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Security Practitioners’ Perspectives of the Alberta Basic Security Training Programme

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Date: 30 September 2017

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

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Signed…………….Glen Kitteringham…………………………
Date ……………………….30 September 2017 …………………………

September 2017
The uniformed security guard industry has experienced tremendous global growth in the past five decades and there is every indication it will continue. Many government and private sector bodies have created mandatory and recommended training programmes and syllabi to equip guards for their growing and often complex duties. There has, however, been little research into the effectiveness of these programmes. Poor or non-existent training can lead to a number of issues including poor job performance, low salaries, unethical or criminal behaviours, high staff turnover, increased risk of harm to guards and the public, exposure to liability for both employees and employers, reputational harm, and outright abuse of rights by employees and the public.

This research sought to examine the relevance of the Alberta Basic Security Training (ABST) programme introduced by the Alberta Government, Canada in 2011, and practitioners’ perspectives of its effectiveness, with a view to making recommendations to enhance the programme. Through documentary analysis, the ABST was first compared and contrasted globally with 35 government and industry training programmes. Guard duties were then examined from the research community, government and security industry to enable comparison between their findings and guards’ actual duties. This examination further explored guard, trainer, manager, and contract management perspectives of ABST effectiveness. 24 semi-structured interviews were conducted to obtain direct feedback on both the delivery and effectiveness of the training programme.

Findings include that the ABST content is as good or better than many of its global counterparts and is in alignment with general guard duties. And while the training time of 40 hours is far less than the 160+ hours required in some countries, it is far more than in many other jurisdictions studied. Programme improvements include increasing delivery time, reducing duplicated material, enhancing trainer qualifications, improving student language requirements, increasing active learning tactics, reducing licensing wait times and involving security management expertise in enhancing overall programme effectiveness.
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List of abbreviations and definitions

ABST: Alberta Basic Security Training
AIT: Agreement on Internal Trade
SIA: Security Industry Authority (United Kingdom)
NOC: National Occupational Classification (Canada)
SOC: Standard Occupational Classification (United States)
NOS: National Occupational Standard (India)
NOS: National Occupational Standard (Britain)
BoK: Body of Knowledge
CPP: Certified Protection Professional
CPSS: Civilian Private Security Services
GDP: Gross Domestic Product
PSIRA: Private Security Industry Regulation Act (South Africa)
FTO: Field Training Officers
CBT: Competency Based Training
PMC: Private Military Companies
BST: Basic Security Training (British Columbia)
CPO: Certified Protection Officer
CoESS: Confederation of European Security Services
MLA: Member of Legislative Assembly (Alberta)
Chapter 1: Introduction
Background

The uniformed guard industry has seen tremendous growth globally over the past five decades and there is every indication this growth will continue. However, despite its phenomenal growth it is challenged with a number of issues including poor public perception, low salaries, high turnover, lack of career prospects, low standards and insufficient training. With this massive growth, the effect of insufficient training becomes more pronounced and can lead to a number of issues including “fraud, incompetence and poor standards, exploitation of security staff, corrupt practices, violence, false arrest and detention, trespass and invasions of privacy, discrimination and harassment and misuse of weapons” (Prenzler & Sarre, 2008, pp. 266–268). While many governments and private sector groups have created both mandatory and optional training programmes, there has been little research into the validity of these programmes.

By the very nature of their roles, guards often encounter dangerous situations where specific skills are required to protect themselves and the general public, minimize risk and manage conflict. As a former security manager and in my capacity of security consultant working with management personnel from a wide variety of sectors and as a guard trainer I have witnessed on numerous occasions guards struggling with meeting the requirements of the job. Other complaints include their inability to write basic reports, being challenged with basic communication skills, conducting proper patrols and display an inability to articulate the legal parameters of the various codes, laws, acts and bylaws within which they operate.

The Alberta Basic Security Training programme was introduced in Alberta, Canada, as a result of an assessment of the Private Investigators and Security Guard Act 1965 (Webber, 2006, p. 2). Starting in the early 2000s, the assessment culminated in a number of reports recommending updates to the Act that were completed in 2008 with the passing of the Security Services and Investigators Act. Effective June 1, 2011, all those wishing to work in several categories of the
Alberta security industry were expected to obtain the ABST or provide evidence of comparable training. The categories include security service workers, executive protection workers, loss prevention workers, patrol dog handlers, and security alarm responders (Alberta Justice and Solicitor General, 2015, pp. 5/6). Prior to 2011, only contract guards were required to be licenced; in-house security staff were exempt and no training was required. The training programme was established to meet two objectives. The first was to ensure that guards had the requisite skills to safely perform security work. The second objective is to “assure Albertans that security personnel have the level of skill to perform their work well” (Alberta Justice and Solicitor General, Commonly Asked Questions, 2015, p. 1). This research focuses on the first objective.

With the introduction of the 2008 legislation, prospective licensee must meet the following criteria (Alberta Justice and Solicitor General, 2015, p. 15):

1. The applicant must be at least 18 years of age.
2. They must be a Canadian citizen or be legally entitled to work in Canada.
3. They must be competent and of good character.
4. They may not have a serious criminal record for which a pardon has not been granted.
5. They may not have outstanding criminal charges.
6. They may not be the subject of a criminal investigation.
7. Applicants must be fluent in spoken English. The standard for fluency is the ability to communicate effectively with the public and members of the emergency response system during emergency situations.

The next step is successful completion of the ABST; the licensee applicant can alternatively show proof of equivalent training from another province. Canada’s Agreement on Internal Trade (AIT) supports the transfer of skills between provinces but does not guarantee licence transfer, so the decision to accept training from other jurisdictions is made on a case-by-case basis (Alberta Justice and Solicitor General, 2015, Security Programmes, p. 55). Generally, if an
applicant has obtained government-approved training from British Columbia, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario, or Quebec, then approval is easily obtained; training from other jurisdictions involves a greater vetting process.

The ABST is delivered either in-class and on-line. A number of private sector organizations across the province provide training; the Province of Alberta has a certification process to approve ABST trainers. This process consists of an application whereby prospective trainers must show proof of experience in the industry as well as prior experience as a trainer or instructor. The programme is delivered in class over 40 hours. In the online programme, students are provided with a copy of the manual and can post questions for an instructor. The accompanying 200-page ABST manual contains seven modules:

1. Introduction to the Security Industry
2. The Canadian Legal System and Security Professionals
3. Basic Security Procedures
4. Communication for Security Professionals
5. Documentation and Evidence
6. Response Procedures for Security Professionals

A copy of the ABST table of contents is provided in Appendix 1.

