’s relative freedom is conditional and ultimately depends on continuous social approval. Without constant self-policing and task success, a profession can narrow its own freedom and destroy public trust as rapidly as it gained its relative autonomy (Millett, 1977). Therefore, the attainment of professional status is conditional upon members maintaining their standards through self-policing.

Huntington (1957) defines professionalism based on the following three unique features namely: corporateness, responsibility, and expertise. By corporateness, members of a profession ought to share a sense of organic unity and consciousness of themselves as a group apart from laymen. This collective sense has its origins in the lengthy discipline and training necessary for professional competence, the common bond of work, and the sharing of a unique social responsibility. At the same time, entrance into this unit is restricted to those with the requisite education and training and is usually permitted only at the lowest level of professional competence (Huntington, 1957). In terms of
responsibility, the professional is considered a practicing expert, working in a social context and performing a service, such as the promotion of health, education, or justice, which is essential to the functioning of society. The client of every profession is society and the clientele. Consequently, financial remuneration cannot be the primary aim of the professional. To this effect, the profession is considered a moral unit with key benchmarks that guide its members in their dealings with clients. These guidelines may be a set of unwritten norms transmitted through the professional educational system (Huntington, 1957). Finally, expertise considers the professional as an expert with specialized knowledge and skill in a significant field of human endeavour. This expertise is acquired through prolonged education and experience, which undoubtedly constitute the basis of objective standards of professional competence (Huntington, 1957).

It is pertinent to recognise that, professionalism is a goal, because no vocation - not even medicine or law - has all the characteristics of the ideal professional type (Huntington, 1957; Millett, 1977). That does not necessarily prevent any member of the profession from doing his or her best to gain and maintain the prescribed standards. It does allow that the occasional member of the profession falters and colleagues of the profession address the loss in public confidence. The work of both Huntington (1957) and Millett (1977) represented discussions in the context of the military, but each emphasizes that their definition of a profession applies to any vocation that meets the specified qualifications. Hence, professional tenets as described could be appropriately adopted for use in this study without loss of understanding. Millett (1977) arguments based on the six features as expatiated distinguished the professional from others in a workforce. On the other hand, Huntington (1957) was concise and brief, but not as comprehensive as Millett (1977).
**Trait Theory of Professions**

According to Siegfried (1989), a profession is organized and characterised by a body of specialized knowledge acquired through extensive education and a well-considered set of internal standards and ethical guidelines that hold members of that profession accountable to one another and the entity they serve. Consequently, professions ought to have formal education systems, rigorous training and minimum entry criteria. Saunders and Wilson (1933) define professionalization in terms of specialized skills and training, the establishment of professional associations and codes of ethics covering a professional practice.

The trait theory expatiates on some salient features of professions that are equally significant for this study. Advocates of the trait theory of professions argue that, there is a distinguishing feature that separates a profession from an occupation, namely classification of professional status demonstrates social and academic prestige (Hughes, 1965; Vollmer and Mills, 1966; Hall, 1968; Larson, 1977; Soder, 1990; Hodson and Sullivan, 1995). Winter (1958) argues that, the trait theory hinges on the sociology of professions and has three fundamental assumptions that are crucial in professionalization:

- *traits are steady and stable within reputable professions;*
- *traits are constantly proven through professions; and*
- *there are distinct dichotomies in strength and aggregates of traits that each profession exhibits.*

*(Winter, 1988)*
The trait theory examines the level and strength of every occupation and defines the framework for attaining professionalization. Among other things, the trait theory identifies common features of professions such as: systematic theory; authority; credentials; induction; code of ethics; compensation; continued professional development; community sanction; and, culture. To expatiate on these features, the first trait - systematic theory - defines the importance of a set of abstract concepts describing the focus of a professional service as crucial. According to Houle (1983), the significance of trait in professionalization ought to demonstrate that:

‘formal procedures are established to transmit the essential body of knowledge and techniques of the vocation to all recognised practitioners before they enter and throughout their careers. In recent times, placements of specialized courses of study in universities have become the hallmark of many professions.

(Houle, 1983: 51-52)

The second trait - authority - considers the extent to which practitioners collectively influence professionals contribution over policy-making and practice. Besides, the level of individual autonomy demonstrated by practitioners might have a positive correlation with the degree of authority held by field practitioners (Hughes, 1965; Vollmer and Mills, 1966; Hall, 1968; Larson, 1977; Soder, 1990; Hodson and Sullivan, 1995). Trait three defines credentials, which relate to the acquisition of academic and professional recognition that satisfies laid down professional and governmental standards (Houle, 1983; Soder, 1990). Credentials ought to be crucial in professions aimed at protecting the clientele to reassure the public that practitioners have obtained the level of competency required for the service (National Centre for Education Statistics, 1997).
Induction which is considered as trait four concerns the processes of orientating new professionals through mentoring, supervision and face to face guidance (Hughes, 1965; Vollmer and Mills, 1966; Hall, 1968; Snizek, 1972; Soder, 1990). Levine (1988) posits that:

‘to become a self-governing profession, an occupation ought to have a structured induction experience conducted under the supervision of experienced practitioners who can and are able to attest to the competence of new officers to the profession’

(Levine, 1988:2)

Code of ethics within the framework of trait five, refers to the public statement in terms of the mission of the profession. This concerns the desire to uphold the ideals and standards set forth by the profession for practitioners. The code of conduct ought to be enforceable through monitoring and adherence to laid-down procedures (Hughes, 1965; Vollmer and Mills, 1966). The trait of compensation considers a range of existing salary and benefits that keeps professionals in lucrative employment. The principle is that, considering the competency required for a professional job, it is pertinent to award good remuneration in order to attract and maintain professionals (Hodson and Sullivan, 1995). Trait seven defines, continued professional development as one of the pillars of the professionalization process. Accessibility to, and participation in, learning programmes aimed at enhancing knowledge and transfer of best practices and lessons learnt to practitioners are prerequisites to the success of every professional organization. According to Houle (1983), professionals ought to acquire new skills aimed at personal growth and best practices through continuous professional development. Nevertheless, community sanction which is considered as trait eight enjoins professionals to achieve
legitimacy and public acceptance for service delivery. This could be achieved through accreditation of programmes and the control of procedures and standards (Houle, 1983). Finally, trait nine on culture defines the nature and context of the community within the profession where professionals promote and institutionalise shared vision. To this end, networking has been noted to be crucial in the professionalization process whereby practitioners work in harmony towards controls, knowledge and theory based on acceptable best practices (Houle, 1983; Wilensky, 1984; Tseng, 1992). Wilensky (1984) has argued that the crave for professionalization in organizations continues to grow tremendously in recent times. Hence, many organizations fight continuously to achieve professionalism. However, only a handful of organizations can fulfil the basic requirements needed to get to the status of professionalization (Wilensky, 1984).

**Debates on Professionalism**

From the foregoing, it is pertinent for an organization to pursue excellence in service delivery to clients in a bid to achieve professionalism. Maister (1997:6) has defined professionalism to imply the pursuit of excellence and competency between the client, the firm and oneself. To this effect, for competency to be achieved, the need for attaining improved quality of work, the provision of the appropriate services to clients, respect for laid-down standards for quality service delivery and best practices are non-negotiable. Nonetheless, professionalism in the workplace concerns the capability employees to appropriately perform their functions in accordance with accepted norms and standards (Lassey, 1998). This particularly concerns employees having the required competence, namely: the skills; the capacity; the ethical discipline; and, the adherence to code(s) of conduct that ought to be applied in doing one’s work. Therefore, in principle, professionalism is about employees’ knowledge of a profession and their use
of such capability appropriately on the job, while adhering to defined rules and regulations, and acceptable ethical code of conduct and behaviour (Eraut, 1994; Armstrong, 1999). These prerequisites appear to be in tune with the foregoing discussion of professionals, professionalization and the trait theory of professions. According to Glenn et al., (2003) the term professionalism is more complex and confusing than it was thought to be. Besides, it has been noted that the definition encompasses more than just competency and skills, and therefore should be looked at carefully. It is pertinent to emphasise that, the concept of professionalism is not easy to define. This is because what constitutes professionalism differs from one organization to another. What constitutes professionalism in teaching might be different from what constitutes professionalism in the police. Armstrong (1999) has defined professionalism as the practice of specific skills based upon a defined body of knowledge in accordance with recognized standards of behaviour. Eraut (1994) argues that professionalism may be considered as an ideology and this ideology encompasses strict application of values, trustworthiness, integrity, autonomy and standards when providing services. In this regard, professionalism is concerned with: 'providing acceptable service to society through doing what is required and desired by clients. To this effect, the strict application of the ethics and code of conduct of one’s profession is paramount. The elements of professionalism in an organization therefore relates to existence and knowledge of a defined body of knowledge of the organization; training and continued education; commitment to service; proficiency in the profession's procedures, techniques and equipment amongst others’ (Eraut, 1994:27).

Fundamentally, professionalism cannot be defined without emphasizing on values and ethical standards in organizations (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1985). As Kast and Rosenzweig (1985) have argued, the concept of professionalism in any discipline should
be seen as a continuum, a trend towards greater compliance with the elements of safeguarding enhanced services to clients. Moreso, Neal and Morgan (2000) argue that professionalism is the process of guaranteeing and improving services. In this vein occupations struggle to achieve professionalization and continue to consolidate this status quo through improving services. According to Kast and Rosenzweig (1985), there is a close relationship between ethical behaviour, social responsiveness and the concept of professionalism. Smith and Aamoldt (2008) argue that there is a significant correlation between education and most measures of performance. According to Freidson (2001), knowledge and skills are the foundation of professionalism. Therefore, two general ideas fundamental to professionalism was based on the belief that certain jobs were not so specialized to be inaccessible to those who did not have the required training and experience and further complemented by the conviction that it could neither be harmonized and restructured nor grossed over. According to the United Nations (UN) Competency Development Report (2010), the definition of professionalism entails a whole array of prerequisites. The Report describes professionalism in the following terms: demonstrate professional competence and mastery of subject matter; show pride in the work and achievements; conscientious and efficient in meeting commitments, observing deadlines and achieving results; motivated by professional rather than personal concern; show persistence when faced with difficult problems or challenges; and remain calm is stressful situations.

In the above context, the notion of competency appears to have been a known concept in business and human resource management practice in many organizations. The word competency describes behaviours that are critical in attaining the objectives of an organization. Even so, competency ought to be measurable and compendiums of competencies constitute the method of describing the way and manner people conduct
their duties within varying contexts. Therefore, tasks could be considered in the context of main competencies. Nonetheless, competencies could be the yardstick for assessment, appraisals, training needs and analysis, and selection of employees. To this effect, competencies have been defined as behavioural traits, technical knowledge and skills that constitute the success criteria of a task (UN Competency Development, 2010). In consequence, the UN has identified thirty-one (31) core competencies that guide and meet specific demands and requirements of the work, tasks and its mandates:

‘analytical competencies; interpersonal competencies viz: fostering team work; respect for diversity; self knowledge – Striving to achieve excellence, showing persistence in pursuing goals: objectivity and critical evaluation of strength and weaknesses; management/supervisory/leadership skills including strategic planning, corporate sensitivity, human resource planning’.

(UN Competency Development, 2010)

Basically, competencies like professionalism are not the same in every organization because the competency required in one organization would differ from the competency requirement in a different organization. Therefore, what constitutes core competencies in the UN and even within its agencies would differ and more greatly so from what constitutes core competencies in a state organisation. In this vein, the requirements for core competencies in a Security and Law Enforcement Agency (SLEA) might equally vary. However, the need to have the required behavioural traits together with the technical knowhow and the skills to do a particular job is fundamental in every organization. Consequently, police organizations the world over may require a list of competencies in order to perform effectively and efficiently. Lassey (1998) has argued that, being competent implies having the requisite skills, knowledge, ability and
confidence to perform to an acceptable standard. However, competency is meaningless until it is connected to a task or a profession, as people competency ought to be linked to a job:

‘In practice, we say employees are competent when we consider them as safe; able and trustworthy, thus people who can be relied upon to work without supervision ... the competent person does not only perform to acceptable standards but consistently performs satisfactorily; reacts to new and changing paradigms; and manages time and acts responsibly within the defined tasks’

(Lassey, 1998: 18)

POLICE PROFESSIONALISM

According to Travis and Stone (2011), police command and control structures have been concerned with the new philosophy of stricter accountability for effectiveness in the conduct of police operations, with a view to attaining legitimacy and encouraging incessant innovations. Consequently, four fundamental elements of police professionalism are discussed, particularly: accountability; legitimacy; innovation and coherence have been identified as pertinent. The application of these fundamental elements of police professionalism has been the same with every police unit within a country and even amongst police organizations the world over (Travis and Stone, 2011). This policing approach has become a prerequisite because professionalism is concerned with total dedication and commitment to higher standards, esteemed values and constant self-improvement in the provision of service to humanity.

The dilemma is that professionalism extends beyond competency and skills and ought to be critically examined as emphasised by Glenn et al. (2003). In this vein, what might be
considered police professionalism today may differ from the notion of police professionalism in the 1950s. According to Gariba (2005), professionalism as it relates to the police entails the internalisation and recognition of the identifying features of the occupation. These consist of having a code of ethics, a defined body of knowledge and continued education in the field, established principles for entry into the profession as well as devotion to service. At the same time, being skilled in the use of policing procedures and being conversant with the equipment needed to perform effectively, the fundamental issue in professionalism is that the professional officer has some level of autonomy in decision-making. This level of autonomy is described as ‘police discretion’. Black’s Law Dictionary defines ‘Police Discretion' as: ‘a power or right conferred upon Police Officers by law of acting officially in certain circumstances, according to the dictates of their own judgement and conscience, uncontrolled by the judgement or conscience of others’ (Black, 1991: 323).

Nevertheless, in democracies, police performance could be improved if a code of ethics for police officers is in existence. The code of ethics should define the commitment of the police officers to the rule of law regardless of their rank or position. In this regard, junior officers should not just obey orders given by superior officers if such orders violate the law. Das (1995) suggests very useful democratic values and norms for police officers in the performance of their duties as follows: ‘... in policing democracies, the values and norms of the police had to include: the rule of law; accountability to the public; transparency of decision making; popular participation in policing; minimum use of force; creating an organisation that facilitates learning of civil and human rights; and internal democracy in the organisation’ (Das and Marenin, 2000:25).

Potts (1982) argues that police professionalism has been an elusive pursuit of leading police administrators. The ambiguity of police professionalism is the result of doubt in
the concept itself. In the first place, there is no clarity in the general usage of the term professional. Secondly, the original inaccuracies in the definition have been even more confusing following the adaptation of the term for police application. Poole and Regoli (1979; 1980) corroborate the controversy regarding the definitions of professionalism whereas Potts (1982) argues that the police themselves have a narrow view of what really constitutes professionalism. Poole and Regoli (1980) indicate that role conflict may be reduced through the professionalization of the police; however, the degree of professionalism is contingent upon the size of the police unit. It is pertinent to note that improved police training is critical to attaining police professionalism. However, the provision of service to humanity involves serving the interest of the public through the application of: use of force; search and seizure; arrest procedures; community policing; and diversity awareness (Glenn et al., 2003).

Professionalism incorporates the tenets of responsibility and expertise as part of the mechanism that guides the development and execution of training. But for the Police to perform efficiently in society, Johnston (2006) argues that, although the functions of the police is to enhance public reassurance, it is also anticipated that recruiting a more diverse force in order to make the police truly representative of the varied communities they serve may be crucial. It is pertinent for this study to acknowledge the work of David Alan Sklansky in a paper submitted following the Executive Session on Policing and Public Safety at the Harvard University Kennedy School of Government Programme on Criminal Justice Policy and Management on police professionalism, quoted below:

‘police professionalism is fundamentally about tactics and programmes like random patrol, central dispatch and rapid response…. and also more about governing the
mindset behind the selection and implementation of policies, thus a mindset that makes the police a rational, efficient, scientifically organized, technologically intricate bureaucracy operating independently of local social conflict and proving objective and aggressive law enforcement’.

(Sklansky, D.A. 2011:2)

According to Glenn et al. (2003), it would appear obvious at first instance that policing has a legitimate claim to professional status. Regarding corporateness, police officers are bonded by a cooperative sense of union based on shared expectations and responsibilities. The responsibility for self-policing has always been and must always be an integral part of senior police officers’ rules of engagement. Entrusted with greater authority, they have both a professional and a bureaucratic dictate to enforce standards. But a profession cannot surrender the responsibility for internal policing solely to its members in the higher ranks. A police officer must be seriously concerned about the provision of service to all, including adherence to a high degree of competency by his colleague officers. Failure to address excesses in other members of his vocation is a serious infraction of his duties (Huntington, 1957; Millett, 1977; Glenn et al., 2003). Depending on the severity of the misconduct, he may be, and should be, liable to punishment and banishment from his force. Police officers also have a broad responsibility to society, their clientele. They perform a service that is essential to the functioning of society. Remuneration is of course important, and nobody expects a professional not to receive fair compensation for his services. Financial remuneration, however, should no more be the primary motivation for assuming the status of a police officer than it is for a doctor practicing medicine (Glenn et al., 2003).
Police officers receive specialized training and are expected to maintain a combination of physical, communications, and diplomatic skills unique to their vocation. While legislators make laws, judges and lawyers interpret the law and deal with breaches of the law. Hence, police are considered as the legitimate employees who take full time responsibility to enforce the law as well as interrupt the processes that cause such breaches (Glenn et al., 2003). They do so with training that begins at the police academy and continues throughout their careers. That training delineates professional standards that an officer must follow, including those pertaining to restraint when using force, adherence to the spirit and letter of the law, and control in exercising authority inherent in the status as a police officer (Glenn et al., 2003). While the above demonstrates that police work incorporates elements of corporateness, responsibility, and expertise, there are reasonable arguments against conferring professional status on the police (Huntington, 1957). However, it has been noted that personnel who have to kill in pursuit of their responsibilities cannot be professionals, because they do not serve the best interests of all in the society that they are to serve (Matthews, 1994). It is common knowledge that police must sometimes use deadly force in performing their duties, which inevitably undermines the principles of professions (Matthews, 1994). Nevertheless, just as the military ultimately seeks to maintain peace and stability and must sometimes use lethal force, so do the police desire to maintain a safe environment free of crime for the general public.

In spite of the complexity associated with police duties, a greater number of people are protected through the occasional unfortunate death of some people, and this certainly does not prevent the police officer from claiming professional status as long as the application of force remains within the constraints of acceptable standards (Glenn et al., 2003). Matthews (1994) argues that police officers are incorporated within infinite
government officialdom and have no legitimate autonomy like that enjoyed by the clientele from traditional professions such as the clergy, doctors, or lawyers. Whatever the case may be, the debate would be convincing if professional status were only granted to those perfectly attaining the condition of self-regulation (Matthews, 1994). Government mandates, however, influence many aspects of medicine, law and several other modern professions. To this effect, they are accountable to regulation and the rule of law. The external bureaucratic oversight should not impede attainment of professional standing by the police. Another question concerns self-perception, which is highly critical to professionalism. No vocation could be considered professional if its members do not accept collective responsibility to maintain the profession's specialized expertise, to limit membership to those who have acquired the requisite skills and competencies and who adhere to established standards and to uphold the primary motivation of serving society. It is therefore pertinent to ask whether police officers themselves view their work as a profession (Glenn et al., 2003). While discussing police professionalism, it is important to examine the scope of oversight and accountability of police organisations. This is discussed in the following paragraphs.

OVERSIGHT AND ACCOUNTABILITY OF POLICE ORGANISATIONS

According to Day and Klein (1997), the definition of accountability cuts across a plethora of terminologies such as: answerability, responsiveness, openness, efficient estate management and respect of external laws. Reiner (2010) posits that, police accountability concerns the application and control of policing policies within the framework of priorities, resources allocation and operational strategies. Organizational
accountability implies the constitutional and institutional arrangements for monitoring policing policies, herein considered as police governance (Lustgarten, 1986). The term police governance denotes the constitutional and institutional arrangements for determining and directing the policies of the police (Lustgarten, 1986; Walker, 2000). To this effect, there might be conviction in the significance of state-organised policing arrangements to which policing continues to be centred on the specialist state institution assigned with the duty of law enforcement and the maintenance of public order in society (Jones, 2008). Jones (2008) has argued that any viable police accountability mechanism should consider two key parameters: the accountability of individual police officers in the conduct of their daily tasks; and, the police organisation’s own policies regarding resource allocation, policing strategies and expectations (Reiner, 1995; Reiner, 2010).

A report of the 1999 Independent Commission on Policing for Northern Ireland revealed that police accountability works better where there is transparency. The police cannot be held accountable where there is no information on the way and manner the police should conduct themselves. To this effect, the public ought to have the chance to assess police conduct and to examine alleged police misconduct. Similarly, the Police ought not to be above the law by protecting the organisation and its officers when they have engaged in misconduct. Jones (2008) argues that there is a very special correlation between policing and democratic institutions. Hence, democratic tenets provide the police with extensive power in order to maintain order and protect fundamental liberties. Similarly, the extensive powers granted to the police equally create avenues for abuse of individual and collective rights. Therefore, the manner in which society regulates the organization and powers of the police is fundamental to the type of political and social order being implemented (Jones, 2008). Police organizations are
mostly publicly funded and as such have a great deal of public resources given for policing. It is therefore pertinent for the police to account to the taxpayer for the huge resources being allocated for policing. Police accountability in this respect is to ensure effective and efficient policing services (Jones, 2008). In order to ensure value for money, there is the need for the police to be held accountable for the proper use of public funds provided to the institution to perform policing functions efficiently and efficiently. Although, it is frequently argued that the management of crime and disorder is local in nature, and that police effectiveness in handling such social disorders hinges on public cooperation, the police organization ought to be seen as legitimate and trustworthy to attract the required public cooperation. To this effect, the issue of effective governance and accountability mechanisms is pivotal in achieving police legitimacy (Jones, 2008). Smith (2005) argues that the existence of an effective police complaints system is crucial to the success of accountable and democratic institutions. Ensuring organisational accountability rests on the use of both statute and case law in guiding the mechanism of police governance (Jones, 2008). The employment of civil law as a solution to police misconduct has been a suitable approach in many jurisdictions (Dixon and Smith 1998; Smith, 2005). There is increased popularity in the use of civil action as a panacea to police complaints systems for redress in cases of police infractions. Civil actions against the police could be founded on claims such as: abuse of police power; false imprisonment; negligence; malicious prosecution and breaches of legal codes among others. Similarly, police officers could also initiate legal action against the police organisation within which they serve for breaches of employment laws and discrimination among others (Jones, 2008). However, it is argued that over dependence on external controls of policing may be counterproductive where they create resistance within the police organisation, thereby weakening internal
monitoring systems (Stenning, 1995). External control mechanisms can only work if they complement a well-organised internal control mechanism (Jones, 2008).

**EDUCATION, TRAINING AND RECRUITMENT**

Police legitimacy and the ability to regulate the police has been continuously perceived as one of the greatest demanding aspects of statecraft, as reflected in the Roman writer Juvenal’s famous question ‘*quis custodiet ipsos custodes?’* - ‘who guards the guards?’ (Reiner 2002: 21). According to Millie and Das (2008), in democratic settings, there is a dichotomy between crime control and due process on one hand and the commitment to accomplishing policing tasks with strict emphasis on performing such duties professionally on the other. Education and training of police officers in skills relating to police practice, particularly the defined body of knowledge of the police profession, has been fundamental in the quest to attain professionalism in police organizations (Millie and Das, 2008). Hence, educating the police generally should contribute significantly to the way and manner in which police officers efficiently execute policing tasks in their daily discourse.

Consequently, in undertaking policing tasks in democratic settings, it is paramount to make a distinction between the approaches of due process and crime control (Sanders and Young, 2008). Conversely, within the crime control model, it is important to collect sufficient evidence in order to be able to achieve a conviction. Whereas, within the framework of due process, the police ought to recognise the importance of respect for human rights and demonstrate a total commitment to the protection of fundamental human rights (Millie and Das, 2008). However, Skolnick (1966) has argued that the
dominance of the crime control or the due process model may be influenced by the nature and context of society. Nevertheless, higher levels of crime may have an impact on due process but in situations where too much emphasis is placed on due process, crime control efforts may be eroded. More significant has been the need to accomplish tasks appropriately vis-à-vis undertaking those tasks effectively and proficiently (Millie and Das, 2008). In democracies, the police are accountable to the people and hence the issue of police legitimacy with respect to the powers granted to the police and how those powers are utilised is of prime importance to the people (Sanders and Young, 2008). In order to attain police professionalism through police accountability, the rule of law and respect for fundamental human rights as well as the fundamental issues of recruitment, education and training cannot be overlooked in any police organization (Millie and Das, 2008).