Applicants must pass a proctored exam with a minimum pass mark of 80%. The next step for the applicant is completion of their police information (including fingerprinting) and criminal background check, which can take anywhere from one day to four weeks to obtain depending on the police jurisdiction. After the background checks have been completed, a licence application can be submitted. The typical time required for processing a licence application through the Security Programmes department is 6-8 weeks (Alberta Justice and Solicitor General, 2015, Commonly Asked Questions). A general training licence can be issued while
applicants complete their training; this is a one-time issuance and can be converted into a regular licence upon successful completion of the application process. Applicants must also pay a $100.00 fee, valid for two years.

The ABST licence is portable and owned by the licensee, allowing them to work for multiple companies concurrently. ABST re-certification is only required if the license lapses. Alberta also allows for ABST equivalencies that must be approved and re-evaluated every three years. A number of security organizations have ABST equivalencies in the province. In the past two-year cycle, there have been 24,155 licences issued. This includes those individuals who posses both guard and investigator’s licences as well as those holding only investigator’s licences (S. Allen-Elliot, personal communication, March 8, 2017). Coupled with the one week of in-class training, the entire process to become legally entitled to work as a guard takes 8 – 14 weeks.

It was certainly time to update the 1965 legislation and introduce mandatory licensing and training for both in-house and contract guards. Alberta is one of six Canadian provinces with such requirements. The 40-hour training programme is also in alignment with the other five provinces and the uniformed guard industry has certainly benefited from the legislation. However the question remains does the ABST prepare guards for work in the industry? This thesis set out to answer this question.

Research aims

The aim of this research was to evaluate the effectiveness of the Alberta Basic Security Training program by comparing it against 35 training programmes from around the world and by interviewing 24 security practitioners impacted by it.

To address these aims, four specific research questions were identified:
1. How does the ABST compare against government and industry counterparts from a content perspective?

2. What are the duties of security guards according to researchers, governments and the security industry itself?

3. In practitioner’s opinions, does the ABST programme prepare security guards for entry-level security work?

4. What are the research implications of the findings, in order to inform the creation and delivery of appropriate content for both government legislators and private-sector programme developers?

This research aided in establishing a benchmark for jurisdictions currently without any training programmes by determining general security guard duties. It should also help raise the training bar and allow course developers and trainers to focus their efforts on providing appropriate training content with approved adult learning delivery methods throughout the industry and within the parameters of various jurisdictions.

**Outline of chapters**

Chapter 2 introduced the reader to the existing literature and the sub-themes that emerged from it. The chapter started with an examination of the issues around the use of the terms “security guard” and “security officer.” Considering that Alberta legislation has prohibited the term “officer” and other derived terms, this discussion was important. Next, guard duties were presented and discussed from three perspectives: researchers, government, and the security industry. By comparing this data against the training material as well as interviewing security practitioners and asking them about guard duties, beliefs about these duties were confirmed in the context of the Alberta environment. The duties were then compared against the ABST to help determine if the training material being delivered to trainees was preparing them for work as intended. Following this were discussions on both the
need for and purpose of guard training; then, guards and their views on training were presented. Regardless of the country many guards thought they were well trained but they also identified the need for more training. The next line of review was to evaluate training requirements as seen through the eyes of legislators. The chapter ended with an evaluation of the effectiveness of specific training programmes.

Chapter 3 presented the research methodology including the overall research design along with methods and research experiences. The approach taken, that of thematic coding analysis from an empirical perspective, first analyzed 36 training programmes from around the world and the second analyzed the responses from 24 practitioners involved in the Alberta security industry. This chapter ended with a discussion on how the research approach met ethical compliance.

Chapter 4 focused on an evaluation of 36 training syllabi from around the world. In Canada, there were 7 documents assessed: 6 provincial and 1 federal standard. 21 syllabi from American state training programmes were also obtained as were training documents from the United Kingdom, South Africa, India, and Australia. Finally, 4 private-sector training programmes were collected. Ultimately, 45 training headings were identified. The ABST was compared with these 35 programmes and all training headings and available content was analyzed whereby the content and/or syllabi headings were identified and examined. Evaluating the syllabi training material helped to confirm guard duties through how the training content was created as well as through a comparison of the training programmes against researcher, government, and industry literature. The ABST was compared and contrasted against the other programmes to determine if it is providing the appropriate content for Alberta security guards. Additional themes of training programme requirements, overall content evaluation and level of government oversight were also identified. As a result, this study adds to the limited research that has been conducted into guard training programmes and their effectiveness.
Chapter 5 explored security practitioners’ perspectives of both the Alberta Basic Security Training programme and how it was delivered to assist in determining guard preparedness. 24 people working in the Alberta security industry were interviewed, comprised of 10 guards, 6 security managers, 4 ABST trainers and 4 contract guard management personnel. By exploring the perspectives of these practitioners, several strengths and shortcomings of the programme were identified with the intent of making it more effective. This research is distinctive in that it focused on input and feedback from people with direct knowledge and experience; interviewees were either working as security guards or responsible for hiring, training or directing them.

Finally in Chapter 6 all the gathered data was analyzed to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the ABST as well as whether it prepares guards for their work. This chapter also focused on the research implications of the findings in order to inform the creation and delivery of appropriate content for both government legislators and private-sector programme developers. An exploration was completed of what content was provided to security trainees and how the content could be delivered to improve training.
Chapter 2: Literature Review
Introduction

This chapter assesses the extent to which security guard training has been tackled by existing academic and related literature. The chapter begins with a brief introduction to the literature review and selection strategy before identifying the different elements of the broad research theme of security guard training in Alberta as well as several associated issues. These issues include a brief discussion of the terms “guard” vs. “officer,” followed by an identification of guard duties. These duties were evaluated from three perspectives: researchers, government, and the security industry. The need for guard training is then assessed. Following this is a discussion on the purpose of training in the context of security guards. After this is an introduction to the obstacles to training, which then leads to guards and their views on training. In most cases, regardless of the country, many thought they were well trained and yet most, if not all, discussed the need for more training. The next line of review was to evaluate guard-training requirements seen through the eyes of legislators. Finally, an evaluation of the effectiveness of specific training programmes is performed, and the chapter is concluded with a discussion of the main findings.

Literature search and selection strategy

A general search strategy was started using the terms “security guard/officer training” and various derivations of those words. In addition the words “education”, “government licensing requirements”, “security guard testing”, “guard duties”, “guard responsibilities” and “private security training” were used. Initial results provided a wide number of documents that were ultimately divided into specific categories. These categories included guard duties, the need for training, purposes of training, obstacles to training, guard views on training and evaluating statutory guard training requirements.

Two categories of databases were searched. The first was criminology/security related and the second was adult learning centric. Searches starting with the

There were both challenges and successes with the search strategy employed. There was a considerable amount of research into guard duties. In fact, the results of searches were sub-divided into three sub-categories: researcher, government and security industry findings. Overall there was readily available material in five of
the six themes. The challenge was finding research on the evaluation of specific programs. Ultimately only three pieces of research were found. This made it difficult in determining what exactly led to successful learning and skills improvement. It also reinforced the importance of continued research into the area of specific training program evaluation.

**What’s in a name: guard vs. officer**

Depending on who is asked, the terms "security guard" and “security officer” are either interchangeable or they signify different job duties, pay structure, and responsibilities. However, sources describing the differences are various websites and their explanations are dubious at best. Micucci identified those security personnel “who were proactive crime fighters using the term ‘officers’ and derogatorily referred to co-workers who they perceived to be either reluctant to back them up or as inept as ‘guards’” (1998, p. 45). Ruddell, Thomas & Patten refer to the title of guard as a “pejorative term” (2011, p. 65). Several researchers use the term “security officer” exclusively, including Michael (1999), Leeds, Griffith & Frei (2003), Hutchinson and O’Conner (2005), Ferguson, Prenzler, Sarre & de Caires (2011), and Cobina, Nalla & Bender (2013). Whether this is used by accident or design, it is not known. Those who use both terms interchangeably include Bayley and Shearing (1996), Micucci (1998), Yoshida (1999), Jaska (2004), Manzo (2004, 2005, 2006, 2009, 2010, & 2011), O’Conner, Lippert, Greenfield & Boyle (2004), Button, Park & Lee (2006), and Blackstone and Hakim (2013). There are also researchers who only use the term “security guards” including Stenning & Shearing (1981), Du Toit (2014), Nalla & Crichlow (2014), Kirshenbaum & Rapaport (2017) and Adetula (2016). It is interesting to note that the term "private policing" used to explain security was in use prior to 1979; for example Kakalik & Wildhorn referenced private policing in 1971 as have Shearing & Stenning (1981). Notwithstanding the fact that the terms are interchangeable from a practical perspective, they do mean different things to different people. Many researchers spend far less time on this issue and instead refer to security
personnel as “private police” or as part of the extended policing family, including Bayley & Shearing (1996), Kempa, Carrier, Wood & Shearing (1999), Stenning (2000), Rigakos (2002), Alain & Crete (2009), Bradley & Sedgwick (2009), Wakefield & Gill (2009), Blackstone & Hakin (2013), and Wakefield & Button (2014).

The Government of Alberta, whose security guard training programme is the focus of this study, has prohibited the use of the term “security officer” to avoid confusion on behalf of the public between police and security as well as to presumably ensure that security personnel do not attempt to mimic or take advantage of the reputation of police. With the creation of legislation in 2008, Section 40 – Prohibited Titles states:

A licensee shall not use the expression “private detective,” “law enforcement officer,” “protection officer,” or “security officer” in connection with a business or employment, or hold out in any manner that the person is a private detective, law enforcement officer, protection officer, or security officer or use any derivation of these terms that is likely to confuse the public (pp. 22/23).

Offences
45(1) A person who contravenes or fails to comply with any of the following provisions is guilty of an offence:
Section 40;

(2) A person who contravenes the regulations is guilty of an offence.

The penalty for the use of this term would presumably be either the rejection or suspension of a license (Alberta Queen’s Printer, 2008). It is interesting to note that in the National Occupational Classification (2011) manual, the Canadian Federal Government provides alternatives to the term security guard including “private
security officer” (p. 442). As a result, one must wonder if there is potential for conflict in the use of this term between the federal and provincial governments in light of the Agreement on Internal Trade.

In the case of this thesis, the term “guard” will be primarily used except in cases where other organizations have deliberately used the term “officer.” In these cases, the particular organization’s use of the term has not been changed.

Guard duties

In adult learning, a needs assessment is required to determine necessary training. In order to conduct a needs assessment, the first thing to determine is what a person needs to be able to do as a result of the training (Kaufman, 2014). In conducting this literature review, it was found that there were three distinct groups who had something to contribute to this topic. The following section discusses the findings of researchers who have explored guard duties, the specifications of six governments that have national occupational classification systems for security guard job duties, and the requirements that security industry writers have published regarding guard responsibilities.

What researchers say

Security guard job duties have been the subject of extensive research ever since the phenomenon of private security caught the attention of academics and governments in the late 1960s. The industry had been steadily growing in the United States since the 1850s (Fischer, Halibozek & Green, 2013, pp. 6/7) and in England since 1926 (Johnston, 1992, p. 19), but it was Kakalik & Wildhorn who, commissioned by the United States Department of Justice for their groundbreaking 1971 study, identified the duties of security personnel:
• Primarily concerned with crime prevention and detection and the gathering of information for private purposes.
• Major functions are to prevent, detect and report criminal acts, provide security against loss from fire or equipment failure, to control access to private property, and to enforce rules and regulations of private employers.
• Occasionally they are deputized by local law enforcement to provide limited police services such as traffic direction and traffic enforcement on the property in which they work. On other occasions they are hired by community groups to patrol public streets in residential neighbourhoods in the hopes of deterring street crime because the residents feel that the quantity and/or quality of public police protection is inadequate (p. 19).

The challenge in detailing duties is that sometimes the desired outcome of security personnel duties is explained rather than the duties themselves, such as when Kakalik and Wildhorn write that security personnel are primarily concerned with crime prevention and detection and the gathering of information for private purposes. Fortunately, they also go on to explain how this is accomplished.

In 1980, Shearing, Farnell & Stenning conducted a large scale survey examining guard duties in both the United States and Canada. In a subsequent, widely cited paper they summarized their findings that guards:

(A)re concerned with loss prevention which includes conducting surveillance through foot patrols, checking security barriers such as locks, doors, and fences, checking for fire hazards, closing windows, and attending to a host of similar mundane security details. In addition they devoted much of their time to controlling access and egress to and from the areas for which they are responsible. They are involved on a daily basis with the screening
or escorting of visitors or both as well as conducting searches (Shearing & Stenning, 1981, p. 213).

Two underlying premises identified by Shearing and Stenning clarified the difference between the private security industry and public law enforcement. Security guards are defined as providing private policing services and one of the defining characteristics is “that private security organizations exist essentially to serve the interests of those who employ them, rather than some more or less clearly defined “public interest” which purportedly lies at the heart of the public police mandate” (p. 209). In regards to what security personnel do, both contract and in-house, Shearing & Stenning state, “the role of private security may be characterized by its emphasis on a preventative approach to the protection of assets and the maximization of profits” (ibid, p. 210). While the authors do not explicitly state that they are discussing uniformed guards, they certainly imply it.