It is important to emphasise that, due process is basically associated with the notion of rule of law, which has been innately branded by the tenets of neutrality, equality and universality (Millie and Das, 2008). Carothers (1998) argues that “the concept of rule of law is suddenly everywhere to the effect that, a venerable part of the western political philosophy enjoyed a new run as a rising imperative of the era of globalization”. Undoubtedly, rule of law as a concept has generated a great degree of international political significance nowadays. Unfortunately, it is erroneously perceived that advanced democratic countries are more likely to observe rule of law principles and strict compliance with the application of human rights standards in criminal justice (Sanders and Young, 2008). At the same time, these same advanced democratic countries are considered better placed to demonstrate the best approaches to the rule law and due process (Sanders and Young, 2008). However, this is not the case, as the war against terrorism rather emphasises the crime control model of policing whereby
suspects could be held without any charge in the USA and UK, for example (Millie and Das, 2008). In this regard, the United Nations Secretary General made the following statement during the 2000 Millennium Summit:

‘I strongly believe that every nation that proclaims the rule of law at home must respect it abroad and that every nation that insists on it abroad must enforce it at home. Indeed, the Millennium Declaration reaffirmed the commitment of all nations to the rule of law as the all-important framework for advancing human security and prosperity’

(UN Report of the Secretary-General 2005:35)

It is pertinent to recognise that, the nature and context of police education and training is fundamental to understanding the rule of law in contemporary policing as diversity of police systems and cultures abound (Millie and Das, 2008). Mawby (2003) in his work on policing systems postulates that, although the traditional European policing model has been centralized as discussed in the Literature review Chapter, there has not been a uniform system of policing across continental Europe.

A study conducted by Millie and Das (2008) on rule of law and police training in four countries namely: Germany, Japan, Switzerland and France, established the importance of training to police professionalism. The conclusions of the study revealed that, the police training curriculum in all four countries had elements of police training that emphasised on the rule of law and its application. Nevertheless, there are marked differences in the nature and context of delivery of training on rule of law and its application. Similarly, it was observed that, the police in the selected countries are professionally trained, while there are also similarities in training curricula and the
educational requirements amongst others (Millie and Das, 2008). Nevertheless, the study in the four countries established the existence of enhanced police professionalism through improvements in police training, which is central to this study.

According to Millie and Das (2008), the selection process and criteria for prospective applicants to join the police, is critical to having officers who will appreciate the importance of the rule of law in attaining police professionalism. Hence, in the initial selection of applicants, it is pertinent for police officers to have a greater appreciation of the rule of law principles in order to be taken into the police. However, it is recognised that, requirements for the selection of applicants into the police vary from country to country. To this effect, the specific educational requirements for the recruitment of police recruits, including selection examinations and processes to be undertaken, are not the same in the countries. However, the extent to which the recruitment systems in the countries have succeeded in attracting the desired applicants is unclear (Millie and Das, 2008).

Recruitment activities form part of a process aimed at attracting applicants with required qualifications and keeping them interested in the organization so that they will accept a job offer when it is ultimately extended. Nowadays, demands of globalization and the quest for providing efficient and effective services to clients have become fundamental to the success of organizations. To this effect, skills and capacities have thus become critical in recruiting the right people in every organization if professionalism and competitiveness are to be attained (Kiessling and Harvey, 2005).

Training is the systematic modification of behaviour through learning undertaken by education, instruction, development and planned experiences (Armstrong, 1999). The Manpower Services Commission (1999) defines training as:
‘a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behaviour through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to develop the ability of the individual and to satisfy the current and future manpower needs of the organization’.

(Manpower Services Commission, 1999)

The fundamental objective of embarking on training is to assist organizations attain established goals by empowering the human resource base or the workforce. This implies that, it is absolutely important for organisations to invest in their staff to ensure that they perform better and also enhance their talents (Armstrong, 1999). Primarily, the aim of every training programme should be to develop the skills of employees so as to improve productivity. Further, training assists employees to develop in order to meet the human resource requirements of the organization (Armstrong, 1999).

It is pertinent for organisations to have training policies and standards. The existence of such policies emphasise the degree of importance an organization places on training and capacity building. To this effect, the need for systematic training aimed at meeting set objectives cannot be overemphasised (Armstrong, 1999). The need for systematic training according to the needs of the organization is critical. Hence, Armstrong (1999) argues that, there are processes through which training could be undertaken in organizations. These are:

- ‘the existence of a defined Training Needs Analysis (TNA) is inherently pertinent
- The form of training that is required to satisfy fulfil the definition of the TNA
The engagement of trained and competent trainers to design and undertake the training.

The need to monitor and evaluate training to ensure that targets are achieved’

(Armstrong, 1999:511)

The above-listed training standards provide for a systematic approach to the planning and conduct of training in any organization, although training by itself is a difficult undertaking.

Training cannot be discussed without understanding what constitutes education. Funk and Wagnalls (1982) describe education as systematic development and cultivation of natural powers by inculcating example into institutional learning. On the other hand, training has been defined as the systematic practical instruction and drill relating to vocational and practical practice. To this end, education is concerned with the philosophy of teaching the subject matter of policing based on the principles of academic discipline. Training, however, is the practical hands on vocational aspect of policing conducted through instructions. Consequently, it is important for police officers to undergo and complete a training programme where instructions on the nature and context of police work are given. In most police organizations, training is delivered in two phases. First, basic police training is typically conducted in a police academy or college. Secondly, probationary or field training is conducted on the job during performance of the day-to-day police functions on the beat as well as in a police stations or departments (Funk and Wagnalls, 1982).

The impact of recruitment and training practices on police professionalism is a fundamental research question in this study. The increasing demand for police
professionalism implies that police officers must have the requisite knowledge through education and training. As a vocation, policing requires officers to have a solid educational background in order to develop the required complex skills relevant for police operations. According to Walker and Katz (2002), conventional training is considered as the root of early reform movements. Consequently, policing exhibits the key characteristics of professionalism viz: specialized body of knowledge and skills; client orientation and service to humanity; job discretion and ethics among others (Crank et al., 1993; Capps, 1998). The need to attain high educational qualifications prior to entry into the police organization commenced with debates to professionalise the police in the early 1920s (Carter et al., 1989). The emphasis on higher education for prospective officers seeking entry into the police was based on the notion that policing is a profession that requires multifaceted skills and knowledge in order to function properly (Schneider, 2009). Carter et al. (1989) argue that there is a positive correlation between higher education and performance, as an occupational necessity. Therefore, police professionalism could be achieved through better educated, highly trained and efficient police officers. However, Hinkle (1991: 105) argues to the contrary as quoted below: ‘effective street police officers learn police work on the job and not in the classroom’. This quotation reinforces the arguments that a higher education background is not a necessity for policing. According to Hinkle's argument, emphasis on higher education could cut off persons who could become effective and efficient police officers. Pate and Hamilton (1991: 16) argue that police ought to recruit higher education graduates in order to succeed and to attract intelligent and able-bodied people into the organization.

The importance of having efficient and effective procedures for recruitment and selection can hardly be exaggerated in any organisation. One of the first steps in
planning for the recruitment of employees into an organisation is to establish adequate policies and procedures. A recruitment policy represents the organizational code of conduct in this area of activity. If organizations are able to find and employ staff members who consistently fulfil their roles and are also capable of taking on increased responsibilities, they are better placed to deal with opportunities and threats than those who are always struggling to build and maintain their workforce (Cole, 2002). Therefore, the need for a police organization to critically consider the methodology of recruiting, selecting and training police officers is fundamental to attaining police professionalism. Hence, recruitment has become an important component of police accountability aimed at attracting the best police officers (Schneider, 2009).

It has been argued that recruitment is not always easy when particular skills are required to fill certain jobs (Robbins and De Cenzo, 1995; Robbins and Coulter, 1999). Whether potential employees will respond to the recruiting efforts depends on the attitudes and perceptions they have developed towards those tasks and the organization on the basis of their past social and working experiences. Conversely, training is extremely important for new or existing employees. The most important determinants of training are the task to be accomplished and the employee’s abilities and attitudes. Nevertheless, if employees have the work ethic and the skills needed to do the job, training may not be very important. More often, it is unlikely that task demands are stable. Technology and market conditions as well as changes in jobs require more training of employees to meet new standards. Governments are also becoming a vital influence on training for public policy purposes (Ivancevich, 1998). Whatever the case may be, a systematic approach to recruitment, training and development, followed by a logical sequence of activities covering the establishment of a policy, assessment of recruitment and training
requirements as well as evaluation and feedback are crucial in organizations (Cole, 2002).

CONCLUSION

The quality of an organization’s management determines the quality of the organization itself. It is argued that the dichotomy in an organization’s effectiveness and efficiency might be influenced by the decisions and actions of its leadership. Good leaders scramble for change, take up opportunities, review poor performance and direct their organizations to fulfil and achieve tasks. It is pertinent for management to have the capability to overcome challenges that affect the achievement of an organization’s success. Nevertheless management has the option of changing and influencing culture and the environment, thereby influencing performance (Robins and Coulter, 1999). Consequently, it is equally important for police leadership to influence police effectiveness and efficiency through the development of pragmatic recruitment and training policies and procedures.

In modern times and particularly in democratic settings, there are various reforms occurring within the police that call for police legitimacy and accountability (Jones, 2008). Besides, crimes transcend national boundaries and has become more organised, hence the increasing trend of international collaboration in response to the globalization of crime and law enforcement. Consequently, rule of law and democratic policing principles have become central to policing in almost every country (Millie and Das, 2008). It is therefore pertinent for Police Organizations the world over to recognise the ever-increasing demand for the rule of law and for accountable policing. Similarly, the
police organizational structure and the scope of police training ought to be conscious of these realisms regarding the rule of law and crime control.

According to Dobby et al., (2004) effective leadership is undoubtedly a central part of performance management through to police reform initiatives. Therefore, effective leadership is paramount in enhancing police performance based on the professionalism of police officers and the development of police leadership (Savage 2007a). According to Vick (2004:4) ‘the overarching criticism of police leadership is about its perceived failure to lead and adapt to change. To this effect, police leaders have been less radical than politicians and academics in general innovations. Therefore, police conservatism is matched by police conformity. Besides, the principal disapproval of the lackadaisical nature of the police leadership style has been premised on police management that is considered to be critically prescriptive and inappropriately influenced by the culture of the police organization (Gibson and Villiers (2007). Consequently, police professionalism, which aims at improved capacities through training, standards of identifying and recruiting the best officers with required educational qualifications and application of suitable training principles, cannot be overemphasized. This is the basis for examining police professionalism using recruitment and training practices in Ghana.

This Chapter has analysed the various academic debates in respect of the fundamental basis of the research encapsulating police professionalism viz: organizational and police cultures; education and training including police accountability in Ghana. A discussion of the methodology of the research, with a focus on the adopted research method, forms the subject matter of the next Chapter.
CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The methodology for this research is based on a multi-strategy approach otherwise known as methodological triangulation. This involves the application of different investigative methods to one research object. Within the multi-strategy approach is the use of a combination of qualitative and quantitative paradigms in the investigation of the research topic. This chapter therefore discusses the methodologies, particularly the approaches adopted in this work through definitions and analysis of relevant research methodologies, the selected approach and, an assessment of its strength and weaknesses. Furthermore, the research subjects, questionnaires and interview approaches, ethical considerations, sampling techniques and data collection methods are also discussed. The research explores police professionalism in the context of recruitment and training through oversight, democratic control and accountability mechanisms within the socio-political dynamics of Ghana. Undoubtedly, little is known about police professionalism in Ghana, and even within the police service itself (CHRI, 2007). Therefore, the research is based on the foundation that sound comprehension of phenomena originates from inductive analyses of open-ended, detailed and descriptive data, collected through direct contact with respondents (Patton, 1990) in Ghana.

EPISTEMOLOGICAL DEBATES

According to Ackroyd and Fleetwood (2000), epistemological debate is premised on what constitutes valid knowledge and how to obtain such valid knowledge.
Consequently, epistemology concerns itself with questions about what constitutes acceptable knowledge. But the argument concerns whether the social world needs to be investigated in accordance with the philosophy, principles and procedures pertaining to the natural sciences. Positivism and phenomenology are two important epistemological positions that would be expatiated. At one end of the epistemological debate, positivism advocates the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality. Positivists advocate that social research in the context of natural science doctrines employs the same methods as those used by natural scientists (Ackroyd and Fleetwood, 2000). Bryman (2004) argues that the positive assumptions grasp that the principles of deductivism. The principle stresses that the rationale of theory is to generate hypotheses that could be tested and allow explanations of the laws to be assessed. Besides, the principles of deductivism state that knowledge is derived through the gathering of facts, the foundation of laws:

‘.. positivism involves elements of both deductive and inductive reasoning. There is a clear difference between theory and research where the aim of research is to examine theories and provide materials for the development of laws. But the relationship between theory and research has the tendency of collecting observations in a way not influenced by pre-existing theories’.

(Bryman, 2004:12)

Quantitative Research

Quantitative research maybe considered as a research strategy that emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data. Quantitative research therefore involves: a deductive approach to the connection between theory and research,
emphasising the testing of theories; the incorporation of doctrines of natural sciences; and, the use of knowledge of social reality as well as external objectivity (Bryman, 2004). Jupp (1989) argues that quantitative research is premised on the notion that inquiries based on individual features or on the entire society have to be properly clarified. This is dependent on the notion that the basic features ought to be classified objectively in the context of numerical usage. Consequently, emphasis on measurement because of in-depth connections with statistical analyses and the application of statistical analysis should help in measuring different variables. Bell (1997) argues that quantitative research gathers facts and compares the relationship between facts specifically between a given fact and another. Maxfield and Babbie (2001) indicate that quantification often: makes observations more complete; makes it easier to aggregate and summarize data; and, creates avenues for statistical analyses from simple averages to complex formulas as well as mathematical models. In the same vein, Merton (1962; 1967) posits that one of the most important aspects of quantitative research is the transformation of collected information into data.

In a bid to operationalize the quantitative approach to this study, the researcher analysed the data gathered within the identified thematic areas of research (See Appendix A) through the use of the SPSS software, and represented the results of the analyses in the form of tables, bars, graphs, pie charts. The results of the quantitative analysis are incorporated into Chapter Six of the thesis in support of the outcomes.

**Qualitative Research**

Schutz (1962) describes qualitative research in the following words:
‘...Social Scientists and hence social reality has a specific meaning and relevance structure for the beings living, acting, and thinking within it. ... They have pre-selected and pre-interpreted this world which they experience as the reality of their daily lives. The thought objects constructed by the Social Scientist in order to grasp this social reality have to be founded upon the thought objects constructed by the common-sense thinking of men (and women!), living their daily life within the social world’.

(Schutz, 1962:59)

Maxfield and Babbie (2001:23) have argued that qualitative data might carry a greater richness of meaning than quantified data. This richness of meaning is partly a function of ambiguity. However, Denzin and Lincoln (2003) argue that there are complexities associated with qualitative data. These include: the difficulty associated with data analysis; the acceptance of the uncertainty of having clear outlines; and, the perception that the qualitative approach attracts less credibility from non-researchers, which undermines its legitimacy.

In light of the above debate, it is instructive to note that both positivism and phenomenology are difficult research approaches that have significant repercussions for the method used in the conduct of any investigation (Bryman, 2004; Schwartz and Jacobs, 1979).

**Multi-Strategy Research**

Multi-Strategy research also known as methodological triangulation involves the use of different investigative methods in relation to one research object. This approach usually involves the application of a combination of qualitative and quantitative strategies in the investigation of a phenomenon (Bryman, 2004). Sadly, however, it is not easy
combining research methods because combining any two techniques of research methodology presents its own complexities. In order to overcome these complexities, it is fundamental to analyse the debates as to how to manage the differing epistemological foundations upon which each methodology has been developed could become difficult to manage. Maxfield and Babbie (2001) hold that in practice, it is prudent to achieve some degree of success when research techniques are combined. Furthermore, Smith and Heshusius (1986) have criticised the combination of research strategies, arguing that the approach fails to recognize the fundamental preposition defining research methods and differentiating quantitative research from qualitative investigation. Conversely, Bryman (2004) has argued that the complexity falls on the contention that any particular research methodology supports a specific epistemological phenomenon whose justification may not be easy to sustain. Nevertheless, the debate considers both quantitative and qualitative research methods as having epistemological foundations, values and methods that are incompatible and not amenable to manipulation within research methods (Guba, 1985; Morgan, 1998b). Kuhn (1970) argues that research methods cannot be combined because there is no clarity that quantitative and qualitative research can collaborate efficiently.

Bryman (2004) has argued that the epistemological basis of multi-strategy research postulates that the methods are developed on flimsy epistemological principles. These principles erroneously suggested that it is inappropriate to combine differing research approaches. However, in practice, the criticism recognises the strengths of data collection and analysis techniques often associated with both methods, which suggest that both methods could be combined (Bryman, 2004). Weinholtz et al. (1995) argue that qualitative research could be adopted to salvage operations when quantitative strategy fails to provide the expected results.
ALTERNATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES

The multi-strategy research approach was chosen for this research out of several alternative methodologies. In order to explore police professionalism in Ghana as well as the impact of training and recruitment processes and the application of procedures, observation strategies for this research could have been implemented either by way of consensual observation of participants or by covert means (Maxfield and Babbie, 2001; Punch, 1979). Exclusive reliance could have been placed on either the qualitative research methodology or the quantitative approach in this work. Either of these methodologies would have provided the researcher with the required information on police professionalism, recruitment and training, and police accountability in Ghana.

Furthermore, Case Studies on Police Accountability in Ghana (CHRI, 2007) could have been appropriately used to conduct the investigation. Bryman (2004) defines a case study as a research design that considers the comprehensive and detailed analysis of a single case but in most cases could be broadened to contain the study of two or three issues in comparative ideas. The Case Studies approach would have involved the review of previous work done on police accountability by the Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative as well as other appropriate research. Content analysis could have been conducted through examination of feature articles and newspaper reviews of the police in Ghana.

Nevertheless, each of the foregoing approaches was critically considered and found not to be sufficient to appropriately address the research objectives of the study. Standing alone, none of the individual approaches was able to throw light the peculiar dynamics of Police Professionalism in Ghana. Furthermore, exclusive reliance on any single
approach would have involved the analysis of data from within and without Ghana, which, obviously, would not reflect the specificity of Ghanaian policing. The reality here is associated with the complexity of the Case Study approach and the difficulty of gathering data in a Police environment as alluded to by Punch (1979). In this regard, it is significant to note that the researcher had to overcome many institutional obstacles in order to gain entry and access to information within the police organisation.

Furthermore, the researcher could have simply developed and administered questionnaires based on hypothetical scenarios on police professionalism in Ghana as described by some authors for example, Bayley (1999) and CHRI (2007) cited above in Chapters One and Three, and the responses could have been captured and used as primary data for the study. This strategy could have produced some very interesting outcomes, but a serious challenge would have been whether respondents understood what constituted police professionalism and the extent to which recruitment and training could impact on police professionalism in Ghana. Another major challenge would have been whether those hypothetical definitions would have appropriately reflected the realities of Ghanaian policing.

Moreso, an approach involving a focus group interview (Maxfield and Babbie, 2001) of police officers to ascertain their perceptions about police professionalism in connection with police recruitment and training, including democratic control, governance and accountability, could have been used. But, the use of such an approach in this particular context involving the police could not have been actualized in view of strict police culture and applicable restrictive procedures when dealing with commissioned officers and the rank and file. With the exception of recruits being trained as police officers, getting officers of the same rank together at the same time was a critical challenge. There is a very strict code of standards in the police on the issue of whether
commissioned officers could be gathered together with the rank and file for purposes of a focus group interview. It was anticipated that even in circumstances where it was possible to overcome this challenge, the behaviour of the rank and file before their superiors would not reflect reality. The extent to which the rank and file would be comfortable in responding to questions in the presence of their bosses could have been impaired, hence putting the credibility and authenticity of this work into question. The researcher cannot also ignore the effects of strict adherence to confidentiality among police officers and the oath of secrecy sworn by police officers on the outcome of the focus group interview. The various ethical dilemmas arising from strict compliance with those obligations among police officers did not permit the use of the focus group interview approach in this investigation, hence the adoption of the chosen methodology. Maxfield and Babbie (2001) argue that: ‘studies that use field observation technologies are often able to ensure that research subjects cannot be identified’ (Maxfield and Babbie, 2001:192).

THE CHOSEN METHODOLOGY

According to Bryman (2004), research design offers the basis for the collection and analysis of data on a specific subject matter being investigated. To this effect, the selection of a research design is fundamental in arriving at conclusions regarding the scope of the research process. Nevertheless, a good research process ought to have three key fundamental criteria that cannot be ignored, namely: reliability; replication; and, validity (Bryman, 2004). Consequently, this study has been grounded on the principles of reliability, validity and ethical considerations, which are non-negotiable. Out of the available research methods, a multi-strategy research method known as methodological triangulation was selected as the preferred methodology for this study.
This was because the researcher considered a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches as being most suitable for the conduct of this work. Nevertheless, the researcher hinged more on the qualitative research methodology while simultaneously using the quantitative research methodology to ascertain the extent to which the hypotheses supported outcomes and also to establish the theoretical ideas underpinning the research. In so doing, both interviewing techniques and questionnaire schedules were used to investigate police professionalism and the impact of recruitment and training on police professionalism in Ghana.

To achieve the stated research objectives, the questionnaires and interviews conducted covered three main thematic areas in specific detail, namely: policy and standards for recruitment and training; capacity building and career development; and, police effectiveness and professionalism. Each of the three main thematic areas was divided into sub-headings. For example, 'recruitment and training policy and standards' had sub-headings such as selection and recruitment, training, and resource persons among others. 'Capacity building and career development' had: on-the-job-training and mentoring; scope of training programme; and, political interference and manipulations as sub-headings. Under police professionalism, the areas considered were: code of conduct and ethics of the profession; professional development; mentoring and advising; equipment and remuneration; control and oversight mechanisms; and, police accountability. The research instruments comprising the Interview Guide and the Self Completion Questionnaires are attached to this thesis (See Appendices A and B).

The rationale for the categorization of the questionnaires and interviews into thematic areas was to assist the researcher arriving at clear and actionable findings and observations. The approach to this investigation is an examination of what really constitutes police professionalism and the impact of recruitment and training on police
professionalism in Ghana. This research is basically exploratory, that involves in-depth analyses of the past and the present, leading to recommendations that could lead to further knowledge and research, and ultimately, to policy changes in Ghana. In addition, the conclusions and recommendations of this research could contribute to the strategic direction of the GPS particularly in the area of police professionalism. Finally, the work could also generate new thinking in contemporary democratic policing issues across Africa and the world at large.

PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF THE CHOSEN METHOD

The Population
The population for this study comprises all police personnel in Ghana, both commissioned and non-commissioned officers. See Appendix C for GPS population statistics, including gender and regional distribution. The target population is mainly the police officers within the Greater Accra Region, including those in the Police and CID HQ and the Ghana Police College. As of March 2013, it was estimated that the population of officers in Accra alone stood at approximately 9304, representing 33% of total GPS strength of which 6978 were male and 2326 were female officers. The Police and CID HQ alone accounted for 5223 officers (18% of total strength) of which 3917 were male whereas 1306 were females. Although, the main sample was taken from the Police and CID HQ, other senior officers and academics from the defined population, with varied experiences in police professionalism in Ghana were also interviewed.

Sampling Technique
Bryman (2004) has defined a sample as the segment of the population that is selected for investigation and considered as a subset of the population. According to Jupp
surveys are most often built on samples and hence it is most appropriate to collect data from a sample of people chosen from the population instead of considering the entire population. Selecting the entire population of the GPS for the study was not feasible in a research project of this nature. Consequently, the use of statistical theories particularly the probability theory in sampling the police officers (population) was fundamental in this work (Jupp, 1989). To this end, the method of defining or selecting the sample for research was based on a probability or a non-probability approach. Bryman (2004) argues that a probability sample reflects the sample chosen through the application of random selection where every unit within the population (sample frame) has a known chance of being considered. On the other hand, non-probability sample concerns itself with those samples that have not be chosen through a random selection process thereby creating a situation whereby some units within the sample frame have a greater chance of selection than others. To this effect, sampling techniques in social investigation have become very useful tools in collecting data from a wide range of sources. According to Maxfield and Babbie (2001), sampling techniques are designed for the collection of information from a selected people within a defined subject matter and over a given period of time.

In this context, the sampling technique(s) used in any investigation must be appropriate for the investigation of the underlying research topic. Given that the main research question of this study is ‘Police Professionalism: to what extent can recruitment and training impact on police professionalism in Ghana’, the researcher should have gathered information from a wider population including the general public, opinion leaders, politicians and the media on one hand and then the police on the other hand in the areas of: leadership (commissioned officers) and the rank and file (other ranks) in Ghana. Consequently, the sampling technique chosen offered an appropriate mechanism
to consider a selection of the sample frame (police population) for this investigation. This notwithstanding, in order to be able to draw valid, objective and scientific conclusions, a strategy for the identification of the respondents from the police service in Ghana was adopted. In this context, the researcher ensured that only serving police officers who had knowledge about routine police duties were interviewed and given questionnaires to complete.

**Sampling Procedure and Sample Size**

The researcher conducted the fieldwork after the Inspector-General of Police (IGP) had granted permission in response to a request to interviews officers of the GPS (See Appendices G and H). In granting the said request, the IGP indicated to the departments of Human Resource Development (HRD), Research, Planning and Information Technology (RP&IT) and CID (all at the Police HQ), and the POLCOL to support the researcher in the data collection. Accra was suitable and primarily linked to the research objectives as it is the capital city of Ghana, centre of administration, cradle of diversity and culture, education, science, industry and business, as well as research. Accra therefore granted the researcher the opportunity to gain access to a great variety of opinions that were ultimately representative of all the essential information required to achieve the research objectives.