In Australia, Rees (1984) identified guard duties to include both controlling access and monitoring people and vehicles, engaged in housekeeping duties, supervising cleaning staff after hours, conducting fire equipment checks, conducting patrols, and monitoring building and surveillance equipment (p. 17).

Back in Canada, Micucci (1998) identified the similar duties for uniformed security personnel at a central Canadian university. Guards were responsible for conducting arrests, carrying out investigations, patrolling, managing conflict, traffic control, enforcing regulations, providing directions, delivering mail, unlocking classrooms, managing lost and found items, carrying out searches for missing persons, providing transportation, duties, access control, conducting money escorts and responding to fire alarms (pp. 43/44).

In England, George & Button (2000) refer to manned security services when they discuss security duties, which include “guarding, patrolling, searching, surveillance, and the enforcement of rules and the law” (p. 53). They then expand the list by
adding “access control, alarm response, protecting life and property, key-holding, and patrolling. Security officers are employed to patrol internally and externally in order to deter crime and look for potential problems and hazards” (ibid, p. 54).

In the United States, Nalla & Heraux (2003) broadly define security “private police” duties to “include order maintenance, protecting their respective clients, reducing crime and preventing loss” (p. 238). The challenge in interpreting these specific research findings is that they refer to the mandate of “security departments” as a whole and not just security officers.

Vindevogel (2005) is succinct when he states that in America, “countless shops, movie theaters, department stores and office buildings had been employing guards for two or three decades—mainly to control access, protect property and prevent theft” (p. 235).

Wakefield (2006) provides a functional breakdown of guard roles: “Housekeeping, customer care, preventing crime and anti-social behaviour, enforcing rules and administering sanctions, responding to emergencies and offences in progress, gathering and sharing information and employee education and training” (pp. 388-391).

Strom et al. (2010) take a broader view in detailing the duties of security guards in their study, “The Private Security Industry: A Review of the Definitions, Available Data Sources, and Paths Moving Forward.” However, they discuss the outcomes as opposed to previous descriptions by describing guard duties to “protect people and property” and “support law enforcement and emergency personnel” (pp. 4.8/4.9).

As can be seen, there is little difference between the countries under review as there a number of commonalities between the various researchers when
comparing guard duties. These include undertaking crime prevention activities including patrolling, responding to emergencies, managing conflict between people controlling access, writing reports, conducting investigations and arrests, general housekeeping, monitoring building equipment and security systems, and other order-maintenance activities. While this list has a distinct Anglo-centric slant to it with American, Australian, British, and Canadian documentation and researchers, government documents from India and Singapore support standardization of security guard job duties globally. The next section reviews six national occupation classifications systems in detail.

What the security industry says

The security industry is comprised of a number of functions or services. George & Button (2000) identified five sectors or elements: manned guarding services, detention services, security storage/shredding, professional security services including security consultants and professional investigators, and security products (p. 11). In the 17 years since their paper, the information security sector has exploded as a sixth sector, and it is likely that there are other sectors.

The category of manned guarding services is sub-divided into four sub-sectors. This research focuses on static guarding, which is one of the four. The other three include cash-in-transit, door supervision/stewards, and close protection. Manned guarding is likely the most visible aspect of the entire security industry as guards are usually clearly identifiable given the nature of their duties and uniform. Many other elements of the security industry are invisible as they lie below beneath the surface of the public’s perception. Uniformed guards come in contact with the public every day in both private and public locations.

In the security management industry, a great deal of thought has gone into manned guarding services, both in-house and contract. It was estimated in 2010 that there were more people worldwide employed as private security guards (348 per 100,000) than as police (318 per 100,000) (Lalonde, 2010, p. 4). Worldwide,
manned guarding is a multi-billion dollar industry; to get the most out of these personnel, the security industry is constantly looking for the best way of managing them and increasing their effectiveness.

In evaluating security industry literature, there are two issues to discuss. The first is what guards do, and the second is how they do it. Multiple authors and bodies have stated that security personnel exist to protect the assets of an organization. While this is true, how this is actually accomplished provides insight into guards’ specific duties and subsequent training requirements.

Confederation of European Security Services identified several duties including “static, mobile, security checks, close protection, alarm response, reception, key holding” and monitoring and “alarm receiving (and dispatching) electronic surveillance and positioning, operational remote control, guard safety control and CIT (Cash in Transit) remote control” (Van Sand, 2010, p. 1).

According to both Fishman (2012) and Gerden (1998), “security officers are engaged in the protection of goods, people and services” (Fishman, 2012, p. 363; Gerden, 1998, p. 31). This describes what officers do but not how their duties are accomplished. Delving into how this protection is accomplished, Fay states that duties include patrols, access control, enforcing rules and regulations, and responding to emergencies including providing first aid (2007, p. 346). Fischer, Halibozek and Walters (2013) provide considerably more detail in discussing security officer duties, which include “undertaking surveillance, control access of people, vehicles and property, monitor security equipment, conduct patrols looking for emergency situations including fire, protect intellectual property, prevent criminal activity, enforce occupational health and safety rules, and prevent workplace violence” (pp. 21/22).

The Protection of Assets manual, the foundational body of knowledge (BoK) for the Certified Protection Professional (CPP) designation Knoke (2011) writes that the
basic functions of the guard is to “control access, conduct patrols of property and its perimeters, provide escorts to people and material, inspect security and fire exposures, monitor surveillance equipment, respond to emergencies, deal with disturbed people and attend to special assignments (p. 4).

Palacios & Hertig (2010) in the Certified Protection Officer program state that the primary job function of a guard is the protection of people and assets by undertaking four major roles including management representative, intelligence agent, compliance or enforcement agent and legal consultant (pp. 43 – 45). Within these four roles are specific duties including learning and enforcing company rules and regulations including laws, codes and guidelines, providing customer service in a wide number of areas including providing information, providing and controlling access, responding to emergencies and requests for assistance, enforcing safety and security regulations, and undertaking investigations and writing reports. In addition to these four roles, a fifth has been identified: that of physical security or crime prevention specialist (Knoke, 2011, p. 99). The five roles as detailed by Palacious, Hertig and Knoke are very broad, and can be expanded upon.

Fisher, Halibozek and Walters (2013) state that guard duties include “building and perimeter protection, intrusion and access control, using alarm and surveillance systems, fire prevention and control, emergency response, protection of intellectual property prevention of theft and pilferage, accident prevention and safety, enforcement of occupational crime and loss-related rules, regulation and policies and prevention of workplace violence” (pp. 21/22).