Accordingly, the total sample size was sixty-five (65) comprising twenty (20) interviews and forty-five (45) questionnaires, all provided by serving officers of the GPS (See Appendix F) who were randomly selected for the study. The distribution of the officers interviewed was as follows: 7 from Police HQ; 5 from CID HQ; 4 from Ghana Police College; and, 4 from the Accra Region. The composition of questionnaires respondents was also summarised as follows: 11 from Police HQ; 10
from CID HQ; 10 from the Ghana Police College; and, 12 from the Accra Region. The summary of respondents considered for the study is as follows:

- GPS administration and staff officers.
- Research, Planning and Policy Officers including those from ICT
- Command and Directing Staff of the Ghana Police College
- Cadet Officers and Officers on Training, including Trainers
- Operational Commanders and Frontline Officers.

From the categories listed above, it is clear that painstaking efforts were made to gather as much information as possible from different categories of officers towards making the results of the study reliable, valid and relevant. This explains why a total of four months was spent to interview 20 respondents and administer 45 questionnaires to other respondents in the sample frame. It must be emphasised that the development of research instruments and subsequent approval of piloting of the questionnaire covered a period of about fourteen months. Thereafter, the interviews began in February 2012 immediately after the ethical approval was granted. The piloting of questionnaires was conducted in Accra following receipt of the ethical approval. It is therefore important to note that the interviews spanned a period of one year and continued through emails and telephone calls even after the fieldwork had ended.

**Data Collection Instruments / Tools**

The following tools and sources were adopted for the purpose of data collection.

- Interviews with the defined category of police officers.
• Questionnaires with the defined category of police officers.

• Narratives from some identified officers.

• Field notes by experts on police professionalism in Ghana.

• Document analysis: Institutional and non-institutional.

The use of many data collecting tools and sources to study a phenomenon such as that identified above is referred to as *Triangulation Approach* to data collection. According to Denzin (1985) and Yin (1994), triangulation is the combination of several methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon. The aim of such an approach is to overcome the weaknesses or biases of a single method. This is because each of the methods - social survey, experiments, participant observation, and interviewing among others - has its weaknesses hence no single research method will single-handedly capture all the changing features of the social world under study. Thus, “interpretations that are built on triangulation are certain to be stronger than those which rest on a more restricted framework of a single method”. One very important factor taken into consideration before selecting the data collection instrument was the research problem. In considering the data collection instrument in the light of the research problem, the researcher did not lose sight of the type of people in the sample, the nature of the organisation from which the people were being sampled as well as their psychology. Thus, the use of more than one data collection instrument was to enable the researcher detect inconsistencies for further probing (Twumasi, 2001).

Lee (2000; 2004) argues that in social investigations, it may be complicated to have a comprehensive list from which to choose respondents for a study. Besides, there is also the challenge of locating a sample frame within the targeted population – a situation in
which there are ‘the hard to reach’ respondents. Consequently, Lee (2000; 2004) argues that it would be ideal for the researcher to ascertain the possibility of identifying the locations of the research subjects so as to capture them. This data collection strategy is referred to as outcropping and this is the method used in the collection of data. This strategy assisted the researcher in organising a visit to Ghana Police installations in Accra specifically at the Police HQ, CID HQ and POLCOL in Accra, Ghana. During the visits, the researcher randomly contacted the potential respondents by introducing himself and requesting for audience. When the request was granted, the researcher proceeded to introduce the subject, explain the research interest and, thereafter, request to either conduct a quick face-to-face interview or to administer the self-completion questionnaire, depending on the preference of the respondent. In some cases, the respondents preferred to give the researcher subsequent appointments for face-to-face interviews whereas others collected self-completion questionnaires, completed them at their own convenience and later returned them to the researcher. The specific data collection tools employed in this research are discussed.

The Questionnaire Method

Designing and posing questions is a vital tool for gathering information from respondents (Maxfield and Babbie, 2001). According to Bryman (2004), social researchers prefer to use face-to-face interviews and/or administration of questionnaires to respondents with a view to allowing respondents to report on their own interpretations and/or to select meanings among alternatives granted. It has been argued that questionnaires offer the researcher the opportunity to design questions in advance and to receive results without communicating personally with each and every respondent within the sample frame (Maxfield and Babbie, 2001). The research adopted
the use of questionnaires because of its critical nature of presenting pre-designed questions and its impersonality. Consequently, the questions do not change in the course of administration just because of the nature of responses and does remains the same for all respondents. Besides, responses to questionnaires can support ethical considerations and adherence to anonymity especially in the context of semi-structured questionnaires with the view to soliciting objective feedback (Bryman, 2005; Maxfield and Babbie, 2001).

The use of interviews through the administration of questionnaires and the conduct of face-to-face interviews was adopted in order to gain access to respondents in the GPS. It is pertinent to emphasize that, most often than not, the administration of questionnaires in investigations is relatively cheaper in terms of costs and time, particularly in the context of interviewing respondents in Ghana. Bryman (2004) argues that practice of respondents in reading questionnaires, checking the facts and details as well as considering the questions and thereafter completing them brings about accuracy and reliability of data. Therefore, the use of a questionnaire as a data collection method has some degree of reliability. The administration of questionnaires in investigations is said to be relatively cheaper and does inhibit the researchers influence on the research outcomes. Most often, the problem of very senior officers not having time to complete questionnaires delays the retrieval of completed questionnaires (Bryman, 2004; Maxfield and Babbie, 2001). Nevertheless, self-completed questionnaires remained a better option for a good number of respondents who were busy and had no time for face-to-face interviews and who were not also comfortable to talk to the researcher (Bryman, 2004).
**Questionnaire Strategy and Format of Interview Guides**

Since interviews were the major data collection instrument, supported by observation, narration, focus group discussions, field notes and records search, the interviews were structured the interview guide in such a manner as to capture a lot of context from, and units of, the phenomena that were being investigated. Thus, through specific contexts such as recruitment and training policy and standards, the interviews investigated the training and capacity building initiatives offered to potential police officers. Questions were also raised on pertinent issues such as: in-service training, trainers, mentors and resources; as well as police effectiveness and professionalism among others. Some of the issues considered in the interview guide include: enlistment requirements and procedures, initial training programmes and in-service training, training, development and police effectiveness, leading to professionalism (See appendices A and B).

It is pertinent to note that, the strategy for questioning respondents was to develop interview guides and questionnaires containing the same questions for all categories of respondents as outlined in appendices A and B. It is important to mention here that some of the questions overlapped and this was purposely done with the view to gathering reliable data as well as obtaining a wide range of views on particular issues wherever possible. This is important in view of the fact that each of the respondents had a different experience profile and yet they all worked together and complimented each other’s efforts to achieve the common goal of police professionalism in Ghana. Again, the approach of gathering more information on the same issues from different respondents had the potential to clarify points that had hitherto been incomprehensible. For instance, the researcher was convinced that, apart from asking all respondents the same questions in the defined thematic areas, there was also the need to cross-check and verifies such information from the other officers. That apart, there was the need to elicit
information from serving personnel about their earlier training programmes in order to provide a basis for comparison of different views and to determine whether or not the training programme has remained the same despite the passage of time. In the same vein, it was important to listen to the opinions of the police administration and experts.

**The Interview Method**

**Condition of Interview:** The researcher visited the approved GPS installations at the Police HQ, CID HQ and POLCOL and approached respondents to assist in the conduct of the study on police professionalism in Ghana. Officers who agreed were thereafter appropriately interviewed, at their own convenience. Foremost, the researcher officially introduced himself to respondents, indicating that he was a serving police officer and also a researcher on police professionalism in Ghana, using introductory letters from the University of Leicester and authorization letters from the GPS (Judd et al, 1991), (See Appendices G and H). During the interview process, the researcher established a high level of rapport and friendliness with respondents and also reported what they said without engaging in debates or arguments with them. In this way, the researcher’s neutrality was not compromised. By maintaining such a neutral stance, this researcher was in a position to probe respondents for further clarification.

In all, the researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with twenty (20) very senior commissioned officers of the GPS (see Appendix C). In addition, forty-five (45) self-completion questionnaires were also administered and received, bringing the combined total to sixty-five (65). The administration of the interviews and questionnaires was carried out in the approved police formations in Accra, Ghana. The respondents were serving officers of the GPS. Twenty (20) face-to-face interviews were conducted of very senior officers who had no time in filling questionnaires. Also, forty-five (45)
officers filled self-completion questionnaires and provided data upon which analyses were made. The composition of the 45 respondents who filled the self-completion questionnaires was as follows: senior management of the GPS - 5; commissioned officers - 10; and, non-commissioned officers (other ranks) - 30.

The second step of the interview process involved the reading and presentation of a statement of informed consent to respondents. The statement clarified the purpose, aims and objectives of the research, including the conditions of interview and the right to withdraw consent at any time. So far, no single respondent withdrew his/her consent in the course of the study. In the process of interviewing respondents, the researcher endeavoured to create a conducive environment wherever possible and also reported exactly what respondents had to say without debating or arguing. In this way, the researcher’s neutrality was not compromised. By maintaining such a neutral stance the researcher had the opportunity to ask for further explanations where required. Each of the face-to-face interviews lasted for a duration of about 45 – 60 minutes. The interviews were held in the respondents’ offices and notes taken immediately with their permission. In situations where responses were not clear or further explanations were required, the interviewees glad repeated or offered further explanations.

Coding and Classification of Respondents: Coded numbers were given to all respondents for the purposes of non-attribution, anonymity and to facilitate further analysis of the data. This was also to ensure that respondents felt comfortable volunteering to provide information to their colleague, a serving officer in the same police service. Face-to-face interviewees were coded from 001-020. Allocation of code numbers was based on the date and time of interviews. Similarly, self-completion questionnaire respondents were coded from 021-065. The code numbers were also based on gender representation, date and time of dissemination of questionnaires (See
Appendix F). The very senior commanders at the Police HQ, CID and the Ghana Police College were interviewed face-to-face, whereas the rest of officers answered self-completion questionnaires. The face-to-face interviews were very detailed as officers took time to explain their responses and offered further clarifications on some questions. The questionnaires were answered in writing. This notwithstanding, the questionnaire respondents also provided the required information. As a result, both strategies presented almost the same data. At the same time, male and female officers provided similar answers.

Recording the Responses:

The responses from interviewees were recorded in writing depending on the situation on the field. While some of the responses were written down verbatim spontaneously, others were written soon afterwards so as not to distort the meaning intended to be conveyed by the respondents (Judd et al. 1991). The interviews were not recorded by any other means aside from note taking by hand on a note pad. Permission was requested from respondents prior to writing down their responses. Hence, the responses from interviewees were recorded by hand during the interview to ensure non-disclosure, confidentiality and anonymity. Upon completion of the interviews, the hand-written notes prepared during the interviews were later typed as interview transcripts.

Interviewing is one of the most widely accepted approaches used to conceptualize society and its people (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003). Hence, interviews have been identified as an important tool used to conduct market research, political opinion polls, and for academic purposes like this research (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003). To this end, it is significant to note that although the questionnaire method would have been suitable for all the categories of respondents sampled for this study, the face-to-face interview method was equally important to penetrate all categories of respondents. Therefore, this
research could not have ignored face-to-face interviews because they were extremely useful in eliciting the right information from the senior management of GPS who did not have the time to fill out self-completion questionnaires (Maxfield and Babbie, 2001). Nevertheless, as posited by Borg (1981) in the quote below, there are many challenges associated with face-to-face interviews, some which were inevitably encountered in the conduct of this research:

‘eagerness of the respondent to please the interviewer, a vague antagonism that sometimes arises between interviewer and respondents, or the tendency of the interviewer to seek out the answers that support his preconceived notions are but a few of the factors that may contribute to biasing the data obtained from the interview’.

(Borg, 1981:87)

In spite of the concerns expressed by Borg (1981), Moser and Kalton (1971) argue that, interviews have undoubtedly become a very important strategy in collecting data for various researches by academics. The reality is that we live in an interview society because both quantitative and qualitative resources depend on interview as an indispensable strategy for the collection of information (Atkinson and Silverman, 1997; Silverman, 2003). Consequently, interviews have been conducted in so many fields of study such as: for marketing research, academic analysis, political party polls, news programmes and talk shows among others. Hughes (2002) argues that the interview method in social investigations has some important variables that cannot be ignored. Foremost, the face-to-face interaction with respondents and timely manner in which large amounts of expansive and contextual data are obtained is paramount. Furthermore, interview facilitates a great deal of cooperation between research subjects and the
researcher including, access to immediate follow-up data collection for clarification and omissions. Also, the researcher cannot ignore the importance of interviews in overcoming complex interconnections in social relationships. Hughes (2002) further argues that interviews grant the opportunity for data to be collected in a natural setting through the observance of non-verbal behaviour and communication, which facilitates content analysis and triangulation. Finally, identification of nuances in cultures useful for uncovering the subjective side of respondents is achieved through interview (Hughes, 2002).

But the success of achieving the desired results from Hughes (2003) suggested critical features of face-to-face interview depending on the structure of the interview and questionnaire scheduled developed. A poorly constructed interview structure often leads to problems associated with: obstruction and reaction, replication, misinterpretation of data and content analysis by the researcher (Hughes, 2002). In order to overcome these challenges, open-ended and semi-structured questions were used in designing the research instruments.

Bryman (2004) has defined open-ended question as follows: *a question employed in an interview schedule or self-completion questionnaire that does not present the respondent with a set of possible answers to choose from* (Bryman, 2004:541). Open-ended questions have thus become a widely accepted method used in research questionnaires involving both qualitative and quantitative strategies. According to Silverman (2003) *‘open ended interviews often grant the advantage of having an authentic gaze into the soul of another, or even for a politically correct dialogue on which researcher and researched often nurture understanding and support’* (Silverman, 2003:243; Denzin and Lincoln, 2003:243). Flick (1998) has argued that, the dominance of open-ended questions in research is premised on the fact that respondents’ opinions
are more often than not articulated in an open and free way. In addition, some of the reasons for the use of open-ended questions include: from direction it is achieved through posing of many questions since unstructured questions are asked where increased structuring is introduced in the process of the interview to prevent the researcher’s frame of reference influencing the respondents opinions (Bryman, 2004; Flick, 1998). Merton and Kendall (1946) argue specifically that research questions ought not to have any ambiguity in order to avoid respondents restructuring and to appropriately relate to the research situation. Furthermore, the criterion of range aims at ensuring that all relevant issues regarding the research questions are fully captured during the research interview (Bryman, 2004; Flick, 1998). In this context, the research subject should have the opportunity of introducing additional questions that are relevant to achieving the research objectives. In order to manage this, it is ideal for the researcher to redirect the topics and possibly the interview towards achieving the research objectives where there is evidence that the respondent might invariably be moving out of context (Mason, 2002; Flick, 1998).

However, the problems likely to be encountered are mediating between the inputs of the interview schedule and the objectives of research questions as well as respondents style of presentation. Also, the dilemma of whether and/or when to inquire in greater detail (including support to the respondent from wavering) and when to go back to the interview schedule poses a serious constraint. In this case, there is a choice to be made between maintaining some topics captured in the interview schedule and similarly being bound by the respondent's own way of answering the questionnaire. However, this decision can only be made during the interview itself, as the process requires a high degree of responsibility and sensitivity to the respondent. Besides, a greater deal of consideration ought to be given to the responses of the interviewee and their
significance to the research objectives. According to Flick (1998), standard mediation and review in the course of the interview and the interview schedule ought to be done by the researcher during the interview. Similarly, Kvale (1998) criticises the idea of strict reliance on the interview schedule in social research. To this effect, Flick (1998) has argued that strict adherence to the interview schedule might affect the benefits of openness as well as contextual information since such strict adherence to the interview schedule might force the researcher to interrupt responses rather than listening and collecting information (Kvale, 1996). Nevertheless, gathering information from the police in whatever form is not an easy matter. This is due to the problems of institutional bureaucracy as well as physical and official police intricacies in the collection of information. Punch (1979) investigated police corruption whilst working on ‘everyday policing strategies in Central Amsterdam’ and did experience the dynamics of collecting data from the police as reflected in the quote below:

‘The police are often held to be the most secluded part of the criminal justice system. Like other agencies of social control and like some client servicing bureaucracies, the police organization erects barriers against prying outsiders and endeavours to present a favourable image of itself to the extent for public consumption. These structural features of isolation and secrecy, coupled with the intrinsic dangers of police work, help to form an occupational culture which is solidaristic, and wary of non-initiates. The researcher’s tasks become, then how to outwit the institutional obstacle to course to gain entry and how to penetrate the minefield of social defences to reach the inner reality of police work’

(Punch, M. 1979:4)
In the light of the difficulty of collecting data from the police, the researcher had some minefields to manage because; the Police in Ghana appeared to have an organizational culture similar to that observed by Punch (1979). Indeed, the use of observation or covert research strategies could have enabled the researcher to overcome the challenges as highlighted. However, being aware of the ethical dilemmas, the researcher had to ensure that the required ethical considerations of social research were observed throughout the study.

The Piloting and Pre Testing of Questions

Bryman (2004) has said it is important for a researcher to pilot his/her research instruments before entering the field to administer self-completion questionnaires or conducting face-to-face interviews. The significance of piloting the research instruments used in this study was to ascertain the accuracy and completeness of the questionnaire and the interview guide. Furthermore, the pilot provided the opportunity to determine the duration and time required for interviews (Bell, 1999; Maxfield and Babbie, 2001; Bryman, 2004). More so, the clarity of the introductory page, which described the research, the rights and obligations of respondents, including a statement of anonymity and confidentiality was also tested in the pilot study. To this effect, pilot studies invariably, and in most cases, are fundamental to any research that is conducted through the application of self-completion questionnaires, since the researcher may not be available to expatiate on ambiguous questions that demand clarification (Bryman, 2004).

The pilot test of the research was conducted in Accra, Ghana and all respondents were from the GPS. During the conduct of the pilot test, the self-completion questionnaire
was administered whilst the interview schedule was also tested. One zone was identified for this research, namely Accra, Ghana.

In order to ensure the appropriateness of the research instruments, the researcher and his supervisors examined details of the questions in the interview schedule as well as questionnaire for standards avoiding errors and to eliminate any ambiguity in the research instrument. The items in the data collection instrument were also examined to ascertain whether they were consistent with the research objectives. Those considered irrelevant to the investigations were eliminated. According to Bryman (2004) the pre-assessment of questions is critical to the identification of ‘zone of neglect’ and the ‘zone of invalidity’. For the sake of simplicity and clarity, it was important that the researcher utilized common words and avoided the application of academic concepts and jargon in phrasing questions. Besides, leading questions – questions suggesting the appropriateness of certain responses – were not used in the questionnaires and interviews. To this effect, Oppenheim (1992) argues that, to ensure content validity, researchers ought to avoid: ‘long complex questions; double negatives; double barreled questions; culture – specific terms; words with double meanings; leading questions; and emotionally loaded words’ (Oppenheim, 1992:128) when formulating questions.

Reliability and validity tests were conducted and this offered the researcher the opportunity to apply the Structure Laying Technique (SLT) for content analysis, reliability and validity of the research instrument (Flick, 1998). Through the use of SLT, the researcher conducted a follow-up meeting with the interviewees. The follow-up meeting took place immediately after the pilot interview had been collated and the data analysed. The summary of the trial interviews were thus written and given to the interviewees for evaluation and content analysis. During this process, the interviewees were requested to examine the content captured during the interviews and to confirm
whether the content reflected the views they had previously expressed during the interviews. The interviewees were given the right to correct, amend and/or cancel statements that were not correctly represented. However, Flick (1998) has argued that in a situation where fewer corrections, cancellations and/or replacement of the interview transcript were made, there is a presumption that the research instrument has passed the content reliability and validity tests. In the case of this investigation, the pilot test came out with very little, amendment, replacement and/or corrections. The research instruments therefore passed the test of reliability and validity.

**Accessibility and Data Collection Methods**

The data collection and analysis for this work involved the two domains of primary and secondary sources. Regarding the collection and analysis of secondary information for this research, data was gathered through: personal, professional and work experiences; participation in training, courses, seminars, and workshops; journals, newspapers and academic books; and, Internet databases such as Google scholar, and Leicester online library among others. Ultimately, the research is aimed at contributing to knowledge and making recommendations that could lead to policy changes in Ghana and within the GPS. These recommendations focus directly on police professionalism in Ghana considering that the subject matter appears not to be well known and understood by the police itself and the society at large. In the development of the literature review, the traditional approach was considered in view of the fact that this research is not a comparative study that merely focused on the similarities and differences pertinent to the subject matter. Rather, the research examined police professionalism in Ghana and the extent to which recruitment and training could influence police professionalism through the use of primary and secondary sources of information. It was, however,
observed that the use and analysis of secondary data by researchers who were not involved in the collection of the data often creates the potential for arriving at wrongful interpretations of the data that significantly deviate from those of the originators of the data. Such situations often involve either quantitative data (Dale et al., 1998) or qualitative data (Corti et al., 1995). In light of the foregoing, this study concentrated mainly on the analysis of the primary data gathered from the field.

On the other hand, the secondary analysis aspects of the research offered the researcher the advantages of: time and cost savings; easy access to high quality data; and, more time for data analysis. Nevertheless, there were some inherent disadvantages such as lack of familiarity with the data and the absence of key variables among others (Bryman, 2004; Maxfield and Babbie, 2001). In the consideration of the primary data, multiple data collection strategies capable of generating a sufficient amount of dependable information from the defined target group were used. The researcher also used outcropping to collect and collate primary information.

**Data Analysis**

Data analysis describes the examination, categorization, tabulation and, in most cases, remerging of the facts with a view to addressing the original proposition (Yin, 1994). To this effect, Yin (1994) posits that a good approach to data analysis is to use the primary research objectives and questions that inform the study. Consequently, data analysis may be influenced by the original objectives upon which the research is built, based on the research questions and the issues covered in the review of related literature. According to Twumasi (2001), it is pertinent for the researcher to analyse data in relation to the research objectives and questions in order to achieve appropriate outcomes. To this effect, the research objectives and questions should provide the
contextual framework within which the data is examined. However, Bryman (2004) argues that, the practice of triangulated data analysis is eclectic without any formal principles governing the performance of the analysis. Consequently, the practice of drawing conclusions from interpretations through intuitive analysis may not achieve clarity unless researchers illustrate the methods of analysis used and how conclusions were arrived at from the data collected.

The approach for analysing the data gathered in the research involved the use of two analytical models comprising the qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. The strategy for data analysis entailed the classification of key elements of research objectives and questions into thematic areas with a view to producing concise, clear and unambiguous interpretations. To this effect, the classification of data into the key thematic areas provided the framework for the examination of each subject matter as well as the interrelationships between all of them. The representation of data came from the GPS and was gathered mainly through the administration of self-completion questionnaire and some few face-to-face interviews together with documentary evidence where necessary. Transcripts of interviews were written as field notes, edited and corrected, after which they were processed for research, academic and policy purposes among others. In processing the notes taken during the face-to-face interviews and self-completed questionnaires, codes numbers were issued to every questionnaire whereby thematic keywords were assigned to the segments of the questions answered for the purpose of sorting the answers. In order to be able to conduct content analysis, the coded questionnaires, the frequencies of thematic keywords and the sequencing of words and phrases were measured. Descriptive themes were generated from the entire qualitative data whereas an interpretative content analysis approach was used in the analysis of the qualitative data thereafter. The themes and typifications were based on
the large amount of the categories of data obtained from the fieldwork. However, the researcher had to create some themes or typifications outside the verbal answers of the respondents to provide meaning to some of the concepts that evolved from the data collected. Nevertheless, the understanding and interpretations were generally similar although there were minute differences in the details. The researcher used this strategy to ensure that the differences in concepts were applied to the same theme so as to convey the same understanding through the general framework. Within the framework was a theoretical discourse and story lines encompassing the words and experiences of the respondents were generated and developed. The rationale for pursuing this strategy lies in its significance as a crucial qualitative data analysis tool which, of course, added value to the outcome.

Use of Statistical Tools

Silverman (1984; 1985) has argued that, for quantification of results from qualitative research, it might be useful to establish and explain the generality of the phenomenon being studied. Quantification ought to establish the respondents’ individual ways of knowing their social world for the quantification to be reliable having regard to the objectives of qualitative research. Hence, the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) as the main statistical tool in support of the evidence was of fundamental importance. Consistent with the objectives of the study, the SPSS software generated descriptive statistics comprising cross tabulations, percentages, charts and graphs as and when they were appropriately required for the analyses.
Difficulties with the Chosen Methodology

Given that the researcher is a professional police officer, there was the tendency for his personal biases to permeate the qualitative rather than quantitative evaluation of the data generated and used in this study. This notwithstanding, the personal and professional ethical principles of evaluation – honesty and fairness – were strictly observed in the conduct of this research. Another serious ethical problem with regard to qualitative evaluative research is that where the evaluation is critical of a particular institution, it tends to generate or perpetuate a lack of public sympathy for that organisation and for that matter, curtails further funding. But it is equally unethical to look only for favourable results and gloss over the negative aspects. This is tantamount to deception (Soltis, 1990). Similarly, having come from a police background and knowing that many respondents might be hesitant in giving out information, the researcher avoided any electronic recording of interviews to ensure that respondents would be comfortable and forthcoming with information.

Combining qualitative and quantitative research methodologies was quite a challenge in this study. For instance, the use of statistical tools like the SPSS package to analyse outcomes was a daunting task. Nevertheless, the combination of research methodologies gave an exciting experience.

Finally, even though the researcher is a career police officer within the GPS – the same institution that was studied, the interviews and questionnaires did not influence the level of integrity and fairness with which the objectives of the study were pursued. Instead, a careful balance was maintained between being critical and showing sympathy so as not to portray one’s self as trying to paint a completely negative or positive picture of the GPS. Therefore, the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study were guided both primary and secondary data gathered during the research.
ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Blaxter et al. (2001), the principles of research ethics require the researcher to be clear about the nature of the agreement he/she has entered into with his/her research contacts. Ethical research therefore involves obtaining and constantly updating approvals from those you are going to interview, question, observe or take materials from. It involves reaching agreement about the uses of this data, and how its analysis will be reported as well as disseminated (Maxfield and Babbie, 2001). In the light of the above, the researcher critically considered the ethical dilemmas involved in the conduct of the investigation before the commencement of the fieldwork and throughout the research, hence recognizing the importance of ethics in this work. Among others, the ethical challenges in this work involved: negotiating access, obtaining informed consent, invasion of privacy, deception, confidentiality and anonymity (Maxfield and Babbie, 2001; Bryman, 2004).

In relating the ethical dilemmas to the research question, gaining access posed a challenge because obtaining the necessary cooperation from the GPS for the release of information was not easy in view of the long bureaucratic procedures and perceived national security interests at stake. It is pertinent to state that, as a result of these bureaucratic and administrative procedures for granting clearance, it took at least two (2) months to gain access to Ghanaian police officers for purposes of conducting interviews for this study. The problem of suspicion for this research and commitment to grant information for a research has not been apparent and this might explain the delay in gaining access. Some officers were not comfortable to either grant access in the first place or grant interviews all because of the perceived fear that their official status would be undermined.
The right to privacy of respondents and interviewees was another key dilemma encountered in the conduct of the study. Furthermore, the principle of informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity of the officers interviewed was critical because of the peculiar context of the GPS, the oath of secrecy sworn by officers and the usual national security interest. To this effect, a statement of informed consent to participate in the study was developed as part of the introduction to the questionnaire and the interview guide (Maxfield and Babbie, 2001). According to Maxfield and Babbie (2001), anonymity of research could be achieved where a research subject cannot be related to any given portion of information to a specified person. Besides, confidentiality is paramount and this implies that, although the researcher could connect information to a particular individual, he/she promises not to disclose any such information whatsoever (Maxfield and Babbie, 2001). Holdaway (1983) has argued that it is pertinent for researchers to be careful about the way and manner in which information from sensitive organizations like the Police is collected, processed and published:

‘covert researchers takes risks when they publish their work: they risk the charges that they are simply engaging in a polemical exposé of an easily accessible whipping boy and that their data are unreliable; they risk the possibility of action for attempting to convey the message about a powerful institution in British society; they risk the consequences of a calculated deception of trust’.

(Holdaway, 1983: 13)

Nevertheless, the likelihood was that the researcher could attract animosity from officers, senior management of the GPS and politicians alike if the research ended up revealing manipulations and political interference in police structures, policies and
procedures. Interestingly, the researcher did not face any direct animosity from the GPS as an organization and its officers. Ethical principles were religiously followed throughout the research to publication of outcomes, since the researcher might still attract animosity if care is not taken in the management of sensitive and confidential information. The researcher recognised those personal challenges and managed them in line with the relevant ethical guidelines and principles.

In order to ensure compliance with the ethical requirements, the researcher designed questionnaires without any need to disclose the identity of respondents in any form. Therefore, to ensure complete anonymity and confidentiality throughout the research process, strict compliance to non-disclosure of names and non-recording of interviews was observed. Furthermore, a clear statement of the voluntary nature of the data collection exercise and the liberty of respondents to withdraw from the interview at any time during the process if they were no longer comfortable with the process was explicitly made known from the onset. Besides, the respondents were very familiar with this type of research, having been asked similar questions by other police officers in the past. In addition, the GPS system is used to receiving various researchers for academic purposes. The researcher also recognised that the primary objective of the research was purely to contribute to knowledge.

The following approach was adopted to overcome the difficulty of gaining appropriate approval for access to interview officers of the GPS. The request for access was officially made through the police chain of command and the authorization to this effect is annexed to this thesis. Nevertheless, seeking permission to conduct research in police stations may inherently involve seeking access to certain restricted areas, which also requires special authorization. Fortunately, the official authorization opened the doors to all police structures and installations for the purpose of this
research. Although, authorization was granted for data collection, the availability and the accessibility of police officers for interviews was not necessarily an automatic consequence. Specific arrangements had to be with individual officers and the date and time for interviews were all agreed upon beforehand. In an effort to avoid the problem of gaining covert access in information gathering, respondents were given sufficient information to enable them decide whether or not to participate. All interviews were voluntary and respondents were adequately briefed for them to understand the objectives of the research and to make decisions. There was also a one-page statement defining the objectives of the research as well as the voluntary nature of the interviews including rights of respondents.

Finally, being an insider researcher made the entire process vulnerable to two grave ethical dilemmas as discussed below. Brannick and Coghlan (2007) describe the insider researcher phenomenon as a situation in which staff member(s) of an organizational system conduct research within their own institutional setting. To this effect, insider research could be conducted in any of the major research streams such as positivism, hermeneutics and action research (Brannick and Coghlan, 2007). There is no reason why an insider undertaking a study in his/her own organization should be an issue in research (Brannick and Coghlan, 2007). As an officer of the GPS, the researcher was not oblivious to the associated dynamics of insider researcher in the GPS, which include grant of access and organizational politics. In the course of the fieldwork, the researcher was mindful of power dynamics as argued by Brannick and Coghlan (2007) in the quote below:

‘….any researcher's status in the organization has an impact on access. The higher the status of the researcher, the more access and network could be achieved, particularly
downward through the hierarchy. Similarly, being at top position may exclude access to many informal and grapevine networks’.

(Brannick and Coghlan, 2007:67)

As discussed earlier in this Chapter, the IGP granted the researcher access and hence there were no restrictions to either primary or secondary data collection. The mechanism of conducting research and granting of access in the GPS is the same for all, whether insiders or outsiders. Consequently, throughout the fieldwork, the status of the researcher as an officer of the GPS did not influence access and the collection of information.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has discussed the chosen methodologies of this research, which is methodological triangulation – a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods. In recent times, the trend of combining of qualitative and quantitative research methodology has been growing in social science research. Therefore, various researchers have used methodological triangulation in their research. The justification for the use of this method is premised on the fact that combining research methods to investigate a subject matter enhances the possibility of deepening and widening the depth and breadth of knowledge since both approaches complement each other (Benzies and Allen, 2001). The presentation of findings and observations of the data collected during fieldwork forms the subject matter of the next Chapter of this thesis.
CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS, OBSERVATIONS AND ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION
This Chapter presents the data collected within the framework of the research objectives and identified thematic areas of the questionnaire and interview guide (See Appendices A and B). The results establish that, police professionalism in Ghana could be better achieved through strict application and enforcement of processes, procedures and rigid standards. However, the commitment of the management of the GPS to ensure development and strict implementation of processes, procedures and standards is unclear. The Chapter also provides comprehensive analyses and discussion of the findings and observations derived from the data within the framework of the key thematic areas outlined in the study. Foremost, a detailed analysis of the Standing Orders (SO) and the Ghana Police Service Instructions is presented by way of setting the scene. Thereafter, the issue of policy and standards for recruitment and training, including the training of police officers is discussed. The analysis of police effectiveness and professionalism covered sub-themes such as: strategic direction; code of conduct and ethics; public perception; grooming of officers for higher appointments; as well as oversight and accountability mechanisms among others. Furthermore, key recommendations and way forward are proffered following critical consideration of core issues such as capacity building, career development programmes and in-service training.
INTERVIEWS AND FIELDWORK

Overall, sixty-five (65) serving officers of the GPS in Accra, drawn from the Police HQ and the POLCOL, were surveyed through face-to-face interviews and self-completion questionnaires in order to obtain the primary data for the study. In terms of gender distribution, 16 of the 65 officers surveyed (representing approximately 25% of the sample population) were female participants whereas 49 officers (representing approximately 75%) were male participants. The gender distribution of the respondents reflects the actual nature and context of the broader population of the GPS. In addition, documentary information comprising police policy guidelines and instructions - handbooks, memoranda, circulars and signals were examined. The data collected was classified and analysed based on the research objectives and questions. The “Findings and Observations” that emanate from the interviews, questionnaires and documentary investigations are presented under the thematic headings established for the research objectives and questions.

STANDING ORDERS AND THE GHANA POLICE SERVICE INSTRUCTIONS

Generally, it was observed that the GPS has extensive Standing Orders that have governed the routine administration and operations of the service over the years. Ghana Police Service Instructions otherwise known as the “Service Instructions” and the Ghana Police Service Act, 1970 were examples of some of these policies and procedures. The Service Instructions is a compilation of Standing Orders (SO) in the form of Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) that direct the day-to-day work of the Police in Ghana. The Standing Orders were identified as permanent orders that govern
the proper administration and conduct of the GPS. The IGP makes the orders under the authority granted by the Ghana Police Service Act, 1970 and by the Public Service Commission Regulations made under the Constitution of the Republic of Ghana. The study therefore found that the GPS has SOPs that guide almost every aspect of police operations. Further, it was found that the Ghana Police Service Instructions contain about 277 Standing Orders that provide directions for strategic, operational and tactical levels of command and control. However, the continued relevance of some of these Standing Orders, particularly those that were published over thirty (30) years ago and have never been revised since then, remains unclear. Besides, many of the Standing Orders have not been updated to take into account political and social changes that have occurred in Ghana and within the police organization itself over the period. As such, the extent to which the Ghana Police Service Instructions reflect reality within the dynamics of Ghana's contemporary democratic settings is unclear.

According to Ball (2008), the successful pursuit of police professionalism ought to include built-in systems of guidance and benchmarks for success, improvements and uprightness. Therefore, the existence and use of SOPs are central to police work because the police are expected to be objective and impartial in crime prevention, the collection of evidence and general investigations. Adherence to the rule of law and due process based on policy and procedure, and through established standards in the conduct of day-to-day police operations is therefore fundamental (The Constitution of Ghana, 1992). Consequently, the concept of police professionalism requires strict application of specialized knowledge and adherence to established policing standards and ethics in tune with the profession. To this effect, police ethics is concerned with the moral duty and obligations inherent in police work (Schneider, 2009). Burack (2006) argues that the pursuit of police professionalism hinges on the principles of integrity, honesty and
compliance with codes of ethics and established standards. This is the framework upon which standing orders, policy and procedures, including SOPs, come into force. The police cannot operate in a vacuum - officers cannot be expected to work within a defined body of knowledge, professional and ethical codes of conduct without having overarching policies, procedures and SOPs in place. Professionalism is not only about bearing, ethics and codes of conduct but rather the existence of total and interminable dedication and commitment to quality service delivery, higher standards, noble values and continuous self-improvement.

As noted above, the GPS has SOPs that guide almost every facet of police operations. However, the continued relevance of many of these SOPs to the GPS is questionable. Furthermore, the extent to which these standing orders have taken into account political and social changes within the country and the GPS with a view to contributing to the establishment and enhancement of police professionalism in Ghana over the years is unclear. Furthermore, a critical examination of the SOs revealed the lack of an appropriate training policy and standards, leading to weaknesses in recruitment and training as well as capacity building and career development programmes for officers.

POLICY AND STANDARDS FOR RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

SELECTION AND RECRUITMENT OF POLICE OFFICERS

Policy on Selection: 65% of officers interviewed were emphatic about the absence of policy and standards for the selection and recruitment of police officers in Ghana. They argued that in most cases, every period of selection had its own requirements. Therefore, it became obvious that there was a serious lack of doctrines for police recruitment and hence the *ad-hoc* application of differing procedures in the selection and recruitment of officers. However, 35% of respondents were not sure about the
existence or otherwise of policy and standards for selection and recruitment. All the sixty-five (65) (i.e. 100%) of respondents, however, alluded to the existence of loose-fitting recruitment criteria that was often reflected in newspaper publications that advertised openings for entry into the GPS. In response to a question on selection policy, senior female officer with 25 years service stated as follows:

‘In respect of implementation of policies and procedures, I say, Yes and No. Yes because every period of selection has its own policy. No because there is no standard policy that can pass through the test of time. In view of the ad-hoc nature of these, there are conflicting applications of the selection process. For example two individuals of same qualification recruited at different periods could be place differently on differing ranges. This is totally ridiculous’

Almost all respondents cited the unofficial practice that grants to influential people (including politicians) "protocol vacancies" to fill within the GPS. It is claimed that the practice of allocating vacancies to people in authority came about through the excuse of ensuring regional balance or equitable ethnic and geographical representation in the GPS. Furthermore, manipulation of police selection procedures by the police system itself and political interferences in the selection of applicants into the GPS were identified as critical challenges. For example, in a newspaper article published online, a staff member at the Office of the President reportedly admitted that he facilitated recruitment of applicants into the police (The Ghana Herald, 2013). The problem of “protocol vacancies” confirmed the lack of policy and use of the required guidelines for the selection of police officers in Ghana.
Nonetheless, data collected during the fieldwork and the foregoing indicates that training policy and standards are not generally available in the GPS. This may be attributed to the structure and capacity of the Police HRD, and the degree to which training policy (including standards) is considered an integral part of the GPS. Recruitment and training cannot be conducted in a vacuum. Hence, a GPS training policy and standards should set forth comprehensive procedures that apply to the recruitment and training of police officers. The rationale for this prerequisite ought to have presented in a factual documented manner the overall criteria for the conduct of recruitment and training of police officers in Ghana. Such a policy should guide and drive decision-making and compliance monitoring in the recruitment and training of police officers in Ghana.

Clearly, all manner of things may happen in the absence of rules and regulations, and this may explain the political manipulation of the recruitment and training processes in Ghana. Hence, as outlined earlier in the literature review, Cole's (2002) argument emphasising the importance of having efficient and effective procedures for recruitment and selection can hardly be overemphasised in any organization. Therefore, one of the first steps in planning for the recruitment of police officers is to establish adequate policies and procedures. The need for appropriate recruitment and training policies in the GPS cannot be overlooked if police professionalism is to be achieved. The existence of recruitment policy represents a police code of conduct in this area of activity. If the police are able to find and recruit officers who consistently fulfil their roles and are capable of taking on increased responsibilities, the police will be better placed to deal with its tasks (Cole, 2002), and as a result achieve the desired level of professionalism.
Requirements for Selecting Prospective Applicants: The specific criteria used as the basis of entry includes: age, physical standards and health, education and nationality. The detailed entry requirements usually specified for prospective recruits are as follows:

a. Must be a Ghanaian citizen by birth.
b. Must be above 18 years old.
c. Must have the desired height of 5.4 inches for women and 5.8 inches for men.
d. Must have the required academic/professional qualifications.
e. Must be physically fit by Police Standards.

It was observed that the minimum educational qualification for Basic Police Training in Ghana was Senior High School Leaving Certificate Examination (SSCE) with credits in five subjects including English language and mathematics. In addition to the entry requirements, 100% of the respondents affirmed that all prospective applicants are required to sit and pass an entrance examination in English Language, General Knowledge and Mathematics, which is administered by the GPS. The Ghana Police Policy Guidelines also affirmed the above requirement. However, the extent to which the policy is used was not clear.

Similarly, all respondents agreed that the educational and professional qualifications for entry into the Ghana Police were ideal and far more than adequate. In principle, these basic educational qualifications are similar to those generally required for admission into the universities, polytechnics, health and other tertiary institutions in Ghana. In addition to the above requirements, other specialized competencies are used to recruit highly skilled persons into the GPS. These include specialized university degrees and professional qualifications in the areas of: medicine and dentistry; pharmacology; law; nursing; architecture; education; accountancy; and, clinical psychology among others.
It was argued that, the main challenge has been the consistent application of the basic entry requirements in the selection processes. Also, the issue of conducting continuous background checks on potential applicants in the recruitment process has remained a critical challenge. Such background checks could enhance the selection process by identifying the right calibre of personnel. Unfortunately, all respondents were of the view that the Police Administration does not conduct comprehensive background checks on all prospective applicants, and, as a result, the GPS loses the advantage of using background checks to eliminate criminals and undesirable persons from being enlisted. The absence of a training policy and standards that define the modalities for recruitment has provided leeway for the publication of varying selection criteria for prospective GPS officers at one time or the other. When asked about the extent of the GPS adherence to the use of policy and standards in selection and recruitment, a male officer with 20 years of experience in the GPS provided the following response:

‘On paper, the requirements are good and far more than adequate, thus in theory. But in practice, whether they are applied or not is another story. In principle the basic qualification could equally send the applicants to the universities, polytechnics, health and other tertiary institutions. Also, the issue of background check of potential applicants could support the recruitment of the right calibre of personnel. However, it seems like there is no patience to conduct the required background checks on all applicants. The background checks could have looked at applicants’ suitability in terms of aptitude, attitude and charisma for police work’.

Other Requirements for Selection of Prospective Applicants: All respondents unanimously argued that physical standards, educational and professional qualifications
alone cannot constitute the best criteria for selecting prospective applicants into the GPS. They agreed that academic and professional qualifications alone, including written examinations, may not provide an appropriate means for identifying the right calibre of applicants for recruitment into the GPS. The need for psychometric tests and personality assessments to test the personal traits of each applicant and suitability for routine police duties ought to be part of the selection process, but this has not been the case. All respondents agreed that, the selection process must address the day-to-day functional areas of police operations such as: public order, criminal investigations through forensics, patrols, intelligence, policy development, training and evaluation, including police operations and research. The need to recruit the right calibre of applicants to fulfil the requirements of the functional areas of operations was therefore identified as being critical. However, respondents were unanimous that the selection team usually did not have the scientific methods and requisite capacity to identify the right people for the job, other than merely considering documented qualifications, nationality and the physical traits.

Recruitment and Selection Board: The GPS has constituted recruitment and selection Boards over the years. 90% of respondents confirmed that a Police Selection and Recruitment Board existed but was rather ad-hoc in nature – typically one is established for each selection and recruitment exercise. Nevertheless, it was observed that the Board is responsible for determining the category and criteria for the selection of applicants to be recruited into the GPS at any particular time. Furthermore, the GPS Administration has established Appointments, Promotion and Advisory Board (APAB) but its roles and responsibilities in the selection of the right calibre of applicants remains unclear. A senior male police officer with 22 years of experience in the service questions the effectiveness of the APAB as follows:
‘...but I do not know the specifics of the Team but I remember they go round to conduct Screening and Selection of prospective applicants. This Board is not necessarily concerned with all selection and recruitment. For example, the Board appears to be provisional because they are not perpetual and often created for specific police recruitment and selection of exercises. In a similar exercise later, you will see a different team constituted as the board to do the same work’.

It was observed that, where there are no appropriate systems in place to regulate human behaviour, implementation of rules and regulations could be susceptible to abuse. The system cannot be manipulated if appropriate standards are established and used for the selection and recruitment of prospective applicants into the GPS. Unfortunately, it was determined that the use of policy and procedures in the administration of the GPS is weak and, in some cases, non-existent, and this has culminated in the manipulation of the system by all manner of people (including police officers) for private gain.

By way of analyses of the overall requirements for the selection of prospective applicants into the GPS, it is fundamental for applicants to be selected for training in accordance with the established procedures for police recruitment and training, whereby calls are made in the print and electronic media inviting prospective applicants to apply to join the GPS. Suitably qualified and applicants are thereafter shortlisted and invited to appear in person at designated regional enlistment centres. Shortlisted applicants then sit for written examinations following which successful candidates are selected for further processing. Such qualified applicants undergo medical examination to test their suitability for training in accordance with police standards. Upon passing the medical examination applicants are invited to proceed to training in one of the Police Training
Schools (PTS) (Afari, 2004; Pokoo-Aikins, 2002). Although equally critical, aptitude tests and psychological analyses aimed at determining the personal traits and suitability of each applicant for employment by the GPS have not formed part of the selection process. Background checks on potential applicants in the recruitment process have also remained a critical challenge. As earlier argued in Chapter 3, the recruitment process is not always an easy one, especially when particular skills are required to fill certain jobs (Robbins and De Cenzo 1995; Robbins and Coulter, 1999). Whether potential employees will respond to the recruitment efforts of an organisation depends on the attitudes and perceptions they have developed towards the tasks involved and the organization on the basis of their past social and working experiences. Conversely, training is extremely important for both new and existing employees. The most important determinants of training are the tasks to be accomplished and the employee’s abilities and attitudes. Nevertheless, if employees have the required work ethic and the specific skills needed to do their jobs, training may not be very important. Quite often, it is unlikely that tasks demands are stable. The advent of new technology, changing market conditions as well as changes in jobs all require that employees are offered continuously training and professional development opportunities so as to enable them meet new standards. Governments are also becoming a vital influence on training for public policy purposes (Ivancevich, 1998). Whatever the case, a systematic approach to recruitment, training and development, followed by a logical sequence of activities covering the establishment of a policy, assessment of recruitment and training requirements as well as evaluation and feedback are crucial in organizations (Cole, 2002).

The emphasis on the attainment of high educational qualifications by prospective police officers is based on the notion that policing is a profession that requires multifaceted
skills and knowledge in order to function (Schneider, 2009). Carter et al., (1989) have argued that there is a positive correlation between higher education and performance, which is an occupational necessity. Therefore, police professionalism could be achieved through the recruitment and retention of better-educated, highly trained and efficient police officers. However, Hinkle (1991:105) argues to the contrary that: ‘effective street police officers learn police work on the job and not in the classroom’. Emphasis on higher education could cut off persons who could become effective and efficient police officers. Pate and Hamilton (1991) argue that police ought to recruit higher education graduates in order to succeed in attracting intelligent and able bodied people into the organization.

The quest for police professionalism necessitates quality policing – a trend that has become a concern for all, thereby attracting more scrutiny in recent times. Therefore, enormous emphasis is now being placed on processes and procedures for the recruitment, selection and training of police officers. Besides, recruitment has become a fundamental component of police accountability that is used to measure the extent to which police organizations are objective in selecting the best candidates from a pool of potential applicants. This provides the rationale for seeking more clarity on selection criteria. The objective of having a robust recruitment and selection standard is to ensure that the best applicant is considered for the job. Hence, appropriate recruitment and selection procedures and standards can help eliminate persons unfit for the job (Schneider, 2009).

In order to reinforce standards, compliance with a strict selection regime for police applicants has become non-negotiable. Criteria such as physical condition, intelligence, moral uprightness (including the conduct of various tests to guarantee qualification for policing) are of critical importance. Furthermore, the conduct of comprehensive
background checks, drug tests and credit and reference checks should not be ignored. Polygraph testing, psychological testing as well as physical agility and fitness tests are equally important for recruitment and selection of police officers (Schneider, 2009). The challenge in recruitment and selection has been the degree to which the required/desirable characteristics can be ascertained. Every selection and recruitment programme ought to consider the fundamental features of effective policing by emphasising: ability to think independently; diversity and ability to perform multiple tasks; and, understanding police work. A great deal of moral and ethical background is crucially important to the attainment of police professionalism.

TRAINING OF POLICE OFFICERS

Training Policy and Standards: 68% of respondents were unanimous that the GPS has no training policy and standards for the delivery of basic and command level training to officers. The remaining 32% disagreed. Nevertheless, a broad policy that regulates police training and capacity building programmes is a fundamental requirement if the GPS is to be effective and professional. The necessity of a comprehensive training policy and standards for the GPS cannot be overemphasized. The development and use of such training standards should be the barometer against which police training in Ghana ought to be measured. This study did not find any evidence of the existence of any such training policy and standards, neither did it find any evidence of police training being conducted in accordance with laid down SOPs for police training.