When evaluating what the various authors state are security duties, it is clear there are many commonalities including access control, key holding, report writing, monitoring/responding to alarms and emergencies, rule enforcement, inspections, and undertaking physical and electronic patrols. Again, these are similar to what researchers have found and what governments list.
What governments say

Many governments around the world have created occupational classification systems (United Nations Statistics Division). These systems were created to evaluate the labour market and provide a standardized framework for all jobs by placing them into understandable and manageable categories. This allows occupations to be identified and grouped by tasks, duties and responsibilities. In turn, work indicators including level of responsibility, complexity and services provided allowed jobs to be placed into occupations and occupations into groups (National Occupational Standards [UK], 2011, p. 1).

In Canada, the National Occupational Classification (NOC) provides similar outcomes to allow government, industry and employees to understand and prepare for training and employment. There are 10 broad occupational categories, 40 major groups, 140 minor groups, and 500 unit groups (Born & Boucher, 2011, p. 2). Security guards fall into Category 6: Sales and Service occupations (ibid, p. 12). NOC skill-level criteria details education and training and other criteria required for completion of each particular occupation. Skill level A requires a university degree, while skill level B calls for two – five years of apprenticeship and more than two years of on-the-job training. Skill level C requires high school and short-duration courses or training and up to two years of on-the-job training. Finally, level D calls for short work demonstration or on-the-job training or no formal education requirements (ibid, p. 10). Security guards fall into skill level C and major group 65, which includes service representatives and other customer and personal services occupations. The specific code for security guards is 654 (ibid, p. 27). According to the NOC, guard duties include controlling access, operating and monitoring control room equipment, conducting patrols to guard against theft, vandalism and fire, providing order maintenance, resolving conflict, ensuring safety and emergency procedures are followed, directing visitors and performing security checks of passenger and luggage at airports (ibid, p. 442).
The United States employment classification, the Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) manual, states, “security guard patrol or monitor premises to prevent theft, violence, or infraction of rules. They may operate x-ray and metal detector equipment” (United States. Executive, 2010, p. 98). According to the United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, security guards “typically duties include protecting and enforcing laws including conducting arrests, monitoring security equipment, controlling access, conducting patrols, writing reports and providing testimony (United States Department of Labor, 2015).

In their National Occupational Classification (NOS) system, India lists the unarmed security guard’s role as “to guard designated premises and people by manning the first tier of protection aided by security devices/equipment. The core responsibility includes guarding against theft, criminal acts, emergencies, fire and other contingencies” (National Skill Development Corporation, 2013, p. 2).

The British National Occupational Standards (NOS) requires security guards to be able to “respond to and control security incidents, conduct patrols, control premise access, carry out searches on people and property, undertake arrests, monitor surveillance equipment, deal with lost and found property and write reports (National Occupational Standards [UK] 2011, p. 5)

While Canadian, American, Indian, and UK documents detail security guards’ duties, which are to protect people and property, it is the UK’s NOS that provides additional information on how this protection will be undertaken. The details provided included conducting arrests, dealing with conflict, utilizing video surveillance systems, and writing reports as detailed on the previous page.

Delving deeper into the competencies required to successfully work as a security guard, a number of reports have provided additional explanations. In his Situational Analysis of the Private Security Industry and National Occupational Standards for Security Guards, Hovbender (2012) discusses these competencies, including:
(E)thical accountability and responsibility necessary for understanding the role of security guards in dealing with members of the public, oral communications and its requirement to understand verbal communications and how this type of communication influences public/security guard interaction, risk management which is a broad category on everything from understanding basic security procedures, access control, conducting patrols, applying video surveillance, responding to emergencies, crowd management and applying legal use of force, amongst other skills and abilities. Written skills are also required as are decision making skills and the ability to apply relevant legislation, laws, policies and procedures (pp. 13/14).

With this definition, in order for security personnel to successfully undertake their duties confidently and competently, a considerable amount of training is required.

Swol (1999) provides a second Canadian perspective on guard duties: “they control access to buildings, patrol assigned areas, enforce security regulations of a business, perform security checks of passengers and luggage at airports, drive and guard armoured trucks containing money or valuables, or supervise and co-ordinate activities of other security guards” (p. 35).

The Singapore government (Singapore Workforce Skills Qualification, 2015) has also developed an employer’s guide detailing security guard workforce skills qualifications. Working with the security industry, they created a national credentialing programme with four levels of certification for unarmed officers, armed officers, supervisors, and managers. Under the control of the Singapore Police Force, this programme was established to provide clear pathways for professional development in the security industry. The training required for security officers is comprised of three core units and 15 elective units. The employers guide provides a detailed explanation of the skills and training required as well as
recognizing that there are sub-categories of security officer responsibilities based on the environment, including retail and airports.

In the six countries detailed and the classification schemes quoted, there is a consistency to the duties performed by uniformed security guards. The more common duties include controlling access, operating and responding to security control-room equipment, conducting patrols, enforcing rules including effecting arrests, providing a physical presence for safety, providing security and assistance to the public, responding to emergencies, writing reports, conducting searches, observing and reporting suspects to authorities, conducting investigations, and testifying in court.

Comparing these occupational classification schemes suggests a consistency in general duties for uniformed security guards globally. It also provides insight into the consistency of training standards from a government perspective, particularly when compared against researcher findings and security industry requirements.

**Common guard duties**

The following section on research, security industry and government perspectives establish common guard duties from the mundane to complex; however, one of the challenges in comparing duties is that some descriptions report functions while others detail duties affecting those functions. For example, to state that functions include preventing and detecting criminal acts does not detail how this is done. Thankfully, there are details from other sources to remedy this. As can be seen in Table 2.1, there is overlap between all three groups when describing these duties. The fourth column amalgamates the first three into common functions and duties.
Table 2.1: Comparing guard functions and duties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researchers</th>
<th>Security Industry</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Common functions &amp; duties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Functions</strong></td>
<td><strong>Functions</strong></td>
<td><strong>Duties</strong></td>
<td><strong>Functions:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Housekeeping</td>
<td>1. Management representative</td>
<td>• Patrol assigned areas to guard against theft, vandalism, and fire</td>
<td>• Housekeeping – compliance/enforcement agent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Customer care</td>
<td>2. Intelligence agent</td>
<td>• Detain violators</td>
<td>• Customer care – management representative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Preventing crime and anti-social behaviour</td>
<td>3. Compliance/enforcement agent</td>
<td>• Testify in court</td>
<td>• Enforcing rules and administrative sanctions – management representative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Enforcing rules and administrative sanctions</td>
<td>4. Legal consultant</td>
<td>• Ensure safety and emergency procedures are followed</td>
<td>• Preventing crime and anti-social behaviour – compliance/enforcement agent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Responding to emergencies and offences in progress</td>
<td>5. Physical security and crime prevention specialist</td>
<td>• Control security incidents</td>
<td>• Responding to emergencies and offences in progress – physical security and crime prevention specialist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Gathering and sharing information</td>
<td><strong>Duties</strong></td>
<td>• Write reports</td>
<td>• Gathering and sharing information – intelligence agent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Duties**