Training Infrastructure: It was observed that Ghana has different police training institutions for junior and senior officers, namely: the Basic Police Training Schools and POLCOL respectively. The Basic Police Training Schools provides “Basic Police
Training” to junior officers (other ranks) whereas the POLCOL on the other hand trains Cadets to become senior officers (Commissioned Officers) for “Command Level” positions. The Police Training Schools also provide Refresher Courses and Capacity Building Programmes for the “Rank and File”. The POLCOL on the other hand conducts senior level programmes, namely: Cadet Courses, Command and strategic level programmes. However, strategic level training in the form of command courses has not been available. The only way for senior police officers to obtain strategic level training in Ghana is to attend the Ghana Armed Forces Command and Staff College (GAFSC). There are only a few opportunities for police officers to attend courses at the GAFSC and these limited opportunities do not meet the needs of the GPS. Respondents affirmed that, for several years, the GPS has considered establishing a ‘Police Staff College’ but this has not been fully operationalised yet. Consequently, a key strategic level capacity building programme for the training of officers from the rank of Chief Superintendent to Assistant Commissioner of Police is lacking, creating a huge gap in terms of capacity building for strategic level police commanders in Ghana. All respondents alluded to the fact that both the PTS and the POLCOL are not adequately equipped to deliver the required training for both junior officers and commanders. To this effect, the required training infrastructure such as: gymnasium, shooting ranges, simulation centres, driving schools and squares amongst others is just not available. It was observed that society, and for that matter policing, has never been static but rather inherently dynamic. Hence, police culture, concepts, operational plans and strategies also change from time to time, simultaneously necessitating continuous review of police concepts and training in tandem with changes in society. In response to a question about training policy and infrastructure, a male officer with 18 years of experience in the service stated:
‘I understand that there is a Training Policy. That is a standard curriculum for all the PTS. But I have not seen that and I do not know if training is done in accordance with those policies. This comes to the question of what type of police we are looking for. For me simply putting uniforms on civilians and showing them how to salute is not really training. However, there are some levels of academics in police training. But the training schools are not equipped to deliver training. The required training infrastructure is just not available, thus there are no facilities for training and even the timeframe, the duration, and curricular in my opinion is not adequate enough to monitor trainees; build their capacities and to prepare them for effective policing’.

All respondents agreed that the availability of both the required human and material resources to deliver the appropriate police training in Ghana has been a challenge. Human Resources were weak because instructors at the GPS training institutions often lack the motivation, interest and morale to transfer skills to trainees. Furthermore, limited availability of funds for police training in Ghana has been a hindrance to effective capacity building programmes leading to an inability to develop the desired skills amongst officers. Respondents were unanimous that the Police Administration has not been able to develop any viable approach to generating and allocating funds either internally or externally, aside from Government subventions to support training programmes. The resulting effect is evidenced by the huge gaps in developing police capability in support of effective service delivery.

Scope and Context of Training: All respondents mentioned that police trainees at the basic level are taken through an intensive nine-month training programme. During the training, they are taught: drill and duties; physical training; musketry and weapon
handling; service instructions and practical police duties; criminal law; criminal procedure; law of evidence; acts, decrees and laws of Ghana, criminal investigations; psychology; map reading; human rights; police code of conduct and ethics; general knowledge; and, English language among other subjects. However, it was noted that the programme appears to be rather theoretical and lacked the required practical component necessary to nurture the professional competencies of trainees thereby equipping them to conduct daily routine police operations. At the POLCOL, Cadet Officers are taken through a minimum of six (6) to nine (9) months training in the following modules:

- **Police Studies**: Criminal Investigations; Practical Police Management; Police Ethics; Contemporary Policing Issues; and, Basic Officer Skills.

- **Legal Studies**: Acts, Decrees and Laws; Criminal Law; Law of Evidence; Criminal Procedure; and Human Rights.

- **Social Studies**: Sociology and Social Psychology.

- **Management and Communication Studies**: English and Report Writing; Administrative Skills; Principles of Management; and Financial Administration.

- **Physical Training and Drill**: Parade; Musketry/Shooting; and, Physical Training.

It was noted that the scope of the CO Course covers gargantuan professional police practices, although respondents argued that more ought to be done to include simulations and exercises aimed at building practical experience among cadet officers. Furthermore, the extent to which the POLCOL training equips the Cadet Officers with the capacity to appropriately perform their command duties is uncertain.

**Duration of Training**: Basic police training takes an average of nine (9) months while a command level course at the POLCOL takes between six (6) and nine (9) months. 77% of the respondents were unanimous in expressing the view that, the duration of police
training at the basic and command levels are inadequate, and that the training curriculum is inadequate in providing the trainees with the requisite capacity for effective policing. The remaining 23% of respondents considered the duration of GPS training appropriate. A majority of the respondents (77%) argued that the duration for providing training and development to trainees to enable them gain police capability was too short. Furthermore, they were of the view that the critical hindrance to effective police training in Ghana is the problem of 'mass production' of police officers, which occurs after a relatively short period of training. It was alleged that, in most cases, politicians who know very little or nothing about the structure, scope and duration of typical police training drive the mass production of police officers. Obviously, it became clear that the manipulation of police training affected the timeframe for inculcating the required skills and capacity into trainees, and ultimately, the quality of police officers. Finally, all respondents were unanimous in the view that there was lack of practical attachment programmes for trainees to develop what they had learnt during training. Invariably, such practical attachments exist in theory but their implementation is not effective and therefore failed to develop capacity of trainees in any way. A senior commander who had served over 25 years expressed his personal view of the context and duration of police training in Ghana as follows:

‘...today, there are academics in the areas of legal, evidence, map reading, sociology and psychology, including practical police duties and investigation among others during training. But the duration of basic and cadet training is not good enough. Therefore, the time for training and developing the trainees into good police officers is too short. The problem of mass turn-out of police officers on training has also been a
challenge. The mass turn-out is sadly pushed by politicians, which obliviously affects the duration of training and hence the quality of police officers’.

**Post Training Mentoring Programme:** One of the female instructors with over 10 years experience alluded to the non-existence of an effective post training mentoring programme. To this effect she said:

‘No. Even though they claim that people go on attachment, nothing happens or is achieved during such attachments because the implementation of such a programme is either not working or not there at all. There is no supervision, no curriculum, and no mentoring programme for police officers’.

All respondents agreed that the absence of a practical post-training mentoring programme to develop skills and confidence in police trainees is deplorable. Although it was noted that the GPS has an eighteen-month (18) mentoring programme called “Post Depot Training” aimed at developing the professional competence of newly trained officers from the Basic Police Training Schools, this programme only exists in name and does not really work. The programme is supposed to develop and enhance the level of professional competence of newly trained officers by taking them through day-to-day functional police duties such as: operations, patrols, traffic, investigations, report writing, intelligence and surveillance among others. The “post-depot training” segment is structured in such a way that all newly trained officers are placed on probation until they have successfully completed the 18-month practical training. It is only upon the issuance of a report and confirmation that they become fully fledged police officers. All respondents affirmed that the post-depot training, although an excellent capacity
building scheme, lacks an effective strategy and implementation plan. Furthermore, respondent were unanimous that a systematic programme of mentoring, including the review of training policy and standards and the post-depot training programme, is either ineffective or non-existent within the GPS. Consequently, the idea of developing the required practical competencies for police operations is hardly achieved at the end of the training. Furthermore, the aspect of monitoring and evaluating newly trained officers with the aim of identifying the strengths and weaknesses of individual police officers has been lost.

Provision of Strategic Training Guidance: 75% of respondents expressed the view that the GPS has no viable mechanisms for the development, implementation and monitoring of strategic training policy. 15% of respondents disagreed with this view while 10% remained neutral. In support of its viewpoint, the majority postulated that instead of developing doctrines to chart the context and structure of police training in Ghana at the strategic level (for instance at the level of the office of the IGP), the development of training doctrine in the GPS is left in the hands of the respective PTS and the POLCOL. It was observed that the office of the IGP has a research and planning directorate. However, the extent to which that directorate contributes to the overall development, review and implementation of training policy and standards for the GPS remains unclear. A dedicated unit at the strategic level, responsible for the development and implementation of training policy and standards, is vital to the achievement of police professionalism. A female officer with 13 years of experience in the service made the statement below with respect to strategic guidance:

‘I am not aware of any. We may have to refer to the Ghana Police Strategic National Plan 2010 to 2015, but, here too, implementation is another big issue. The application
of the strategic plan appears very confusing because of the erroneous impression that funding is required for everything. However, I see this as attitudinal problem’.

**Ghana Police Strategic National Plan 2010 – 2015:** Respondents unanimously agreed that the GPS has a strategic plan for 2010 - 2015 that maps out a programme of police reform, restructuring and rebuilding during the period. The strategic plan has programmes and benchmarks that provide direction for the implementation of police reform in Ghana. Though a very laudable initiative, it is unclear whether the capability required to operationalize the strategy exists. This is because, it was observed that the efforts to implement the strategic plan fail to take into consideration internationally accepted best practices for the implementation of "Reform, Restructuring and Rebuilding" in Police and Law Enforcement Agencies (LEA). Consequently, the success of the strategic plan could not be guaranteed since there was no evidence to suggest that progress has been made in implementation since its inception in 2010. As indicated above, one of the senior commanders interviewed during the study alluded to various bottlenecks in the implementation strategy of the Ghana Police Strategic Plan. Furthermore, in connection with the implementation of the Ghana Police Strategic Plan, it was observed that the involvement and of strategic direction from the executive branch of government was totally absent. Also lacking was the application of principles of national ownership through the involvement of stakeholder agencies outside the GPS. Besides, it was obvious that the strategic plan avoids the concept of a holistic approach to police reform since there has been no involvement of stakeholders (e.g. the rank and file of the GPS as well as other law enforcement agencies such as the Judicial Service and Corrections) right from the onset.
In analysing the thematic area of training of police officers in Ghana, it is observed that although, prospective applicants seeking entry into the GPS may have all the pre-requisites for good police work such as: higher educational qualifications; excellent physical agility and fitness; and, an exemplary work ethic, they may not be recruited straight away to perform police duties without any training. Upon acceptance, applicants ought to undergo rigorous police training followed by probationary training in the field in order to acquire practical police skills and experience. A good police training policy and standards ought to define the nature and context of police training in Ghana in terms of: scope; duration; appointment of trainers/instructors; practical attachment and post-depot training; training schools; and, facilities. The significance of using a comprehensive training policy and standards as the blue print for all manner of police training and capacity building programmes is paramount. Training policy and standards should be the barometer against which the delivery of police training should be measured. The impact of training practices on police professionalism is a question of fundamental importance in this study. The increasing demand for police professionalism in Ghana calls for the production of knowledgeable police officers through education and training. Yet, policing as a vocation requires trainees to have a solid educational background in order to enable them build the required capability relevant to police operations. According to Walker and Katz (2002), conventional training is considered as the root of reform movements. The key characteristics of policing are synonymous with those of professionalism, namely: a specialized body of knowledge and skills; client orientation and service to humanity; job discretion and ethics among others (Crank et al., 1993; Capps, 1998).

Police professionalism involves possession of a great amount of specialized knowledge and respect for established standards and ethics established by the profession. Police
ethics require fulfilment of the moral responsibility critically associated with policing. In practice, ethics guide what police officers will do or not do, and hence ethical training has become a fundamental component of police training in contemporary times. Unfortunately, the extent to which ethical training influences police professionalism in Ghana is unclear. As has been earlier been alluded to in the literature review, the perception in Ghana is that, the police are not effective because they are not well trained and/or well equipped. They require proper training, resources, remuneration and continued professional development in order to perform in a democratic setting (CHRI, 2007). A Presidential Commission constituted in 1997 to examine the operational effectiveness of the police agreed with the foregoing perception and assigned the following reasons to explain it: 'the present conditions of the Ghana Police Service are deplorable. It is woefullyundermanned, ill-trained and ill-equipped. Its motivation is almost nil and its morale low’ (The Archer Committee Report, 1997). Furthermore, the more recent CHRI (2007), which focused on police training made the following proposals for police reform in Ghana:

‘recruitment and training must be revised. ... this means aiming to recruit police officers with a good level of basic education. Training systems must be re-designed to build a thorough foundation in accountability concepts, human rights, and practical application of ideas to new entrants. In addition, training ought to be structured, constant and ongoing to ensure that all officers are equipped with the appropriate levels of training and skills’.

(CHRI, 2007:66)

In spite of the foregoing, recruitment and training of personnel alone are not sufficient to bring about police professionalism. The benefits of both are lost if they are not
reinforced by an effective and inspirational management system (Mastrofski, 1999). Contrarily, Newham and Maroga (2004) posit that, if police management focuses on improving management systems and police culture, there is the likelihood that police officers could be reformed and thereby attain professionalism. It is equally important to consider the arguments of Funk and Wagnalls (1982) as earlier cited in the literature review that, training encompasses systematic practical instruction and drill relating to vocational and applied practice. However, education is concerned with the philosophy of teaching the subject matter of policing, based on the principles of academic discipline. Hence, training is the practical hands-on vocational aspect of policing delivered through instructions. It is therefore pertinent for police officers to undergo and complete a properly designed training programme (Funk and Wagnalls, 1982).

The GPS has six (6) basic police training schools in the country. The National Police Training School (NPTS) in Accra, established in 1930, serves as the HQ and coordinating institution for basic police training in Ghana. NPTS was established for training recruits and under cadet officers as well as providing refresher and promotion courses for junior officers (other ranks). In addition to the NPTS, there are five (5) other regional PTS that were established to perform the specific functions (Ghana Police Service Instructions). The PTS in Kumasi in the Ashanti region was established in 1948 to train recruits and conduct refresher courses. PTS in Koforidua in the Eastern Region was established in 1952 for the training of recruits. The PTS in Ho in the Volta region was also established in 1961 for the training of recruits. The PTS in Winneba in the Central region was established in 1970 originally as a Border Guard Training School but was later converted into a PTS for the training of police recruits. The last of the Police Training Schools to be established is the PTS in Pwalugu, near Bolgatanga in the
Upper East Region in 2004 for the training of recruits (Ghana Police Service Instructions).

It is paramount to recall that there is a link between recruitment criteria and the training of police officers in Ghana. Therefore, at the basic level, police trainees in Ghana are taken through an intensive nine-month training programme covering various areas previously noted in this chapter. An examination of the courses taught during the nine-month programme indicates that the scope of police training in Ghana covers an enormous amount of contemporary police practice. However, it has been observed that the programme appears to be theoretical and lacks the practical aspects relevant for the nurturing and development of specific professional competencies trainees required to perform routine daily police operations.

Furthermore, the collapse of the eighteen (18) month “Post-Depot Training” mentoring programme for newly trained officers leaving the Basic Police Training Schools, which was originally aimed at developing the professional competence of officers, has further relegated police training in Ghana to a mere theoretical exercise. The necessity of having a practical training component as part of the practical attachment programmes for trainees cannot be overemphasized if police trainees are to synthesise what they have learnt during training and also enhance their skills, confidence and performance. Furthermore, the need to monitor and evaluate newly trained officers so as to identify their individual strengths and weaknesses cannot be exaggerated in any police organization.

The complexity of GPS training has been the effective implementation of training standards through the application of policy to the existence of the required training infrastructure. The various PTS and POLCOL were not adequately equipped to deliver training at both the junior officer and command levels. Capitalizing on the researchers
own practical experience as a police training officer for the ASF who has paid numerous
visits to various police training institutions across Africa and Europe, it is observed that
a police college having the status of a centre of excellence such as the Centre of
Excellence for Stability Police Unit (COESPU) (www.carabinieri.it/coespu) requires a
good level of training infrastructure. This infrastructure may be classified into two
groups, namely general infrastructure and training equipment. To this effect, the
required general infrastructure may include: bedrooms (dormitories); classrooms; mess
(cafeteria); depot for storage of equipment used in public order and high-risk operations;
armoury for storage of weapons and teargas; and, computer laboratory. Training
facilities such as: an indoor shooting range; firearms training simulator; gymnasium
with equipment for self-defense and arrest technique training; Command Post Exercise
(CPX) room; briefing room with video telephone conference (VTC) and recording
systems are also necessities. Furthermore, the availability of: reproduction or printing
facilities; welfare and restoration area; religious facilities such as churches, mosques
and prayer rooms; a fully-equipped clinic (infirmary); a police station and detention
facility; a helicopter landing zone (HLZ) for training; square; training area for obstacle
courses involving towers, ropes and prefabricated buildings; and, interactive light
firearms simulation training systems among others is critical to effective police training.
In view of the foregoing, the GPS cannot boast of a single training school or college
with a full complement of the above listed infrastructure. Indeed, the type of police
organisation required by the country will definitely influence the nature of police
training and hence the training infrastructure required. Ghanaians will have to think
generally about police professionalism and hence the form of police training required to
ensure that the GPS is effective and efficient.
In addition to the above findings, qualitative and quantitative analyses were also used to assess the extent to which the GPS complied with the overall framework of policy and standards for recruitment and training of police officers in Ghana. Statistical analyses were performed in eight keys areas within the thematic subject matter of policy and standards for recruitment and training as indicated below. From the analyses, 61.3% of respondents alluded to the lack of policy and standards for recruitment as well as inadequate training and mentoring programmes in the GPS. However, 38.8% of respondents were neutral and had no comment on the subject matter. Yet, the results as shown in the table, graph and pie chart below affirms the argument that the GPS does not have policy and standards for recruitment and training.

<table>
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<th>Serial</th>
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<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>Conduct of Background Checks</td>
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<td>Availability of Training Curriculum</td>
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<td>Appropriateness of Duration of Training</td>
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Figure 5.1: Bar Graph showing Policy and Standards for Recruitment and Training

Figure 5.2: Pie Chart showing Policy and Standards for Recruitment and Training

Results presented above also support findings made in the thematic area of capacity building and career development discussed below. In addition, in-service training and
police code of conduct captured in the section below have been statistically analysed above. Finally, it is pertinent to emphasise that, the data analysed above, confirmed the fundamental basis of the study in line with the research design and key debates of this thesis.

CAPACITY BUILDING AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT

**In-service Training:** All respondents unanimously alluded to the fact that, the Police Administration organizes courses of between four (4) to six (6) weeks duration for junior officers from the ranks of Lance Corporal to the Inspectorate. Also, intermediate and senior command courses are organized for commissioned officers from the ranks of ASP to C/SUPT (See Appendix C2 for the GPS ranking structure). The respondents noted that, capacity building programmes for the police in Ghana was rather irregular and had not been entrenched into the culture of the GPS. Furthermore, it was observed that a consistent career development plan for senior commanders of the GPS was conspicuously absent. The only comprehensive career development programme for senior officers was the CO Course at the POLCOL that prepared officers for the command level. Regarding in-service training, the experience of one male respondent with 18 years of active service is hereby quoted:

‘I cannot say yes and I cannot say no. This is because every police administration comes with a different arrangement. They try to do something and this is dependent on the whims and caprices of the said administration. For example, I passed out in 1994 as a police officer and, until I entered the Police College as a CO, the only training that I had was to go to the DTS (Detective Training School). So, when you become an officer and you don’t build your own capacity, you get nothing’.
The spirit and culture of orientation courses and other relevant career development programmes was rather minimal and sometimes totally absent. Therefore, a systematic, internally generated programme of in-service training for all ranks did not exist within the GPS. Furthermore, the limited number of career development training programmes designed for officers were also not properly structured to provide the desired benefits to trainees and the organization as a whole. In-service training courses for junior officers were also theoretical in nature - devoid of practical exercises, lessons learnt and best practices. In a particular instance in 2009, an in-service training programme for junior officers from the ranks of Lance Corporal to Sergeant lumped together all the officers falling within those ranks for training purposes - a practice that was unanimously criticized by all respondents. In such circumstances, it would have been most appropriate to match roles and responsibilities so as to develop specific capabilities thereby enhancing the individual performance of each of the officers being trained.

To this effect, the respondents held the view that the practice of lumping officers of various ranks into one training programme and exposing them to the same syllabus was inappropriate. Besides, it was felt that the course should have been segregated for specific ranks since roles and responsibilities within the ranks were different. Therefore, the classification of in-service training for officers is vital to building specific and specialized capabilities within officers in the areas of basic, cadet, specialized and advanced courses. Particularly, the classification of police training institutions into basic, cadet, specialized and advanced courses would have been the ideal approach for training purposes as discussed below:

a. Police Operations and Special Duties – In addition to the Basic and Cadet Training, officers deployed for specialized duties such as Very
Important Persons Protection (VIPP) among others ought to have specific skills to enhance their effectiveness. Other specific functional areas of operation that require enhanced police skills and certification of competence include weapons handling, patrols, traffic duties, highway operations, and search and rescue operations. The availability of continuous training programme that provide skills to officers in their respective functional areas of police operations remains unclear.

b. Criminal Investigations: Furthermore, capacity building for officers in general investigations, forensics, intelligence, fingerprinting, genetics and other essential areas of criminal investigations deployed in the CID was identified as being inadequate. A dedicated CID Training School ought to be established and continuously maintained. It was observed that the GPS has no specialised Detective Training School (DTS) for the training of detectives.

c. Communications and Information Technology: Communications and Information Technology (CIT) has become a useful tool in the command and control of any police organization. Consequently, respondents were unanimous that the GPS cannot operate effectively without a viable CIT infrastructure and training. Unfortunately, it was observed that the GPS lacks reliable CIT systems and capabilities, as well as an effective command, control, communication and information system (C3IS) training and infrastructure (which had collapsed). The GPS Communications Division Training School is no more functional. Therefore, the need to have a well-structured C3IS strategy and infrastructure for the GPS was recognized to be pertinent.
In light of the foregoing, it is argued that proactive approaches to training and capacity building must be aggressively pursued if the GPS is to attain the desired level of capability and competency to operate successfully in a democratic setting.

TRAINERS/RESOURCE PERSONS/MENTORS:

Policy for Selection of Trainers and Mentors: Commenting on the issue of standard criteria for the selection of trainers, mentors and resource persons, a female officer with 21 years of experience in the service remarked as follows:

‘I am not sure of the existence of a policy. So, I think there is no policy. For example, when I graduated from the Ghana Police College, my CO mates who had Education Degrees were rather posted to District Commands, whereas those with General Arts Degrees were posted to the PTS. Why? Because there was no policy and criteria. They can just post anybody anywhere without recourse to your background, simply because of the misconception that once you are a Police Officer you can work anywhere’.

About 80% of the respondents said that there was no policy regulating the selection of trainers and mentors. It was therefore noted that Ghanaian police officers were mostly employed for specific functions such as the general and professional duties, including the various trades. To this effect, professionally trained teachers and psychologists were recruited to perform specific tasks in the area of police training, particularly instructors. However, lack of adequate training and relevant capacity building programmes for such professionals was a challenge. The absence of a technically viable approach to the selection of resource persons and the monitoring of performance was noted to be
deficient. Furthermore, although officers were specifically recruited for instructional work, some of them end up being deployed to other branches of the police such as the Motor Traffic and Transport Unit (MTTU), the CID and other operational units of the service instead. The need for strict enforcement of rules and regulation is pertinent for the GPS if professionalism is to be achieved. It was also noted that the ineffective implementation of policy and procedures was a consequence of lack of courage from police leadership to ensure that the right things were done. Furthermore, the use of appropriate training standards to change the perception of officers thereby enabling them to understand contemporary democratic policing as a service to humanity is yet to be fulfilled.

Criteria for Selection of Police Trainers: All respondents unanimously affirmed that, the GPS has no criteria for the employment of instructors. The view expressed by a police commander with 25 years of experience in the service in response to a question on selection criteria of mentors summarizes the overall viewpoint of respondents:

‘...there is no criteria, and I cannot say much here. But, to a large extent, training of Mentors/Trainers will definitely generate confidence for delivery and skills development. The criteria should be that, those with education degrees should be selected to become trainers/mentors. Apart from the educational degree background, the trainers should have practical police experience. This brings about the necessity for a combination of teaching skills, educational background and practical police experience’.

The need for a police training programme to build capacity, develop competencies and enhance performance in the organization is fundamental and non-negotiable. Therefore,
any selection process that fails to identify the right calibre of trainers does not measure up to the standard. However, monitoring and assessment of trainers to determine their capabilities and the impact of knowledge transfer was evidently absent. It was observed that the evaluation of instructors for purposes of identifying the good ones in order to keep them at post was sadly not part of the training system. Furthermore, trainers must have the capacity and morale to instruct and to transform the heart and minds of trainees. The ideal approach for the selection of trainers must be based on policy and driven by the desire to build capabilities and maintain the skills of officers. In this vein, a system of internal and external advertisement of positions for instructors to be recruited into the training institutions must be the most appropriate approach. Such a system must, at the very minimum, involve a search for interested and qualified applicants for the job, shortlisting, interviewing and selection of the best candidates based on merit. Within this framework, upon appointment, officers ought to be taken through Trainer of Trainers (TOT) courses to build their capability for instruction. Besides, it was observed that the administration of follow-on capacity building programmes from time to time to improve skills and also maintain and upgrade standards is critical for police effectiveness. Finally, an exit strategy for instructors needs to be established so that officers who get tired in one line of duty may be appropriately replaced.

Duration and Scope of In-service Training: Invariably, all respondents alluded to the fact that there was no definite standardised duration of in-service training programmes. The duration of all categories of career development and capacity building initiatives for officers in the GPS lacks clarity and hence requires further development. With respect to the scope and content of in-service training programmes, it was noted that the GPS has developed syllabi for promotion courses applicable to all ranks within the junior
officer category (i.e. from constable to the inspectorate ranks). These initiatives constitute a significant landmark in the development and use of policy guidelines in the administration of GPS. However, what remains unclear is the extent to which the implementation of the programme could develop skills and enhance performance, influence change in attitudes and build the required capacity among trainees.

It is pertinent to expatiate further on capacity building and career development. In-service training and orientation programmes have not been entrenched in the culture of the GPS. Furthermore, a consistent career development plan for senior commanders of the service is non-existent. The only comprehensive career development programme for senior officers is the CO Course at POLCOL. Apart from the CO Course, there was nothing in respect of orientation and career development training after the course. The same is true with regard to the Basic Police Training Course at the PTS. Particularly, the development and classification of police training programmes aimed at building capacity is indispensable in the effort towards achieving police professionalism in Ghana. It is important for police officers to undertake practical exercises in every facet of police operations during and after their training. This will enhance confidence and assurance in conducting the day-to-day routine work required of every officer. Consequently, there is an urgent need to build confidence in officers while delivering services to the people. Therefore, to achieve professionalism, it is paramount for police officers to be competent and to have high self-esteem in the performance of day-to-day police duties. These competencies must include: station orderly duties; report writing and statement taking; arrests and detention; election monitoring and observation; patrolling; cordonning and search; VIP protection and guard duties; road blocks and check points; rescue operations; use of basic police accoutrements; appearance and courtesy to the public; and, conduct and discipline. It is imperative that every police
officer in Ghana is familiar with the above core policing tasks before she/he commences police operations as an officer on the beat. However, having knowledge of police doctrine and confidence in delivering same is only part of what is required to provide professional policing services to the people of Ghana. The need to also establish a broad-based specialized training regime for officers in the such critical areas of policing like: criminal investigations including intelligence; public order management and crowd control operations; traffic management; peacekeeping operations; humanitarian and disaster management operations is fundamentally critical to the culture of police professionalism in Ghana. Besides, the urgent need to re-establish the Detective Training School (DTS) for CID operations cannot be overemphasized. It is therefore paramount for the Government of Ghana (GoG) to take steps to ensure the re-establishment and effective functioning of the DTS. It is equally important to design and deliver routine refresher courses or retreats for various categories of police commanders namely: Station Officers; District Commanders; Unit Commanders; Divisional Commanders; and, Regional Commanders. Such career development programmes will build capacity among officers thereby contributing to the attainment of effectiveness and professionalism within the GPS. An annual strategic retreat for Schedule Officers at the Headquarters aimed at improving command and control and the administration of the GPS could also be considered.

Ghana is surrounded by French speaking countries. Knowledge of French language by Ghanaian police officers will undoubtedly enhance regional cooperation and collaboration in networking and in the area of international policing initiatives. International police cooperation necessitates interoperability amongst various police forces, particularly through the International Police Association (Interpol) and within the requirements of the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA).
Proactive approaches to training and capacity building must be aggressively pursued if the GPS is to attain the desired capability and competencies to successfully execute its mandate in a democratic Ghana. Consequently, the culture of consistency in training and retraining within the GPS system, which seems to be dead, ought to be robustly revived. Training and retraining is synonymous with the philosophy of accountability for effectiveness in the conduct of police operations with a view to attaining legitimacy and encouraging continual innovations (Travis and Stone, 2011). As such, today, the GPS cannot ignore police professionalism, which is concerned with total dedication and commitment to higher standards, esteemed values and constant self-improvement in the provision of service to humanity. Therefore, there is an urgent need to overhaul police training programmes, including basic, cadet, specialized and in-service training in Ghana.

POLICE EFFECTIVENESS AND PROFESSIONALISM

Police Professionalism: A male senior commander with 27 years of experience in the GPS described police effectiveness and professionalism in the following words:

‘Somebody’s effectiveness depends on the training he/she has had, the resources he/she has and the support from both the public and the police administration. We cannot also ignore the importance of motivation for police officers. I think the efficiency of the Ghana Police Service as of 2012 should be about 65 to 70%. This is because the motivation and resources were somehow good with the introduction of enhanced remuneration. The salary is good and officers are highly motivated. The problem that I see is the support from the public and related police management, including administrative support. Police professionalism has to do with how the public see our
performance of duties. That is, our skills and responses to traffic duties, patrols, investigations and the appropriate use of rules and regulations among others’.

All respondents were unanimous in their understanding of the meaning of police professionalism in Ghana. Here, police professionalism represents the ability to perform police functions efficiently and effectively in accordance with national laws, ethical codes of conduct and international best practices. It was also noted that elements such as courteousness, sensitivity to the people, upholding human rights and accountability to the law rather than to political authority were key embodiments of police professionalism in Ghana. However, respondents were of the view that professionalism is very difficult to achieve if the police lacks the required competencies desired of the profession to deliver its tasks. In addition, respondents agreed that without political support from the Executive branch of government and the populace, the achievement of police professionalism could be severely impeded. Furthermore, respondents unanimously agreed that police training in Ghana did not really bring out the required level of effectiveness necessary to attain professionalism in officers since capacity building was not good enough in the organization. The problem of inadequate training has obviously dented the professional image of the GPS. The organization has many partially trained officers who lack the capability to perform effectively and therefore have the propensity to create more problems rather than provide solutions. A proficient training policy ought to drive the capacity building efforts of the GPS, but the nonexistence of guidelines undermines the vision of turning out competent officers to perform routine police duties. On the other hand, respondents considered police effectiveness to mean the timely response to calls for service and the effective
management of such calls as desired. To this end, the GPS is obliged to conduct its roles and responsibilities transparently and competently.

**Police Capacity and Performance:** All respondents were unanimously categorical that the GPS had the capacity to conduct its tasks efficiently and effectively. A Police Commander with 27 years of experience in the GPS expressed the following viewpoint:

>‘The broader picture is that officers perform by rules and regulations. The problem of monitoring evaluation and not “Carrot and Stick” orders is critical to performance. Officers may have the skills but who punishes them for non-performance? The situation where officers are being given work for life appears a mirage and this is a fundamental problem. For example, an incident is reported and an officer knows what to do but rather looks at personal gains and refuses to perform? What happens to the officer from the superiors? And if the superior does nothing, what happens?  The question is not skills but rather monitoring as well as penalty for non-performance’.

From the foregoing, it was observed that in recent times, the support (in terms of provision of logistics and remuneration) provided by the Ghanaian taxpayer and the government to the GPS has been remarkable. To justify the use of the taxpayers' money in this manner, the GPS only needs to demonstrate a commitment to its duties as constitutionally mandated. However, there are complexities in the way and manner in which the GPS conducts its business. It was observed that police responses to service calls are, in some cases, selective and lackadaisical, often attributed to lack of manpower and inadequate resources. Nevertheless, respondents argued that the police ought to manage and utilize the available resources appropriately since no police organization anywhere in the world has at its disposal all the resources required to carry
out its tasks. The way forward is to identify priorities and to efficiently deploy available resources for the benefit of the organization as well as for training and re-training, including continuous capacity building of officers. This view is aptly captured in the extract below from a female respondent who served the GPS for over 10 years:

‘if you do not have adequate resources, “use common sense”. The GPS must do with available resources. The proper utilization of available resources is thus the issue’.

In contemporary practice, the provision of equipment, capacities and enhanced remuneration alone cannot improve police performance. The need to develop the right capability and perceptions among individual police officers is fundamental to the achievement of police effectiveness and professionalism.

Code of Conduct and Ethics: All respondents mentioned that the GPS has a Code of Conduct and Ethics. To this effect, there was in existence, a Code of Conduct and Ethics as well as a GPS Handbook that regulated the conduct of officers in their day-to-day activities and of substantive police duties. Furthermore, the GPS had published and enforced the use of a pocket-sized notebook on Standing Orders entitled ‘Code of Conduct/Ethics for Ghana Police Service’. The Code of Conduct and Ethics focuses on the protection of the rights and freedom of individuals through the use of democratic policing principles, ethical and legal processes. Among other things, the book specifically enjoins officers to: perform tasks impartially in line with existing laws; respect and protect human dignity and uphold the rights of all persons; be transparent in the execution of duties without any biases; be courteous and respectful to the people; and, uphold the rule of law. A male respondent with 5 years experience in the GPS summed up the responses obtained on the ethical code of conduct as follows:
‘Yes the GPS has a code of ethical conduct. The GPS recently published a code of conduct. In addition, we have the Ghana Police Service Instructions that define SOPs that regulate the conduct of the organization.’

Career Development Initiatives: All respondents were in agreement that an effective career development strategy for the GPS is yet to be established. Respondents were unanimous that orientation programmes, continuous training and retraining were never guaranteed for officers of the GPS. To this effect a police HRD expert had stated that:

‘We all understand the importance of professional development in every organization. We also recognize the fact that, it will enhance management and the day-to-day service delivery to the populace. But because, there is no institutional capacity development of officers including grooming of officers at the top echelon, there is virtually no capacity. Sincerely, this is not the fault of officers because the organization has no standard career development programme for officers’.

Besides, an efficient appraisal system for the assessment of officers (including those in the junior ranks) to determine whether or not their performance is satisfactory is severely lacking. It was noted that there was no results-based management systems for evaluating the performance of police officers on the basis of their main responsibilities as set out in their job descriptions. Consequently, there was virtually no practical link between performances on the one hand and promotions, salary increments and retention on the other hand within the human resource programme of the GPS. Experiences gleaned from best performing police and/or law enforcement institutions around the
world demonstrate that periodic appraisal of officers provides a basis or incentive for enhancing performance, maintaining standards and identifying hard working officers for awards. In spite of the foregoing, the GPS does not use such results-based management systems for the appraisal of police officers in Ghana as part of its career development strategy.

**Preparation of Officers for Higher Responsibilities:** In practice, exceptionally good officers must be identified and provided the necessary training to take up the management of the organization. Unfortunately, the GPS had no strategy for developing the capacities of brilliant officers to take on key management roles in the future. 85% of respondents observed that most officers had to struggle on their own to build their individual capacities without any support from the organization. The relevance of a sustainable career development programme to the success of every organization cannot be overemphasized and hence the GPS cannot gloss over this critical element of human resource practice. A male respondent with 15 years of experience in the GPS remarked that:

‘Career development path in the GPS is zero. Almost all the experienced officers that the Ghana Police boasts off today sadly developed themselves on their own initiative. The Police as an organization needs to groom and develop its officers for future appointments. But this is rather an individual affair and not an institutional programme’.

**Oversight and Accountability Mechanisms:** The reactions of respondents to the availability of oversight and accountability mechanisms in the GPS are succinctly summed up in the quote below:
‘Yes. We have the Police Intelligence and Professional Standards Bureau (PIPS) within the GPS. We also have the Police Internal Audit Unit. Both PIPS and the Internal Audit Unit are internal mechanisms. Although these mechanisms are not bad for now there are some challenges. Externally, we have the Commission for Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ) and the Media as well as Civil Society that ensure that the police remain accountable to the law’.

From the foregoing, it is clear that there was no independent police accountability and oversight mechanism in Ghana. It was posited that in order to be truly independent, an oversight and accountability mechanism ought to be external in nature and outside the control of the GPS and the government in power. Also, there was no permanent independent body external to the GPS in existence to receive and address day-to-day complaints of police misconduct. Complaints about police infractions were either made to the police themselves directly or through electronic or print media reports (newspaper reviews, radio and television broadcasts). Thus, in practice, what pertains in Ghana as far as police oversight and accountability mechanisms went was located within the GPS itself, which was neither independent nor autonomous. It was noted that there was in existence in Ghana several independent oversight and accountability institutions such as the Police Council, CHRAJ and the Parliament of Ghana, as well as other quasi-judicial bodies. However, they did not really have the day-to-day oversight responsibility of receiving complaints about the GPS and addressing them. Rather, the system was under the command and control of the IGP and implemented by the Police Intelligence and Professional Standards Bureau (PIPS). The question then is: how can the GPS police itself? Similarly, the Internal Audit Unit of the GPS conducted assessments of police
work in accordance with Police Policy and Procedures and the Police Service Instructions among other regulations. Hence, appraisals of police accountability in Ghana have been internally managed under the command and control of the IGP. The dilemma here is whether a transparent accountability function could ever be achieved under the command and control of the IGP?

Public Perception of the Ghana Police Service: Indeed, all respondents were unanimous about the negative image that the public held about the GPS. In response to the question of public perception, a senior police officer who has served over 20 years in the GPS noted as follows:

‘This is relative. It is dependent on the experiences of the public/individual. If things go in favour of the individual, the police are professional. On the other hand, if they do not go in the favour of the individual then, the police are unprofessional. At the same time, the behaviour of some officers at the Ghana Police Traffic and some patrol Units who deal with the public and transport operators on a daily basis has dented the image of GPS. Through the activities of these officers, the public perceives the GPS as being corrupt’.

The perception is quite disappointing. Within the periphery of professionalism, the GPS was considered as part of an ineffective and corrupt Public Service. The police were also seen as a branch of a corrupt government whose objective was the protection of the government in power, politicians and the powerful in society. Nevertheless, the police in Ghana have traditionally been linked to the government, leading to the popular nickname “Aban”, an “Akan word” meaning government. Furthermore, the lack of confidence in the police has been linked to numerous complaints of corruption through
the extortion of money from individuals and the abuse of people’s fundamental human rights. From the foregoing, it was observed that the GPS is perceived as a branch of government that has become subservient to political authority instead of focusing on the provision of service to humanity. The GPS has therefore been tagged as insensitive to the people, politically biased, brutal in character, and not amenable to change even within the framework of contemporary democratic policing practice. It was also seen as a service that has the potential to perform better but instead, continues to work under colonial policing model.

Political Interference: In response to the issue of political interference, a top police commander with about 30 years of experience in the GPS stated as follows:

‘Yes and No. Yes, this has to do with the mode of appointment of the IGP. The President appoints the IGP. I think the IGP should be selected based on merit through interviews, and the most qualified applicant should be appointed. This is my personal opinion. No, because, I see the issue of political interference as a perception of the people. The situation where the opposition in Ghana wrongly aligns the police to the government in power is inappropriate’.

75% of respondents argued that there were complexities in the adherence to neutrality and delineation from political interference in the administration of the GPS. However, 25% were not sure about the existence of political influence in the GPS. They claimed that the alleged political influence was only a matter of perception. The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana adds to the complexity of the matter. Article 200(1) provides that the President of the Republic shall appoint the IGP in consultation with the Council of State. The government also appoints the Head of the CID and the
Commissioners of Police at the National HQ. Furthermore, the Vice President of the Republic of Ghana serves as the chairman of the GPS Council while the Minister of Interior has political control of the Police. 80% of respondents argued that the government should not have the power to appoint the IGP. This would have guaranteed that the GPS has a certain measure of independence devoid of the perceived incidence of political interference. However, in practice, the appointing authority naturally has control of the management of the GPS. The resulting effect is that the government overtly and covertly exercises operational control over the Police Administration in their day-to-day work.

The analysis of police effectiveness and professionalism commences with the Ghana Police Strategic National Plan 2010 – 2015: The GPS has a strategic plan 2010 to 2015 that maps out a programme of reform, restructuring and rebuilding of the organization during the period. The strategic plan fails to recognize acceptable best practices for the implementation of “Reform, Restructuring and Rebuilding” of Police and Law Enforcement Agencies (LEA). Furthermore, the GPS is not an isolated organisation within the framework of Security Services in Ghana. As such, the GPS should have collaborated with all stakeholders including the judiciary and corrections in the development and implementation of such a strategic plan. The strategic plan lacked any strategic direction from the executive branch of government. It also did not reflect the holistic approach and the concept of national ownership. Together, the foregoing constitutes a serious obstacle to the successful implementation of the plan. The need for the GPS to have considered acceptable best practices for the implementation of the plan as outlined in the United Nations policy on the “Reform, Restructuring and Rebuilding” of LEA from the onset cannot be overemphasized.
Unfortunately, standards for the implementation of Police Reform Strategy were not considered in the development of the Ghana Police National Strategic Plan. Therefore, the strategic plan fails to take into account the importance of contemporary approaches to Police reform. To this effect, the GPS did not benefit from lessons learnt and best practices associated with “Reform, Restructuring and Rebuilding” of Police and/or Law enforcement agencies such as:

- The involvement of all stakeholders from the inception phase.
- Availability of political will to support the process.
- Emphasis for the project to support the domestic process.
- National ownership and skills transfer.
- Availability of resources and management mechanism(s).
- Holistic approach and the inclusion of the judiciary and other security institutions.
- Technical competencies for the implementation of the project.
- Monitoring and evaluation of the process and the establishment of an all-inclusive National Police Reform Implementation Task Force.

(UN Policy Guidelines for Police Reform, Restructuring and Rebuilding, 2006)

As explained in the review of literature, professionalism concerns the quest for excellence and competency between the client, the firm and oneself (Maister, 1997). According to Travis and Stone (2011), police command and control has been concerned with the new philosophy of stricter accountability for effectiveness in the conduct of police operations with a view to attaining legitimacy and encouraging incessant innovations. Therefore, the aim of professionalism in policing are to attain effectiveness and improved service delivery while ensuring that the processes of identifying and
recruiting police officers through formal education and appropriate training standards (Schneider, 2009) are in place to attract the light calibre of officers.

In line with the chosen research methodology, the extent to which the GPS is effective and professional has been statistically analysed and presented in a table, graph and pie chart below. In a bid to statistically examine the levels of effectiveness and professionalism within the GPS, a specific question to that effect was posed to all respondents. All respondents held the view that the GPS was not necessarily effective in the conduct of its functions as desired. Hence, the results presented below show that a total of about 81.54% of respondents supported the argument that the GPS faces many challenges in achieving police professionalism.
Table 5.2: The extent to which the GPS is Effectiveness and Professional

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial</th>
<th>Grading</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Not Effective</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>To A Lesser Extent</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>To Some Extent</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>56.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>To A Large Extent</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Figure 5.3: Bar Graph showing the extent to which the GPS is Effectiveness and Professional
Figure 5.4: Pie chart showing the extent to which the GPS is Effectiveness and Professional

The total of 81.54% representing both respondents who ticked "to a lesser extent" and "to some extent" supported the debate that GPS was not an organization that champions police professionalism. As elaborated in the pie chart above, 57% of respondents claimed that the GPS was professional only "to some extent", thereby indicating that they were not entirely sure about the level of professionalism in the GPS. About 25% of respondents considered the GPS to be professional "to a lesser extent". Only 18% of respondents considered the GPS to be professional "to a large extent". To this effect, the
quantitative data provided in this section does support the central hypothesis of this research.

Nonetheless, the central tenet of police professionalism is compliance with the ethical code of conduct of the police organization. In the GPS, a Code of Conduct and an Ethical Handbook that regulate performance of day-to-day police duties have been in existence and complied with by officers. Furthermore, over the years, the GPS has institutionalised the use of a pocket size notebook entitled ‘Code of Conduct/Ethics for Ghana Police Service’, thereby demonstrating a commitment on the part of the service to ensure that officers are cognisant of, and comply with, ethical rules/procedures including best practices. The primary concern of police code of conduct and ethics is the protection of human rights and freedoms through democratic policing principles as well as ethical and legal conduct. Notwithstanding the foregoing, the level of police professionalism in Ghana could be greatly enhanced with the introduction of a comprehensive training programme on the GPS code of conduct as well as a system of rewards and penalties for compliance and infractions respectively.

In contemporary democratic practice, public perception of the GPS is paramount to police legitimacy in Ghana. Unfortunately however, the public perceives the GPS as part of an ineffective and corrupt Public Service. In this regard, the close link between the GPS and the government may have worsened the plight of the Police in Ghana. Furthermore, the general public's lack of confidence in the police has been linked to the behaviour and corrupt practices of some officers of the MTTU through the extortion of money from drivers and the abuse of police legitimacy. An extract from the CHRI (2007) study on public perception of GPS is enlightening and quoted below:

‘Over the years, the image of the GPS has been synonymous with bribery and
corruption. A corruption perception survey conducted by the Ghana Integrity Initiative, the local branch of Transparency International, indicates that the Ghana Police Service is unrivalled as far as corruption is concerned’

(CHRI, 2007: 28-29)

Farris (1982) argues that the proper performance of police tasks entails strict application of relevant code(s) of conduct and ethics with the moral sense of police officers authority in conducting business. Morality concerns fairness and equity in policing based on the golden rule that: ‘do unto others only what you would like others to do unto you’. To this effect, the moral reasoning has been described as the capability to differentiate between good and bad, right and wrong, and just and unjust (Schneider, 2009). Consequently, police officers ought to be independent moral ambassadors. Besides, officers ought to be able to make moral decisions on the grounds of individual ethical values, different from the perception of other people. It is important for police officers to consider ethical values as fundamental elements of the police organization. To this effect, being a professional police officer implies an undertaking to do what is appropriately expected of a police officer; thus a professional police officer bears a moral, ethical and legal obligation to perform his/her duties in the right manner. According to Neyroud (2003), ethical rules and codes of conduct for police officers originated from corruption in policing and the need to introduce fairness, justice and uprightness in the conduct of day-to-day police operations. Extreme care must be taken to ensure that corruption does not undermine professionalism in any police organization with problems of legitimacy such as: waste of scarce resources; operational ineffectiveness; lack of public trust in the police; and, political interference.
From the foregoing, it is clear that police corruption in Ghana has many implications. It was observed that there were challenges in maintaining an appearance of neutrality and in the avoidance of political interference in the administration of the GPS. The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana, Article 200(1) by itself made the complexity rather gloomy. It provided that the President of the Republic in consultation with the Council of States shall appoints the IGP. The Vice President of the Republic of Ghana is the Chairman of the Police Service Council. Respondents have argued that, the government should not have had the power in appointing the IGP. However, as it were, the appointing authorities naturally have control in their appointees. The end result would be political control the GPS. Some Senior Police Officers in Ghana have had unpleasant encounters with politicians while performing their duties. Many of such officers’ ended up either being transferred or reprimanded by the police administration for not yielding to the wishes of these politicians. Furthermore, in recent times, the tendency has been for politicians to hijack the police recruitment process as a source of employment for their loyal supporters. This is due to the weakness of the Police Administration and its inability to resist political control in ensuring that the GPS is managed in line with established policy and procedures.

The data collected also revealed that there was no strategic direction and guidance for police reform in Ghana. In practice, it should be the responsibility of the executive branch of government, acting through the Police Council, the Ministry of Interior and the Office of the IGP, to provide guidance and direction for police reform in Ghana. Unfortunately, the development of training policy and standards is sadly left in the hands of the respective PTS and POLCOL. It is important for a country to define the context and nature of its policing, since policing is about the provision of services to humanity. Besides, democracy and democratic policing require transparency, fairness,
accountability and service delivery. Consequently, the need for the people of Ghana to
determine the nature and context of policing cannot be overemphasised. To this effect,
the pursuit of police professionalism cannot be left exclusively to the police
organisation alone but rather, the people of Ghana ought to be concerned with the type
of policing they wanted. Since the people have elected representatives to govern the
country on their behalf, it is incumbent on the representatives, the people and
stakeholders to provide strategic thinking and direction for policing in Ghana.
Unfortunately, even though the GoG instituted a Presidential Commission to propose
comprehensive reforms within the GPS as far back as 1996, the recommendations of the
Commission are yet to be implemented. At the same time, if the people of Ghana
continue to delegate policing and police reform to the GPS alone, then the effective,
efficient, transparent and the accountable policing that they require will be a delusion.

The development of policies, procedures and guidelines for the administration of the
GPS cannot be ignored if professionalism is to be attained. The police cannot work in a
vacuum and ought to be governed by rules and regulations. The 1992 Constitution of
Ghana provides the legal basis and mandate for the police in Ghana. However, beyond
the Constitution, it is unclear whether the GPS has developed the mandates captured in
the constitution into workable SOPs. In the light of the above, it is paramount for the
executive to be involved in developing standards and policy for the GPS since the
pursuit of professionalism should not be left to the police alone.

Police professionalism in Ghana cannot be divorced from the existence of efficient
career development initiatives. In the bid to achieve police professionalism in Ghana,
the impact of training and development on the police cannot be ignored. An effective
career development strategy for the GPS has not been established as yet. To this effect,
orientation programmes, continuous training and retraining are never guaranteed for officers of the GPS. Sadly, it yet to be seen if the GPS has provided any comprehensive capacity building and training programme for officers aside from the basic police and cadet officer courses. Furthermore, accreditation and certification is vital to police professionalism in Ghana. Accreditation has been identified as one of the cardinal principles of achieving police professionalism in respect of operations, administration and support services. It is pertinent to note that various standards of voluntary accreditation covering substantive policing tasks such as: operations; policy; practices; administration; and, promotions over specified periods are in existence and are all geared towards improving the quality of service delivery in police departments. The aim of police accreditation has been to enhance service delivery to the public through the establishment of standards for law enforcement practitioners. The GPS has some accreditation and certification programmes for researchers in the CID covering ballistics, fingerprint and narcotics. However, these accreditations and certifications are limited to a few senior commissioned officers and the inspectorate. In recent times one cannot guarantee if officers are required to attend and successfully complete detective training courses before being appointed as detectives. It is therefore imperative that no police officer in Ghana is appointed as a detective without first undertaking and passing a detective training course. A process of reassessment to maintain accreditation is crucial but unfortunately, no such process is in existence in the GPS.