- Conduct patrols
- Undertake surveillance
- Conduct arrests
- Conduct searches
- Search for missing persons
- Protect assets from fire or equipment failure
- Conduct general maintenance
- Receive recovered property
- Conduct investigations
- Gather information
- Control access
- Check security barriers
- Escort visitors
- Provide customer care
- Enforce employer rules and regulations
- Occasionally deputized by law enforcement to provide limited police services
- Transport monies
- Employee education and training

- Prevent theft and pilferage
- Provide static & mobile duties
- Security checks
- Patrol buildings and perimeters
- Conduct searches
- Protect intellectual property/data
- Close protection
- Emergency response
- Provide first aid
- Accident prevention and safety
- Prevention of workplace violence
- Alarm response
- Deal with disturbed people
- Prevent and control fire, including evacuation and fire response
- Conduct and report investigations
- Access control
- Reception
- Key holding
- Escort material and personnel
- Monitoring and alarm receiving, electronic surveillance and positioning, operational remote control, guard safety control, and CIT remote control
- Attend special assignments

-• Transporting valuables
-• Receptionist duties
-• Manage lost and found
-• Educating employees
-• Testifying in court
As detailed in Table 2.1, the primary responsibility of the security guard is to protect the assets of the organization. How this is accomplished is common to all three groups. Yet there is one difference between the research and security industry and the government. The first two groups identified key functions that are outcome based. In turn, individual duties are described supporting these functions. Government organizations do not list functions and only list duties.

The common functions shared between researchers and the security industry which, while labelled differently, were quite similar. These include housekeeping compliance - enforcement agent, customer care - enforcement agent, enforcing rules and administrative sanctions – management representative, preventing crime and anti-social behaviour – compliance/enforcement agent, responding to emergencies and offenses in progress – physical security and crime prevention specialist and gathering and sharing information – intelligence agent (Wakefield, 2006, pp. 388 - 391; Palacios & Hertig, 2010, pp. 43 – 45; Knoke, 2011, p. 99). It is also apparent that there is overlap between various functions. For example, customer care as suggested by the researchers can also be interpreted as housekeeping duties which both fall into both management representative and enforcement agent as described by the security industry.

Duties as detailed by all three groups were extracted from the table to cover the following broad areas: access control, conducting investigations and report writing, enforcing rules (includes company and legal rules), conducting inspections, conducting surveillance, either in person or electronically by looking for deviations from normal conditions caused by accident or on purpose by people or weather, responding to various requests for services and emergencies from the mundane to the complex and undertaking special assignments such as transporting valuables, acting as a receptionist, managing lost and found articles, educating employees and testifying in court.
Within these primary duties are a host of responsibilities requiring extensive training on multiple security systems, civil and criminal legal matters, company rules and regulations, investigation standards, and appropriate emergency responses for everything from a simple request for first aid to responding to workplace violence and terrorist attacks. While not explicitly stated all of these tasks also require a high level of written and verbal communication skills. This multitude of duties reinforces the need for training, which is discussed next.

The need for training

Kakalik & Wildhorn identified inadequate training as a problem in their 1971 study on Private Police in America: “Although current private security training programmes vary considerably in quality, most are inadequate. The total pre-work training, initial on-the-job training, is less than 2 days for a great majority of the private security workers in the United States today” (p. 32). “The training a private guard currently receives before beginning work is typically no more than 8–12 hours, and many guards, including some who are armed receive less than 2 hours of training” (ibid, p. 34).

Hemmens, Maahs, Scarborough & Collins (2001) evaluated the state regulation of private security from 1982-1998 in the United States. What they found pertaining to security training is typical of what is found in many places around the world, which is that “there have been relatively few changes in the requirements for security officer training. In 1982 only seven states required training for unarmed security officers while in 1998, this increased to 22” (p. 26). While this is an incremental positive change, it still left 28 states without mandatory training requirements at the time. When Nalla & Crichlow followed up in 2014 in looking at the statutory training requirements for the period of 1982 to 2010, there was only an increase of one state that required mandatory training for unarmed officers (ibid, p. 7) from 1998. In the words of the authors, “a survey of statewide regulations shows that the formal training of private security guards is widely neglected” (ibid, p. 7). This is
unfortunate but not surprising given the similar attitudes held by governments in many countries around the world regarding the lack of training requirements.

In a report evaluating the status of security guards in New York City post 9/11, Shepard & Mintz-Roth (2005) state that “the Public Advocate’s Office finds that minimal training and limited enforcement of training requirements, combined with low pay, has left New York with a private security force that is ill-prepared to protect its public” (p. 2). In 2011, Scollan undertook research to evaluate whether enhanced security guard training legislation improved guard preparedness. Given the poor showing as detailed by Shepard & MIntz-Roth just seven years earlier, his findings showed a strong improvement in security guard training and preparedness (p. 69). Between 2004 and 2011, there was a 356% increase in the number of guards having more than 40 hours of training. In addition, another 27.3% reported having between 24-40 hours of training, a category not reported in 2004.

Prenzler, Sarre & Earle (2008) examined the state of the Australian security industry. They highlighted that a lack of regulations and screening along with poor training led to "undesirable behaviour with sometimes deadly consequences for the recipients of security actions" (p. 34). This chilling evaluation highlights the negative effects of a lack of training and oversight for the industry and serves as a warning to those legislators who have failed to implement industry controls.

Simelane (2008) looked at the state of security in Swaziland and found what is common through much of the world: an industry with limited standards, including in the area of training. In fact, in Swaziland, there are no standards for security guards beyond the ability to read and write. Nor at the time were there any regulations or requirements for any type of training (p. 606). It is interesting to note that despite the poor or non-existent levels of training in the country, the industry continues to grow. Simelane attributes this to the failure of the government to protect its citizens (ibid, p. 610).
The security industry has taken criticism specifically about its lack of training, among other issues. The Security Industry Authority has faced this issue in discussing whether the UK security officer regulations programme has been a success or not. Writing about the issue in 2009, Berrong identified that while the regulations have kept some criminals out of the industry, the programme has failed in other key areas including training, as standards must be raised “for the training of security officers by ACS-approved employers” (p. 3).