Police oversight and accountability mechanisms are critical to efficient and transparent policing. As mentioned earlier in the literature review, Reiner (2010) argues that police accountability concerns the application and control of policing policies within the framework of priorities, resources allocation and operational strategies. Hence,
independent oversight and accountability mechanism ought to be external in nature and outside the control of the GPS and the government in power. There is an urgent need to establish an independent police commission outside the structure of the GPS and the executive branch of government for the purpose of ensuring police accountability in Ghana.

The statistical analyses below summarises the results of the fieldwork so far presented in this thesis. In relation to adherence to democratic policing principles, nine tenets were considered as outlined in the table below. It was discovered that the GPS partially adheres to contemporary democratic policing standards and is rather more accountable to government. With the GPS being centralized under a unified command structure, accountability to the government is obvious. The President's constitutional power to appoint the IGP provides a massive avenue for the executive branch of government to exercise immense political control over the police. Nevertheless, the concept of democratic policing has a very good grounding in Ghana.

The results presented in table 5.3 and figures 5.5 and 5.6 as well as the graph and pie chart below explain the perception of respondents with respect to the pervasiveness of democratic policing principles within the GPS as particularised in the items listed. Generally, there were mixed feelings about the democratic nature of the GPS as an organization. 73% of respondents indicated that there is some adherence to democratic tenets whilst 27% disagreed. However, there were concerns about transparency and courtesy to the people having been neglected.

Table 5.3: Public Perception on Democratic Policing Principles within the GPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial</th>
<th>Democratic Policing Principles</th>
<th>Above Average</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Below Average</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Service to the People</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Accountability to the People</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serial</td>
<td>Democratic Policing Principles</td>
<td>Above Average</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Below Average</td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>--------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Accountability to the Law</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Accountability to Government</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Transparency in Police Work</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Courtesy to the People</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Sensitivity to the People</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Protection of Human Rights</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Response to Call for Service</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.5: Bar Graph showing Public Perception on Democratic Policing Principles within the GPS
A cursory look at the results presented above indicates that, there is no doubt about the accountability of GPS to the government. Similarly, accountability to the law and response to calls for service have been good. Yet, loyalty to the people including service, courtesy and respect for human rights and freedoms is rather weak. Nevertheless, the GPS has no other option but to improve its performance in this area since respect of the law and service delivery are democratic and constitutional requirements that must be fulfilled. Thus, it has been established that the GPS needs to institute some practical steps in order to enhance sound democratic policing standards.
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, OBSERVATIONS AND ANALYSIS

Training, retraining and continuous capability building in substantive functional areas of policing are hallmarks of any professional police organization. The culture of a police organization determines the degree and nature of its training and capacity building programmes. Within the GPS, the culture and practice is that every police officer must attend at least one in-service or orientation course in every rank while in active service. Besides, specialized capacity building programmes are initiated for officers deployed in specialized units as and when required to enhance their effectiveness. To this effect, the practice is that all senior officers between the ranks of ASP and C/SUPT (inclusive) must attend intermediate and senior command courses prior to their promotion to the next rank. This strategy is meant to build capacity and to prepare officers for higher-level responsibilities. Similar arrangements require officers within the other ranks (General Duty Pool) to attend a four (4) week course and to pass a promotion examination before being promoted to the next rank. Unfortunately, it was observed that adherence to the foregoing policies and procedures have been extremely low in recent times. Both commissioned officers (senior commanders) and the rank and file (junior officers) have been promoted to higher ranks without recourse to any preparations to take on higher responsibilities. The difficulty here has been the lack of and use of policies and procedures by the administration of the GPS. The consequence has been the absence of strategic planning, leading to the inability of the organization to strictly comply with its own policy guidelines. Therefore, the development and application of SOPs in administering the GPS was identified to be a critical challenge.
Undoubtedly, the society within which the police operate has been overtly dynamic in technology and laws. As the environment keeps changing, so do the capacities needed for routine police functions also need to evolve. The need for constant review of perceptions, operational strategies and principles of policing cannot be over-emphasized. Therefore, one of the first steps in planning for the recruitment of police officers is to establish adequate policies and procedures. The need for appropriate recruitment and training policies in the GPS cannot be overlooked if police professionalism is to be attained. The existence of recruitment policy represents the police code of conduct in this area of activity. Additionally, training and re-training in tune with the dynamic nature of society ought to be a fundamental part of the GPS, if professionalism in Ghana is to be achieved. Consequently, any police organization that marginalizes its doctrine and SOPs for effective administration faces the prospect of becoming an ineffective organisation. Unfortunately, it was observed that the HRD department of the GPS lacks the capacity to develop and implement appropriate training policies and standards for the benefit of the service. The difficulties emanating from the absence of required SOPs are the porous implementation of capacity building initiatives and the inability to create a solid career development path for police officers in Ghana.

This Chapter considered the findings and observations leading to the analyses of the fieldwork results. The issues discussed and analysed emanated from the observations and were considered under the thematic areas of policy and procedures; recruitment and selection; training; capacity building career development; and finally, police effectiveness and professionalism. The key recommendations of the study are hereby presented in the Conclusions Chapter that follows.
CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS

INTRODUCTION

First and foremost, this chapter highlights the main contribution and relevance of this study to knowledge. The chapter also summarizes the key issues of the study and proposes recommendations for police reform in Ghana. Therefore, the chapter recapitulates discussions enumerated in the subject matter of the study through: professionalism in organizations, police professionalism, recruitment and training, police accountability and oversight mechanisms to police management and leadership. Furthermore, the chapter considers recommendations that could lead to reform and policy changes in the GPS. The chapter also identifies areas of future research and the way forward.

MAIN CONTRIBUTION AND RELEVANCE OF STUDY

There is little or no empirical work done by academicians and the police alike in the area of police professionalism in Ghana. Lack of scholarly attention to the study of police professionalism in Ghana may be attributed to the framework of public administration the main thrust of which has been to theorise on reforming police administration and police practises. The academic response of scholars has been mainly restricted to issues revolving around: the management of public order; the police and the problem of human rights; and, the role of the police (including civil liberties) in Ghana. It can be argued that this approach has necessarily isolated the study of police professionalism from contemporary policing issues. Consequently, a comprehensive work on police professionalism in relation to recruitment and training in Ghana was the
primary concern of this research. This research is relevant because it involves an analysis of police professionalism in a country that inherited an authoritarian policing model and has recently adopted democratic governance. The primary focus of this study has therefore been to provide knowledge in re-orientating a police force that has been cultured in authoritarian rules for decades into a system more appropriate for a democratic society.

In light of the above, the main contribution of this work consists of an analysis of police professionalism using appropriate recruitment and training standards in a country that inherited a colonial policing model driven by a different set of interests. Besides, the research provides a comprehensive basis for re-orientation and guidance of a police force that has been cultured in an authoritarian style for redress. Furthermore, conclusions and recommendations are made leading to suggested policy changes and reform in the GPS.

The relevance of this work has been the contribution to an understanding of the concept of police professionalism in Ghana. Besides, the need for the development and use of a training policy and standards by the GPS had been stressed throughout this study. In addition, fundamental emphasis has been placed on the impact of recruitment and training on police professionalism in Ghana. An appreciation of the immense potential benefits to be gained from using policies and procedures in the administration of the GPS has also been emphasised. Furthermore, the research has explored issues concerning capacity building and career development of police officers in Ghana. Additionally, the fieldwork and interviews conducted in this study have addressed existing gaps in the literature. Ultimately, the dilemma of the practical application of police accountability and democratic control in Ghana has been established through the
fieldwork. Coincidentally, the study also revealed that the GPS has internal accountability mechanisms under the control of the Inspector General of Police, which is an apparent misnomer. Finally, it has become clearly evident that, there is not in existence in Ghana a functioning external agency outside the GPS that receives and processes daily reports of police misconduct.

GENERAL REMARKS

The fundamental role of the criminal justice system of which the GPS forms part and within which it conducts its business is to uphold and protect the rule of law. Besides, the conduct of police duties involves direct interactions between police officers and members of the general public. Police efficiency and legitimacy are usually determined by measuring the extent to which police officers take the interest of the public into account in the performance of their duties. Furthermore, public acceptance of the police hinges on the behaviour of police officers, their attitude towards the public and their respect of human dignity and fundamental rights and freedoms (Kleinig, 1996a; Neyroud and Beckley, 2001). Neyroud (2008) is of the view that the establishment of an international code of police ethics emphasises the relevance of the protection of the rule of law and the ever-increasing complication of ethical policing. Therefore, ethical policing is a critical pre-requisite in the provision of policing services to the public. In support of this view, Neyroud (2008) argues that, in the twentieth century, it is not enough to restrict the definition of police professionalism as encompassing a police organization with well-trained, autonomous officers who perform their duties with excellence with a high degree of integrity and impartiality.

The contemporary notion of police professionalism goes beyond that and aims at the achievement of improved standards for identification and recruitment of police officers
through pre-approved educational criteria and appropriate training standards (Schneider, 2009). In practice, professionalism could be better achieved through the development and application of processes, procedures and rigid standards. In order for an organization to achieve professionalism, the need for adherence to minimum standards such as strict recruitment standards (including prescribed educational criteria), legitimacy, specialized training, ethical behaviour and commitment to provide service to the people is critical (Schneider, 2009:12).

Professionalism has been identified as a central underlying philosophy in many service oriented organizations, including the police. Undoubtedly, policing is primarily concerned with the provision of services to the public. Therefore, the GPS is enjoined to provide effective, efficient, transparent and accountable policing services to the population of Ghana. The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana for instance promotes adherence to democratic policing principles such as upholding the freedoms and human rights of the people in the performance of policing duties. Unfortunately, allegations against the GPS such as police corruption, lack of political neutrality and rampant interference by authorities, non-existent police capacity and lack of effectiveness (including the abuse of fundamental human rights) are said to have compromised police legitimacy and effectiveness in Ghana. Hence, the extent to which the GPS abides by the correct tenets of police professionalism is yet to be seen.

In light of the above, if the GPS is to be professional, there is the need for a complete overhaul of police culture, leadership and capacities. To this end, a systematic approach to recruitment, training and career development, followed by a logical sequence of activities through the establishment of a policy, assessment of recruitment and training requirements as well as evaluation and feedback are crucial the GPS. Besides, the existence of an appropriate recruitment policy and procedures in the GPS should be part
of the police code of conduct and ethics. A good recruitment policy should be
complimented with a training policy and standards of equally high quality in order to
foster the achievement of professionalism. The relationship between recruitment and
training and police professionalism in Ghana is paramount.

Specifically, the GPS performs law enforcement functions for the protection of life and
property, and for the maintenance of law and order, including providing community
service functions to the people and the state (Ghana Police Service Instructions). The
entry point of police professionalism in Ghana has been linked to the universal concepts
of Ghana considers democracy within the framework that citizens are the ultimate
source of power, although citizens do not govern directly in democratic societies.
Citizens exercise their power by electing representatives who formulate policies and
programmes on their behalf and for the general good. Unfortunately, policing and
democracy are not the same because the police organization is a non-democratically
structured body with authoritarian underpinnings, which is entrusted with the mandate
to enforce the laws of democratic societies and systems (Kratcoski, 2000). However, a
fundamental principle of democracy requires that all organizations and systems be
regulated in accordance with the supreme laws of the land (in Ghana, the Constitution
of Ghana, 1992). Within the framework of democratic principles, the GPS is required to
provide service to the people of Ghana while adhering to the tenets of democratic
policing principles as posited by Das (1995). Nonetheless police professionalism in
Ghana implies the effectiveness of the police organization, its ability to ensure the
application of ethical codes of conduct and its commitment to serve the people
effectively in an objective and transparent manner. Police effectiveness is about better
and more productive police officers, and by extension, a more efficient police organization. In this vein, the need for officers to be better educated, highly trained, greatly motivated and customarily rule-oriented cannot be taken for granted in Ghana. However, the demonstration of police professionalism in Ghana has been a matter of concern to the populace, including governments, politicians and the police service itself. As an organization, the need for the GPS to recognise and implement the identifying features of police professionalism, namely: having a code of ethics and a defined body of knowledge; providing continuing education in the field; establishing principles for entry into the profession; and promoting commitment and devotion to service (Gariba, 2005) is critical. Besides, the need to explore the impact of recruitment and training practices on police professionalism in Ghana cannot be overemphasised in the quest to provide the needed service to the people.

However, policing in Ghana is still largely restricted to the maintenance of law and order as well as upholding the authority of the state (Article 200 of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana), rather than upholding and protecting the human rights of the populace. For example, section 1 of the Ghana Police Service Act 1970 (Act 350), defines the functions of the police in the following terms: 'it shall be the duty of the GPS to prevent and detect crime, to apprehend offenders, and to maintain public order and safety of persons and society'. However, it has been argued that the mandate given to the GPS in Act 350 fails to consider issues of ethical policing and the GPS code of conduct – a statement of value and guidance that sets standard criteria against which police behaviour can be objectively measured – in the performance of those functions (CHRI, 2007). Thus, the extent to which the primary functions of the GPS as defined by the Act comply with contemporary democratic policing standards is uncertain. This is because the GPS is said to be interested in crime prevention and detection, management
of public order and crowd control, instead of providing services to the public within a
democratic setting. This approach appears to be in conformity with the arguments
levelled against the colonial policing model namely, that policing during that era was
mainly concerned with upholding the authority of the state rather than protecting the life
and property of the people (Ahire, 1999; Jeffries, 1952; Kaviraji, 1994). But the
reputation of the GPS in terms of the provision of service to the public may have been
in contention since the early days of independence. The political neutrality of the GPS
was relegated to the background when the police and the military in Ghana were heavily
involved in politics and governance instead of concentrating on providing policing
services to the people. It is instructive to recall the case of police constable Kwame
Ametewee as expatiated in the introductory chapter of this thesis. The aftermath of the
1964 Kwame Ametewee assassination attempt on President Nkrumah saw the
withdrawal of the police from the presidential security duties and the seizure of all
police arms and ammunition held at the Police Magazine located at the Depot in Accra
to be handed over to the military. In addition, the then Commissioner of Police,
Erasmus Madjitey, and his two deputies were fired. The President then appointed Mr.
J.W.K. Harlley as the new Police Commissioner but this appointment did not absolve
the Police from complacency and involvement in Ghanaian politics and governance in
the post-independence era. On 24th February 1966, the Ghana Armed Forces in
collaboration with the GPS overthrew President Nkrumah's Government. The Army
and Police formed the National Liberation Council to govern the country (Barker, 1979;
Daily Graphic, 1966). Furthermore, the issue of police corruption in Ghana and the
involvement of the police in scandals have also worsened the trust and reputation
reposed in the GPS as an institution whose mandate is to provide the people of Ghana
with a safe and secure environment and to uphold human rights. The alleged
involvement of senior police officers in the drug trade seriously dented the image of the GPS. Reports of the disappearance of large quantities of seized cocaine from the Police Exhibit Store at the CID HQ in Accra and dealings with drug barons further worsened the already bad reputation of the police (Statesman, 2006). The claims of the CHRI (2007) about public perception of police corruption in Ghana cannot simply be ignored:

‘Over the years, the image of the GPS has been synonymous with bribery and corruption. A corruption perception survey conducted by the Ghana Integrity Initiative, the local branch of Transparency International, indicates that the GPS is unrivalled as far as corruption is concerned’

(CHRI, 2007: 28-29)

In order for the GPS to repair upon its dented image and to promote police professionalism, there is an urgent need to review recruitment, training and career development programmes. Given the problems encountered by the GPS in service delivery, there is the need for adequate and appropriate training, better professional development encompassing mentoring and advising, as well as adequate remuneration, all of which would reduce or eliminate inefficiency and corruption (CHRI, 2007). The challenge is whether improved training and equipment could enhance police effectiveness and greater professionalism? Police professionalism entails a great amount of specialized knowledge and respect for established standards and ethics prescribed by the profession. Police ethics require compliance with a level of moral responsibility critically associated with policing. In practice, ethics guide what police officers will do
or not do, and hence ethical training has become a fundamental component of police training in contemporary times. Unfortunately, the extent to which ethical training has influenced police professionalism in Ghana remains unclear. The perception in Ghana is that, the police are ineffective because they are neither well trained nor well equipped, and therefore require proper training, resources, remuneration and continuing professional development in order to properly perform their mandated duties in a democratic setting. A Presidential Commission set up in 1997 to examine the operational effectiveness of the service alluded to the perception widely held by the public.

The impact of recruitment and training practices on police professionalism is a fundamental question in this study. The increasing demand for police professionalism simultaneously calls for police officers to improve their knowledge through education and training. Nonetheless, as a vocation, policing requires officers to have a solid educational background in order to facilitate the nurturing of the complex skills required for effective police operations. According to Walker and Katz (2002), conventional training is considered as the root of early reform movements. Consequently, policing is synonymous with key characteristics of professionalism viz: a specialized body of knowledge and skills, client orientation and service to humanity, job discretion and ethics amongst others (Crank et al., 1993; Capps, 1998). The requirement of high educational qualifications for entry into the police organization commenced with debates to professionalise the police service in the early 1920’s (Carter et al., 1989). The emphasis on high educational qualifications for prospective officers seeking entry into the police was based on the notion that policing is a profession that requires multifaceted skills and knowledge (Schneider, 2009). Carter et al., (1989) had argued
that there is a positive correlation between higher education and performance, which is an occupational necessity. Therefore, police professionalism could be achieved through better-educated, highly trained and efficient police officers. However, in Hinkle (1991:105) opinion: ‘effective street police officers learn police work on the job and not in the classroom’. This quotation re-enforces the argument that a good educational background alone is not a guarantee for good policing. Emphasis on higher education could cut off persons who could become effective and efficient police officers. On the contrary, Pate and Hamilton (1991:16) argue that police forces ought to recruit highly educated officers, and must make every effort to attract intelligent and able-bodied people into the organization in order to succeed.

Nevertheless, the importance of having efficient and effective procedures for recruitment and selection can hardly be exaggerated in any organization. One of the first steps in planning for the recruitment of employees into the organization is to establish adequate policies and procedures. A recruitment policy represents the organizational code of conduct in this area of activity. If organizations are able to find and employ staff members who consistently fulfil their roles and who are also capable of taking on increased responsibilities, they are better placed to deal with opportunities and threats than those who are always struggling to build and maintain their workforce (Cole, 2002). Therefore, the need for police organizations to critically re-consider their methodology of recruitment, selection and training of police officers is fundamental to the attainment of police professionalism. Hence, recruitment has become an important component of police accountability, aimed at attracting the best police officers (Schneider, 2009).
It has been argued that, recruitment is not always an easy process, especially when particular skills are required to fill certain jobs (Robbins and De Cenzo 1995; Robbins and Coulter, 1999). Whether potential employees will respond to recruitment efforts depends on the attitudes and perceptions they have developed towards those tasks and the organization on the basis of their past social and working experiences. Conversely, training is extremely important for new or existing employees. The most important determinants of training are the task(s) to be accomplished and the employee’s abilities and attitudes. However, if employees have the work ethic and the skills needed to do the jobs, training may not be very important. More often, it is unlikely that task demands are stable. Technology and market conditions as well as changes in jobs require that training of employees must also evolve in order to meet new standards. Governments are also becoming a vital influence on training for public policy purposes (Ivancevich, 1998). In any event, a systematic approach to recruitment, training and development, followed by a logical sequence of activities covering the establishment of a policy, assessment of recruitment and training requirements as well as evaluation and feedback are crucial in organizations (Cole, 2002).

In a democratic setting, the police are accountable to the populace and not the state nor the police institution itself. If these delineations are not clearly established, the police may be tempted to use its effectiveness through improved training and equipment to serve the state and the institution, much to the detriment of the people. In this vein, the GPS administration ought to initiate the development of a comprehensive training policy and plan. Such a policy and plan should clarify its aims and objectives and re-examine the overall GPS training architecture from the Basic, Cadet, and Senior Level Courses to sustainable career development programmes. Effectiveness through training and equipment will not automatically bring professionalism unless effective oversight
and accountability mechanisms are also institutionalized. Consequently, this suggests that, to a large degree, oversight and accountability mechanisms including training must become part of the routine system and culture of the Police in Ghana. Nonetheless, the debate as to what form and type of police training programme is suitable for skills transfer and the promotion of professionalism in Ghana is yet to be determined. Similarly, the extent to which the GPS has both formal and informal training is still not clear, but one might argue in favour of formal training. However, there appears to be ambiguity in the case of informal training. Besides, it is difficult to ascertain the degree to which formal training does equip the officers with the required skills. Even so, the extent to which informal training (i.e., on the job training; mentoring; and advising) is institutionalized in the GPS remains contentious.

It has been argued that by taking the Police to the community, cultural colonialism will be responsive to both communal requirements and democratic norms (Brogden and Shearing, 1993). The arguments advanced from this position is that, a more representative and better-trained police force will be responsive to the people. According to this line of thinking, transforming police culture requires the introduction of new selection and training procedures, coupled with a purging of the entire organization (Das and Marenin, 2000). It has also been argued that recruitment and training of personnel alone are not sufficient to bring about reforms. The benefits of both will be lost if they are not reinforced by a management system (Mastrofski, 1999). Newham and Maroga (2004) also note that if police management focus on improving management systems and police culture, personnel could be reformed.

In line with the foregoing, it is equally pertinent to recognise that police management and leadership is fundamental to achieving police professionalism. Good leadership by management, especially the most senior executives, is paramount for an effective
organisational change. This is critical to any police reform initiative from administrative processes to operational strategies including tactical performance (Bayley, 1992). Monumental reform of any police organization cannot be achieved through concealment from below against the irrelevance of senior managers. It is therefore important for the GPS administration to have a strategic approach to any reform initiative. Foremost, police reform cannot be achieved by merely changing personnel. It rather requires varying the system and culture of the police organization (Bayley, 1992). Police officers are extremely sceptical about innovative programmes especially when each transformation in management brings uncertainties. Furthermore, police officers are more likely to be swayed about the relevance of new programmes by statements from colleague police officers than by statistical evaluation of results.

Police culture cannot be transformed simply by implementing official restructuring on a national basis. Shuffling the boxes in the organisational chart is often the first and sometimes the only thing that police managers do in the process of reorganization (Cockcroft, 2012; Jones, 2003; Bayley, 1992). However, changing the structure of organisations hardly touches operational performance because it might not alter the culture of the organisation. Therefore, reform in policing must be designed and not forced into being. Where democratic change is the objective of police reform, more attention should be given to the management of personnel than to the formal structure of the police system in its totality (Bayley, 1992). Nonetheless, democratic reform cannot be achieved by investing exclusively in the material basis of policing, be it personnel or equipment. Institutionalising the norms of democratic policing requires transformation of police culture in the performance of police functions. The provision of resources may enhance the process but will not necessarily be the panacea to the police reform agenda. In this connection, it has been argued that provision of equipment and enhanced
salaries without a corresponding increase in service responsiveness, accountability, human rights and transparency is meaningless in any reform strategy (Chatterton, 1993). The approach ought to be that, improved resources should improve the morale of police officers thereby increasing the disposition for transformation. But provision of resources does not necessarily change the police culture except where motivation improves and objections to transformation weaken. Similarly, resources are essential for police reform only when such resources enhance police effectiveness and professionalism (Cockcroft, 2012; Jones, 2003; Chatterton, 1993; Bayley, 1992).

RECOMMENDATIONS

As a way forward from the key findings of this study, it is paramount for a comprehensive programme of police reform to be undertaken in Ghana without delay. These reforms should consider addressing the challenges of police professionalism as discussed in this thesis from the enforcement of an ethical code of conduct; the use of policies, standards and SOPs; avoidance of political interference and corruption; institution of mechanisms to ensure accountability; recruitment and training to career development and capacity building of officers among others.

Consequently, the following recommendations that could engender policy changes and further research in the GPS are hereby proffered.

Policy and Procedures for Recruitment and Training

Development and Implementation of Training Policy and Standards: In the absence of rules and regulations, all manner of things happens and hence the reason for the political manipulation of the recruitment and training processes in Ghana. GPS training policy and standards should set forth comprehensive procedures that apply to the recruitment and training of police officers. The need for the promulgation of a Training Policy and
Standards for the GPS should be considered a matter of priority. The Training policy and Standards should guide and be used in decision making, including monitoring compliance with the application of policy and procedures in the recruitment and training of police officers in Ghana.

**Recruitment Board:** An independent Board made up of police and civilian experts outside the organizational structure of the GPS to ensure transparency, minimum standards and fairness should be established. Revision of the Ghana Civil Service and Public Service Commissions’ approaches to recruitment and training could be considered as an alternative to the GPS’ owned enlistment system.

**Background Check:** Institution of a comprehensive investigation of applicants’ criminal records and background check before they are accepted into the GPS is crucial. The proposed police recruitment and training policy and standards should ensure that no applicant is considered for training without having successfully completed background and criminal checks.

**Training of Police Officers**

**Provision of Police Training Infrastructure:** The provision of appropriate training infrastructure will undoubtedly enhance training and police professionalism. Therefore, PTS and POLCOL should be equipped with the full complement of a training centre of excellence.

**Practical Attachment and Probationary Training:** The necessity to have practical components in police training for trainees to develop practical skills and confidence cannot be overemphasized. Consequently, the 18 months Post Depot Training scheme aimed at developing the professional competence of officers is pertinent and should be reformed. As a matter of urgency, an attachment programme for all categories of newly
trained officers (Basic and Cadet Courses) should be embedded within police training programmes in Ghana.