In testimony before the American Senate Committee for Homeland Security and Government Affairs, Mark Goldstein, Director of Physical Infrastructure Issues, identified a lack of training for contract security guards on the part of Federal Protective Services that “does not fully ensure that its contract security guards have the training and certifications required to be deployed to a federal facility” (United States, Government Accountability Office, 2009, p. 2). Contract security personnel deployed to US federal government facilities are to be provided with 128 hours of pre-assignment training and an additional 40 hours of training “every 2 or 3 years” (pp. 7/8) and yet as much as 62% of staff were found to have at least one certificate that was expired due to a lack of refresher training. There were also several incidents where a lack of training may have contributed to guards failing to carry out their responsibilities (ibid, p. 2).

Strom et al (2010), in their private security analysis, wrote, “many private security personnel are temporary or part-time employees who are often underpaid and untrained” (pp. 6-8/6-10). Despite the reality that training of security personnel has not been fully embraced by all countries, there is recognition that it is important from a human rights perspective and that there has been some progress.

The United Nations has called for training of Civilian Private Security Services (CPSS) at the domestic level. Button (2013) argues that minimum standards are being called for to deal with topics including “the role of CPSS and its contribution to crime prevention and community safety, legislation as it pertains to powers of
arrest, evidence, and the use of force, communication skills, conflict resolution and de-escalation skills, customer and client service skills, emergency procedures, and adherence to international human rights standards and norms” (p. 15). In comparing the minimum standards being called for against the 36 training syllabi in this research, as evidenced in Chapter 4 generally and Table 4.1 specifically, the only topic not specifically mentioned in the training material is the adherence to international human rights standards and norms. However, one theme clearly identified in the syllabi analysis is ‘Professionalism/Ethics/Code of Conduct. While this category does not specifically identify human rights, it is certainly implied. And there is recognition of this issue by ASIS International in its Private Security Officer Selection and Training Standard. ASIS has also published an American National Standard called “Management System for Quality of Private Security Company Operations – Requirements with Guidance.” In this standard are two noteworthy points: “Establishing Norms of Behavior and Codes of Ethical Conduct” and “Respect for Human Rights” (ASIS International, 2012, pp. 57 & 67). The addition of these two sections within this ASIS standard, an organization with global recognition that is establishing worldwide security standards, highlights their recognition of the value of human rights.

Van Steden & de Ward (2013) call on “public authorities to continue to implement innovative public–private partnerships, stricter regulations and higher training standards in order to better handle the challenges private security companies pose to ‘law and justice’ criteria” (p. 307). Their line of thought is that the industry can no longer be ignored, and so it must be better controlled, which is not an invalid observation.
Purpose of training

Salas & Cannon-Bowers in Teague, Quinn, Green & Bahn, (2014) state that, “training is defined as the systematic acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes with the goal being to develop the competencies necessary for effective performance in the work environment” (p.17). The goal of training is to make people more efficient and productive while changing their cognition, attitudes, and behaviours.

While there is no doubt that training can be and is beneficial, there must also be recognition that there is both “effective” and “ineffective” training. There are a number of assessment methodologies used to evaluate both the training itself and the evaluation methodologies’ effectiveness (Bownas, Bosshardt & Donnelly, 1985; Kraiger, Ford & Salas, 1993; Stanley, 2002; Bulgarelli & Gori, 2004; Topno, 2012). As such a number of factors must be present in order for successful training to occur. In discussing the concept of transfer of learning theory, Haskell (2001) stated, “transfer of learning, however, is the very foundation of learning, thinking and problem solving. Despite the importance of transfer of learning, research findings over the past nine decades clearly show that as individuals, and as educational institutions, we have failed to achieve transfer of learning on any significant level” (p. xiii). Of course, there are other learning theories including inductive learning (Prince & Felder, 2006), cognitivism, constructivism (Oakes, 2014) behaviorism and adult learning theory (Sink, 2014), all with their own complexities. There are also a variety of evaluation methods to determine the effectiveness of training. One of the most popular, Kirkpatrick’s Four-Level evaluation method (Grohmann & Kauffeld, 2013, p. 137), focuses on four training outcomes: reaction, learning, behaviour, and results (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006, p. ix). While Bates (2004) states that, “there is no doubt that Kirkpatrick’s model has made valuable contributions to training evaluation thinking and practice,” he goes on to elaborate that “there are at least three limitations of Kirkpatrick’s mode that have implications for the ability of training evaluators to
deliver benefits and further the interests of organizational clients” (p. 342). Realistically, there are shortcomings in all evaluative training methodologies. Topno (2012) evaluated four commonly used evaluative models including Kirkpatricks’, the CIPP Evaluation, the CIRO Approach, and Phillip’s Evaluation Approach. His findings were that “training evaluation is the most important aspect of training and development. It is a subject which has been much discussed but superficially carried out” (p. 22).

There are a number of assumptions linked with training. One is that when people attend training, it is always worthwhile. Unfortunately, this is often not the case. In 2005, Page et al. evaluated southeastern European private security companies. Among their many findings, they identified that while the private security industry has raised its standards to the point where its members “pose little or no security threat, available training has not raised standards across the board and that in many cases, the content and effectiveness of training appears inadequate” (p. iv). Topno (2012) says “training and development enhances efficiency and develops a systematic way of performing duties and assigned tasks. Moreover, it bridges the gap between job requirement and employees’ present specification. Training, like any other organizational activity, requires time, energy and money. It’s an investment in employees’ productivity and retention by providing for career progression and employees’ job satisfaction over the long term” (p. 16). In the context of this research, the focus is on training as opposed to education. One explanation explaining the difference is detailed below (Wakefield, 2017).
Table 2.2: Education vs. training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education is a lifelong process, undertaken to further individual knowledge and develop a person’s intellect in order to underpin activities in which they may engage at a later stage. It is about developing individual potential, providing a knowledge base and helping a person discover and develop their abilities.</td>
<td>Training is more focused on the development of specific skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Although an educated person is often more employable, education is not directly related to employment.</td>
<td>Training is intended to develop the skills sought after by employers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The origins of education are in the university system.</td>
<td>In the UK, training has its origins in the guild system, provided by means of apprenticeships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational learning involves reading widely, rather than a reliance on prescriptive textbooks, with the learner encouraged to reflect critically on their reading materials, and any point seen as being open to discussion.</td>
<td>Training is usually delivered by means of specialized and prescriptive courses and textbooks.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 2003, Hainmuller and Lemnitzer asked the question of why Europeans fly safer compared with the United States. They evaluated factors that contribute to higher levels of security in the context of the airport environment and ultimately identified that lower levels of training, along with poor salaries and high turnover (p.4) contributed to poor performance on the part of airport screeners in the United States. The authors also cite Choi (1994), who writes, “taken in its totality, the lack of required training (...) is the single most glaring deficiency in the U.S. civil aviation security systems” (ibid, p. 4). All three issues are generally understood to be interconnected, as a low level of training is a contributing factor in employee turnover while conversely, a high level of training is understood to assist in the reduction of turnover. Increased turnover means less experienced employees and
a management reluctance to provide training as it is seen as a poor investment when it is assumed that the person will soon be gone.