**Capacity Building and Career Development**

**Station Officer and Commander Courses:** It is equally important to design and deliver routine periodic courses or retreats for various categories of police commanders namely: Station Officers; District Commanders; Unit Commanders; Divisional Commanders; and Regional Commanders. Such career development programmes will build capacity among officers to ensure their effectiveness and ultimately enhance police professionalism in Ghana.

**Strategic Retreat for Police Commissioners and HQ Staff Officers:** An annual strategic retreat for Schedule Officers at the Headquarters to improve upon command and control and the administration of the GPS could also be instituted.

**Preparing Officers for Higher Responsibilities:** The importance of sustainable career development to the success of every organization cannot be overemphasized and hence the GPS cannot afford to ignore this critical element of human resource practice. The GPS should consider establishing a programme of a HPDS to identify individuals with the potential to lead and develop their competencies for that.

**Specialized and Advanced Courses:** The need to establish broad based, specialized and advanced training programmes for the GPS cannot be overemphasized. The design and delivery of advanced courses in the following areas of substantive police operations should be seriously considered:

- Public Order Management and Crowd Control Operations;
- Public Reassurance and Patrol Duties
- Traffic Management;
- Peacekeeping Operations;
• Humanitarian and Disaster Management Operations;
• Democratic Policing and Police Accountability Mechanisms; and
• Human Rights; Ethics and Code of Conduct.

Re-Establishment of Detective Training School: The need to reactivate the comprehensive DTS for police operations in Ghana cannot be overemphasized. It is therefore paramount for the GoG to ensure that strategic directions and resources are granted to the GPS for the establishment and functioning of the CID Training School. It is also proposed that no police officer in Ghana should be appointed as a detective unless he/she has successfully completed a detective training course.

Police Effectiveness and Professionalism

Capacity for Routine Police Operations: Capacity and confidence building measures and opportunities should be created for officers to enable them deliver the required services to the public. It is pertinent for police officers to be competent in the performance the following routine police duties:

• Station orderly duties;
• Report writing and statement taking;
• Arrests and detention;
• Patrolling including cordoned and search;
• VIP protection and guard duties;
• Road block and check points;
• Rescue operations;
• Use of basic police accoutrements;
• Appearance and courtesy to the public; and
• Conduct and discipline including police ethics.
Teaching of French Language: Knowledge of French language by officers will undoubtedly enhance regional cooperation as well as collaboration in networking and in the area of international policing initiatives. The teaching of French Language in all PTS and POLCOL should be considered as a matter of urgency.

Independent Police Complaint Authority and Accountability Mechanism: The establishment of a Police Ombudsman or an Independent Police Commission outside the structure of the GPS and the executive is vital to the attainment of true police accountability in Ghana. A PCA and NPIA should be established in Ghana as a matter of priority. The PCA should have an element of investigative independence.

Ethics and Code of Conduct: Ethics and code of conduct for police officers emanated from corruption in policing and the need to introduce fairness, justice and uprightness in the conduct of day-to-day police operations. An effective programme for training and for the enforcement of police ethics and code of conduct for officers has the potential to significantly reduce corruption and political interferences and to enhance operational effectiveness as well as public trust in the GPS. To this end, a comprehensive training programme on police ethics and code of conduct for all police officers should be instituted from the basic to advanced levels. In addition, rewards systems should be established for officers in who perform well and respect the ethics and code of conduct governing their profession. Finally, penal arrangements should also be established for officers who flout police ethics and code of conduct.

Political Interference: The need to wean the GPS from political inferences is paramount to the attainment of effectiveness and transparency. Political interference has the potential to undermine police recruitment, operations, promotions, postings and morale. The need for a comprehensive legal regime through the development and use of policies
and procedures including strict adherence to police doctrine will provide the required safeguards against abuses.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

In the course of this research, it had been my wish to critically consider the thematic area of capacity building and career development. This would have offered the opportunity to conduct comprehensive work on: in service training; selection of trainers and mentors; as well as the training of instructors and mentors in GPS. Besides, I wanted to examine the relationship between enhanced remuneration and provision of equipment and police performance in Ghana. Furthermore, the concept of democratic policing was of fundamental relevance to the subject matter of this research. Hence, it would have been pertinent to study the operationalization of democratic values and police performance within the GPS. This interest was stimulated by Kratcoski (2000) argument on the internal workings of police organizations: ‘Policing and democratic policing are two varied subjects. Police organisations are not designed democratically even though they are tasked with administering the laws of democratic cultures. Therefore, the concept of democratic policing may be misrepresented when related to the internal workings of police organizations’ (Kratcoski, 2000).

Unfortunately, these topics could not be addressed as part of my study as envisaged. They ought to be considered in any future study in this area. Another dimension the study could have covered was the extent to which democratization transformed colonial policing in Ghana. In this regard, the need to conceptualize the nature, context and relationship between colonial and post-colonial policing in Ghana is paramount. It is
equally relevant in this case to examine how policing in Ghana has evolved from the
colonial through post-colonial to the democratic era.

Indeed, it is instructive to note that, the sampling technique of data collection is not as
easy as thought in any social research. Massive resources are required in the use of this
technique and there is also the challenge of getting the right research audience from the
population. In the context of this study, the researcher was obviously confronted with
the challenge of marshalling resources in view of the fact that this is a self-sponsored
project. Furthermore, the problem of locating the appropriate research audience across
the geographical zones offers another complexity. In light of the above, and given that
the researcher was critical of the credibility and reliability of this work and equally
concerned about overcoming the challenges, the outcropping method was adopted.

In conclusion, it is paramount to state that, the research is relevant and contributes to
knowledge as it provides a comprehensive analysis of police professionalism in
contemporary democratic settings, with particular focus on police professionalism in
Ghana. This is aimed at providing a legitimate, transparent and efficient policing service
to the people of Ghana. Principally, the study has provided the fundamental basis and
tenets of police professionalism and the approach by which the GPS can attain
professionalism. Furthermore, the study has proposed key recommendations in
addressing the challenges of police professionalism that could lead to police reform and
policy changes in Ghana.

The study has been premised on the commitment of the GPS to apply established
standing orders; to enforce higher standards of recruitment and training; and to pursue
continuous capacity building and devotion to duty. The GPS could better achieve police
professionalism through strict application and enforcement of processes, procedures and standards. Therefore, rigid adherence to recruitment and training standards, the availability of specialized training and the enforcement of an ethical code of conduct and the commitment to serve the people are essential pre-requisites. Besides, police ethics requires compliance to the moral duty embedded in policing where ethical training and specialized skills have become entrenched in modern police organizations. Police professionalism in Ghana should therefore be linked to the effectiveness of the police organization. A GPS that is able to ensure the application of an ethical code of conduct and the commitment to effectively serve the people in an objective and transparent manner will definitely be a more efficient police organization.
APPENDIX A

Data Collection for Doctoral Thesis Writing

Interview Guide

Sayibu Gariba is conducting a research on the topic entitled, “Police Professionalism: The Extent to Which Recruitment and Training Practices Can Impact on Police Professionalism in Ghana”. The research seeks to examine the issue of professionalism in organizations by considering whether recruitment and training can impact on police professionalism in Ghana. For the purpose of my doctoral research, I am expected to collect data (information) from the Ghana Police Service to enrich my thesis. The study is purely an academic exercise in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Social Science Degree in Human Resource Development from the Centre for Labour Market Studies, University of Leicester in the United Kingdom.

Your experiences and opinion will enhance the outcomes of the research which inevitably will contribute largely to the observations and conclusions leading to recommendations for policy and further research in Ghana and the world at large. All information collected in the interviews, thus the self completion questionnaires and/or face – to – face interviews are purely for academic purposes and would be kept anonymous and confidential. Furthermore, contributions to questionnaires are voluntary and all data collected shall not be linked to any individual and hence cannot be used to identify any respondent. There is strict compliance to non disclosure of names and non recording of interviews in order to ensure complete anonymity and confidentiality throughout the entire research process.

Your assistance in giving answers to the questions would be highly appreciated. It is anticipated that the interviews should take about 45 minutes to 1 hour of your time. You are at liberty to withdraw from the interview at anytime if you are not comfortable from the process or the approach. Thank you in advance for taking the time in answering the questions.

I thank you.

Sayibu Pabi Gariba (MSc, Leicester)
Doctoral Candidate
Centre for Labour Market Studies
University of Leicester, United Kingdom
Email: spg10@le.ac.uk; garibap@yahoo.com
Policy and Standards for Police Recruitment and Training

Selection and Recruitment of Police Officers:

0. Do you know of any policy regarding selection of Police Officers in Ghana?
1. How is the recruitment policy used in selecting prospective applicant to the Service?
2. What are requirements for selecting a prospective applicant into the Police?
3. Do you find the requirements for the selection of prospective applicants adequate?
4. Do have an idea of any other selection requirements that should be added to the selection requirements?
5. Do you think the existing policy on recruitment of Police Officers in Ghana can identify the right calibre of persons into the Service?
6. Is there any Recruitment and Selection Board in the Ghana Police Service?
7. What are the functions of the Recruitment and Selection Board if any?
8. Do the Board work in accordance with its functions?

Training of Potential Police Officers:

1. Are there Training Policy and Standards in the Ghana Police Service?
2. What categories of Police Training Institutions do you have in Ghana?
3. Are the Police Training Institutions resourced to deliver Training?
4. What is the scope and content of a generic Police Training?
5. How long does it take to train newly recruited Police Officers?
6. Does the Training Curricula provide the skills needed for Police work?
7. Do you think the duration of Police Training is adequate in developing skills of newly recruited applicants?
8. Are there any attachment and mentoring programmes for Police Trainees in Ghana?
9. Is there any systematic programme of reviews of Police recruitment and training policies? Explain your position on this?

Police Capacity Building and Career Development

In-Service Training Programme:

1. Is there any policy on In-Service training for Police Officers of all ranks?
2. What are the categories of the In – Service Training programme if any?
3. What is the duration and scope of a generic In - Service Training Programme?
4. How often does the Ghana Police Service conduct In-Service Training for its staff?
5. How important is In - Service Training Programme to the professional development of Police Officers in Ghana?
Trainers/Resource Persons/Mentors:

1. Are there any standard policy for selection of Police Trainers and Mentors in Ghana?
2. What are the criteria for selecting police trainers and mentors into Police Training Schools?
3. Do you think the criteria for the selection of Police Trainers provide the right calibre of “Instructors” for Police Training?
4. Do you have an idea of the existence of any standardized training programme for Police Trainers and Mentors in Ghana?
5. To what extent can a standard training programme for Police mentors and trainers impact on Police Training in Ghana?
6. Can you suggest any other criteria for the selection of Police Trainers and Mentors in Ghana?

Police Effectiveness and Professionalism

1. Do you have an idea of the meaning of Police effectiveness?
2. How do you understand the term police professionalism in Ghana?
3. Do you think Police Officers have the required skills in performing their functions?
4. In your opinion, do you think the Police (the organization and its Officers) performs their function in accordance with established rules, regulations and procedures of Ghana?
   5. Do the Police have code of conduct and to what extent is they are applied?
6. Is the Ghana Police Service adequately resourced to perform its roles and functions?
7. Do you think the Ghana Police have a standard Career Development path for its officers?
8. How is professional development part of the management of Ghana Police Service?
9. Are there Police oversight mechanisms in Ghana?
10. What do you know about police accountability in Ghana?
11. How does the Ghanaian public perceive the Ghana Police Service?
12. Is there any political interference in the performance of Police functions in Ghana? If yes, can you explain further on the nature and effects of such interference?
APPENDIX B

Questionnaire for Doctoral Research (Data Collection)

Introduction

Sayibu Gariba is conducting a research on the topic entitled, “Police Professionalism: The Extent to Which Recruitment and Training Practices Can Impact on Police Professionalism in Ghana”. The research seeks to examine the issue of professionalism in organizations by considering whether recruitment and training can impact on police professionalism in Ghana. For the purpose of my doctoral research, I am expected to collect data (information) from the Ghana Police Service to enrich my thesis. The study is purely an academic exercise in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Social Science Degree in Human Resource Development from the Centre for Labour Market Studies, University of Leicester in the United Kingdom.

Your experiences and opinion will enhance the outcomes of the research which inevitably will contribute largely to the observations and conclusions leading to recommendations for policy and further research in Ghana and the world at large. All information collected in the interviews, thus the self completion questionnaires and/or face – to – face interviews are purely for academic purposes and would be kept anonymous and confidential. Furthermore, contributions to questionnaires are voluntary and all data collected shall not be linked to any individual and hence cannot be used to identify any respondent. There is strict compliance to non disclosure of names and non recording of interviews in order to ensure complete anonymity and confidentiality throughout the entire research process.

Your assistance in giving answers to the questions would be highly appreciated. It is anticipated that the questionnaires should take about 45 minutes to 1 hour of your time. You are at liberty to withdraw from the interview at any time if you are not comfortable from the process or the approach. Thank you in advance for taking the time in answering the questionnaires.

I thank you.

Sayibu Pabi Gariba (MSc, Leicester)
Doctoral Candidate
Centre for Labour Market Studies
University of Leicester, United Kingdom
Email: spg10@le.ac.uk; garibap@yahoo.com
Policy and Standards for Police Recruitment and Training

1. Selection and Recruitment of Police Officers:

1. Do you know of any policy on the selection of Police Officers in Ghana? [ ] YES  [ ] NO

   If YES, what is the title of the policy?
   ..............................................................................................................................
   ..............................................................................................................................

2. What are the requirements for selecting new applicants into the Ghana Police Service?

   ..............................................................................................................................
   ..............................................................................................................................

3. Do you find such selecting requirements adequate? [ ] YES  [ ] NO

   Explain your answer

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   ..............................................................................................................................

4. What other requirement will you suggest and why?

   ..............................................................................................................................
   ..............................................................................................................................

5. Is the existing policy on selecting Police Officers capable of identifying the right calibre of persons into the Service? [ ] YES  [ ] NO

   Explain?
6. Do you have any Selection Board or Team in the Ghana Police Service? [ ] YES [ ] NO

If YES, what are the functions of the Selection Board?

...........................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................

7. In your opinion, do you think the Selection Board works in accordance with its functions and laid down policy and procedures? [ ] YES [ ] NO

If YES, Explain?

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2. Training of Police Officers:

a. Do you have Training Policy and Standards in the Ghana Police Service? [ ] YES [ ] NO

If YES, what are the policy and standards?

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b. What categories of Police Training do have in Ghana? Explain?
c. What is the scope of a typical Police Training programme in Ghana? Do you find the scope of the Training adequate for Police Training? Explain?

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d. What is the duration of Police Training in Ghana? Do you find the duration of the Training adequate? Why and why not?

...........................................................................................................................
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e. Are there Police Training Institutions in Ghana? □ YES □ NO

If YES, what are their functions?

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...........................................................................................................................


f. Do you think the Police Training Schools are adequately resourced to deliver Police Training? □ YES □ NO

If YES, what Training facilities are available in the Training School?

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...........................................................................................................................
g. What additional Facilities do you think are needed for Police Training in Ghana?

……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………

h. Is there any standard training programme for newly recruited applicants into the Ghana Police Service? [ ] YES [ ] NO

If your answer above is YES, what is the duration and scope of the training?

……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………

Is there any practical attachment and mentoring programme for recruits whilst on training?

[ ] YES [ ] NO

If YES, how is such attachment organised? If not, will you strongly recommend it and why?

……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………

i. What is your assessment of the Police practical attachment and mentoring programme? [ ] YES [ ] NO

If YES, do you think the programme could adequately build the professional capacity of Police Officers? Expatriate?

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k. What suggestions will you make toward the improvement of Police Training in Ghana?

……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………

3. Training of Professionals and Specialists:

   a. Is there a separate training programme for professional and specialized applicants into the Ghana Police? [ ] YES [ ] NO

   b. How different is such a training programme in terms of scope and duration?

   …………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………

Police Capacity Building and Career Development

4. In-Service Training Programme:
a. Is there any systematic in-service training programme for Police Officers of all levels?

[ ] YES [ ] NO

If YES, what types of In – Service Training are available in the Service?

--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------
------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

b. Do you think that a systematic In - Service Training programme is important for professional development of Police Officers? [ ] YES [ ] NO

Explain your answer.

--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

5. Trainers/Resource Persons/Mentors:

a. Is there any Policy defining the criteria for selecting Police Trainers and Mentors into the Ghana Police Training Schools? [ ] YES [ ] NO

b. Is there any systematic programme to enhance the capacities of Police Trainers?

[ ] YES [ ] NO

Explain?.................................................................

.................................................................
c. In your opinion, do you think that capacity building programme for trainers and mentors could enhance Police Training in Ghana? [ ] YES [ ] NO

If YES, Explain?
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…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

If NO, Explain?
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d. In your opinion, how should Police trainers and mentors be selected into the Training Schools?
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a. What steps have been taken by the Police Administration to institutionalize professional development in the Ghana Police?
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Police Effectiveness and Professionalism

b. How do you understand the meaning of Police professionalism in Ghana?
   Explain?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
c. In your opinion, do you think Ghanaian Police Officers have the appropriate tools and professional skills in performing their functions?  [ ] YES   [ ] NO

Expatiate---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

d. Does the Ghana Police Service have code of conduct and the extent to which they are applied?  [ ] YES   [ ] NO

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e. What are the various police oversight and accountability mechanisms in Ghana?

1. ………………………………………………………………………

2. ………………………………………………………………………

3. ………………………………………………………………………

4. ………………………………………………………………………

5. ………………………………………………………………………

f. Are the various oversight and accountability mechanisms effective?

[ ] YES   [ ] NO

If NO, what suggestions will you make toward making the above mechanisms more effective?

……………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………
g. In your opinion, how is the Ghana Police Service perceived by the Ghanaian public?


h. Do you think the public has confidence in the Police?  [ ] YES  [ ] NO

If YES, explain the lack of confidence in the Ghana Police Service?


i. Do you think there is political interference in the management of the Police in Ghana?

[ ] YES  [ ] NO

If YES, explain the nature of such interference?


j. What are the likely effects of such interference on Police performance in Ghana, if any?


k. To what extent are the Police in Ghana effective and professional in delivering its functions?

[ ] Not Effective  [ ] To a lesser extent  [ ] To some extent  [ ] To a large extent

l. How do you grade Ghana Police service in terms of the following democratic policing principles?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service to the Needs of the People or Populace</th>
<th>Above Average</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Below Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accountability to the People</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accountability to the Law</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accountability to the Government</td>
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<tr>
<td>Transparency in Police Activities</td>
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<td>Courtesy to the People</td>
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<td>Sensitivity to the People</td>
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<td>Protection of Human Rights</td>
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<tr>
<td>Response to Duty</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

6. **Personal Details**

1. Gender  [ ] Male  [ ] Female

2. Age  [ ] 18 – 29  [ ] 30 – 39  [ ] 40 – 49  [ ] 50 and Above

3. Educational Qualification
[ ] Senior High School [ ] Diploma [ ] Degree [ ] Post Graduate Degree or Higher [ ] Professional

[ ] Other

Specify………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Current Status

[ ] Serving Police Officer [ ] Retired Officer

5. Rank

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

6. Position

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
APPENDIX C

GHANA POLICE SERVICE

RANKING STRUCTURE (In Ascending Order)

Constable
Lance Corporal
Corporal
Sergeant

District Sergeant Major
Regional Sergeant Major
Inspector
Chief Inspector

Assistant Superintendent on Probation
Assistant Superintendent
Deputy Superintendent
Superintendent
Chief Superintendent

Assistant commissioner
Deputy Commissioner
Commissioner
Deputy Inspector General
Inspector General

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APPENDIX D

SAMPLE ETHICAL APPROVAL NOTE

UNIVERSITY OF LEICESTER

To: SAYIBU GARIBA

Subject: Ethical Application Ref: spg10-47b7

(Please quote this ref on all correspondence)

16/02/2012 23:28:04

Labour Market Studies

Project Title: POLICE PROFESSIONALISM: TO WHAT EXTENT CAN RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING PRACTICES IMPACT ON POLICE PROFESSIONALISM IN GHANA?

Thank you for submitting your application which has been considered.

This study has been given ethical approval, subject to any conditions quoted in the attached notes.

Any significant departure from the programme of research as outlined in the application for research ethics approval (such as changes in methodological approach, large delays in commencement of research, additional forms of data collection or major expansions in sample size) must be reported to your Departmental Research Ethics Officer.

Approval is given on the understanding that the University Research Ethics Code of Practice and other research ethics guidelines and protocols will be compiled with

- http://www2.le.ac.uk/institution/committees/research-ethics/code-of-practice

- http://www.le.ac.uk/safety/
APPENDIX E

SAMPLE APPLICATION LETTER FOR GRANT OF ACCESS

AFRICAN UNION
UNION AFRICAINE
UNIÃO AFRICANA

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, P.O. Box: 3243 Tel.: (251-11) 5513 822 Fax: (251-11) 5519 321
Email: situationroom@africa-union.org

Addis Ababa
Ethiopia
12 December 2011.

DIRECTOR - GENERAL
HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
GHANA POLICE SERVICE HQ
ACCRA, GHANA.

Dear Sir,

Data Collection for Doctorate in Human Resource Development Degree by C/Supt Savibu Gariba - Permission to Interview Ghanaian Police Officers

This is to humbly convey to the office of the Inspector General of Police through the Director General, Human Resource Development of the Ghana Police Service that as a prerequisite for a Doctorate in Human Resource Development Degree Programme that I have been pursuing since May 2007, I am to conduct interviews of a randomly selected Ghanaian Police Officers to enrich my thesis. The interviews will be purely for academic purposes with due respect to ethical considerations and standards of research. An introductory letter from the University is hereby attached.

In the light of the above, I would be very grateful if the Police Administration will grant me the permission to interview Ghanaian Police Officers. The interviews are specifically intended to enrich my thesis for the award of Doctor of Social Science Degree in Human Resource Development from the Centre of Labour Market Studies of the University of Leicester in the United Kingdom. I hope my humble request would be granted.

I thank you for the usual cooperation, sir.

SAYIBU PABI GARIBA (C/SUPT)
Police Training Officer, African Standby Force
Department of Peace and Security
AU Commission, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
## APPENDIX F

### CODED CATEGORIES OF INTERVIEWS AND QUESTIONNAIRES

1. **RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial Number</th>
<th>Code Number</th>
<th>Code Number</th>
<th>(1.1) Policy &amp; Standards</th>
<th>(1.2) Selection and Background Checks</th>
<th>(1.3) Training Duration</th>
<th>(1.4) Curriculum and Instructors</th>
<th>(1.5) Training School and Equipment</th>
<th>(1.6) Simulation and Exercises</th>
<th>(1.7) Probation and Mentoring</th>
<th>(1.8) Ethics and Code of Conduct</th>
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## 3. POLICY EFFECTIVENESS AND PROFESSIONALISM

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* Female  
√ Affirmative  
X Negative
The Inspector General of Police
Ghana Police Service
Headquarters
Accra, Ghana.
25 May 2011

Data Collection by Sayibu Gariba, DSocSci Thesis (Student#039000923)
Request for Letter of Introduction to the Ghana Police Service
Option 1

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION
Sayibu Pabi Gariba

Mr Sayibu Gariba is a current student with the Centre for Labour Market Studies, at the University of Leicester. He is currently on the thesis component of the Doctorate in Social Sciences course, and his thesis title is “To What Extent Can Recruitment and Training Practices Impact on Police Professionalism in Ghana?”. He is currently being academically supervised by Dr. Laure Guille and Dr. Henrietta O’Connor.

For the purpose of his research Mr Gariba is expected to spend some time in Ghana from August – September 2011 for the purpose of data collection from the Ghana Police Service to enrich his thesis. Therefore, the Centre would be grateful if you could assist Sayibu Gariba in any way to make his data collection in Ghana a success.

Yours Sincerely,

Dr. Henrietta O’Connor
Head of Department, Centre for Labour Market Studies
APPENDIX H
GHANA POLICE LETTER OF APPROVAL FOR DATA COLLECTION

HEADCOURT AND ACCRA
10TH JANUARY, 2012

RE - DATA FOR COLLECTION FOR A
DOCTORATE IN HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
DEGREE PROGRAMME BY C/SUPT SAYIBU GARIBA -
PERMISSION TO INTERVIEW GHANAIAN POLICE OFFICERS

Your letter dated 12th December, 2011 on the above subject matter refers.

2. I am directed by the Inspector-General of Police to convey his approval for you to conduct the interview.

3. The Director-Generals/R&P, HRD and CID have already been informed to assist you in the collection of the required data.

4. Best regards.

for: CHIEF STAFF OFFICER
[ J. OWUSU ANSAH, DSP ]
SO/CONFIDENTIAL REGISTRY

SAYIBU PABI GARIBA (C/SUPT)
POLICE TRAINING OFFICER, AFRICAN STANDBY FORCE
DEPARTMENT OF PEACE AND SECURITY
AU COMMISSION, ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA
P. O. BOX 3243
ADDIS ABABA

TEL/FAX: 0302-785078
E-MAIL: so.confidential@ghanapolice.info
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