In terms of standardized training, van Steden and de Waard (2013) discuss the concept of the 'McDonaldization of security', which refers to the enforcement of worldwide standards of policy, uniforms, products and services including training (p. 299). Also, given the disparities in many countries when it comes to legislation, training costs, salaries, basic educational standards, and client expectations and willingness to pay, creating and managing worldwide standards may be a beyond the scope of such companies as G4S and Securitas. It is challenging enough to deliver standard services within a single country, let alone on a global scale.

The United States Government Accountability Office (2013), in revisiting the issue of training of contract security staff at federal facilities in 2009, reported that Federal Protective Services face continued challenges in ensuring that the guards assigned to their facilities were properly trained and certified in active shooter and screening training (p. 2). This was reportedly due to “a lack of management controls and that almost 40% of the contract guards were operating equipment they had not been trained on” (ibid, p. 9).

In the United Kingdom, Diston (2014) evaluated mandatory training for front-line security staff in managing work-related violence and concluded that a number of factors precluded successful training delivery. These factors included a lack of a national standard in teaching the physical management of violence, too many self-defence models in the market confusing the situation, a lack of a centralized reporting system for all violent situations, which would support the further development of training, trainers lacking formal licensing and not requiring qualifications for the delivery of the training, and “the qualification delivery of this training should be restricted to only those awarding bodies with the competence to assess the subject matter” (p. 89). He further elaborated that, “refresher training frequency should be determined by the role and operating environment and that
the SIA should ensure that security companies are performing adequate violence risk assessments and reporting incidents appropriately. Due to the wide range of factors only a multi-pronged approach will make any significant improvement to the training to reduce risks and protect officers and the public” (ibid, p. 89). He concluded that the existing training programme is good at explaining theory but the “mandatory physical training is neither realistic nor effective and that it raises the greatest risk and creates additional ones” (ibid, p. 84).

Lopes (2015) assessed private security accountability in Brazil; training was evaluated as a form of controlling the actions of private security guards. Two primary forms of control were identified: external and internal. Training was placed in the internal category under the heading of personnel controls with the intent of forcing organizational compliance upon employees (p. 643). Along with training were several additional internal controls that are not germane to this conversation. The overall context of this research was to determine if there were existing mechanisms in place to correct the behaviour of individual employees and security companies if accused of human rights violations. Of course, one of the reasons that employees are trained is to control their behaviour – one of the desired outcomes of training is to change, modify or shape employee performance. Other reasons include improved productivity, reduced employee supervision, reduced legal liability, increased organizational credibility and increased customer base, all with the intent of reduced costs and increased profits.

Button & Stiernstedt (2016) write, “an appropriate amount of mandatory training addresses not only the proficiency and efficacy of security personnel, but would also negate many of the identified weaknesses of the industry including abuse of authority, excessive use of force, low professional standards, and non-compliance with the law” (p. 11).
Obstacles to training

One perspective on the current general lack of training in the security industry is put forth by Wakefield & Button (2014), who state that because so many police, military, and intelligence personnel permeate the security industry, “security employers rely on the wealth of training and experience that those with public security backgrounds have gained elsewhere, possibly limiting the investment in education and training and the appetite for professional development” (p. 582). This is a valid argument despite the fact that security, policing, military, and intelligence are very different occupations regardless of the fact that all four groups are part of the “protection” family. While each job requires different skill sets and differing levels of training and education, the perception is that people coming from the policing, military, or intelligence fields bring security expertise with them regardless of whether they in fact have those skills. No one would argue the fact that one cannot transfer from law enforcement into the military or intelligence or vice-versa without requiring training and familiarization, and yet Wakefield and Button point out that people are migrating into security with no training and with the assumption of security expertise that in many cases simply does not exist.

At least two researchers, Tur-Sinai & Romanov (2016), have felt that training is not particularly important when evaluating the effects of training on job stability. In their research in Israel, their description of skills required included “low occupational requirements,” a lack of “complex training,” (p. 2) and “rudimentary” (p. 6) in reference to security work. While the question of whether security in Israel is different than in other countries comes to mind, it is worth noting that the authors did not identify what these security personnel actually did. It is disconcerting to read the authors’ low opinion of security guards, particularly in light of what security guards do as evidenced by the detailed list of duties outlined throughout this thesis. This misunderstanding of guard duties and the general lack of respect for the position is at least partially responsible for salaries that are not equal to the position’s responsibility. Because of inadequate salaries, quality applicants are often not attracted to security work, which leads to poor performance and low
levels of commitment from the employee. With turnover ranging from 100 to 300% annually, organizations are loath to spend money on training. Turnover is exacerbated by the high demands of the job, and people often leave the industry because the pay is not equal to the responsibilities (Hainmuller & Lemnitzer, 2003).

There is no doubt that the security industry is part of the larger policing family. Yet some security people not only do not see themselves as part of this family; they are opposed to being lumped in with the police. There is certainly research to suggest that just as there some police who lack respect for the security industry (Goldsby, 1998; Button, 2008, pp. 185/186; Gill, 2015), there are those in security who feel the same about police (van Steden, van der Wal and Lasthuizen, 2015). This conflict and lack of understanding about guard duties can lead to obstacles to training including poor security training programmes being developed in many jurisdictions by law enforcement personnel who assume they know better than the security industry itself what training guards require (Jaska, 2004). Many jurisdictions see security as a subset of law enforcement and have placed security training in the hands of law enforcement agencies, particularly in the United States. As evidenced by the analysis undertaken in this thesis, we see a considerable amount of insufficient training for guards overseen by law enforcement in a number of states. Another example is provided by Yoshida (1999), who writes that the security industry in Japan is strictly controlled by law enforcement, who have purposely kept the industry weak to ensure that security guards never make law enforcement look bad.

Many believe that the security industry, despite already being part of the policing family, is in competition with law enforcement. Researchers who have written on this include Yoshida (1999), Simelane (2008), van Steden and de Ward (2013), and Omotoso and Aderinto (2016). There are a number of factors within this debate of private vs. public including philosophical, legal, financial, operational, and security/political (Knoke, 2012, p. 197). This debate has created a competition between the two groups and the relationship between public and private security
ranges from cooperative to antagonistic. As an operational issue, training (or a lack thereof) is an argument that many make to separate the two groups. This is a valid argument, but it is often taken out of context. Like security, policing has a spectrum of responsibilities that require different and specific training. Just as security guards require more training, so too does law enforcement – as evidenced in the area of human rights and given the history of abuses around the world at the hands of police (Amnesty International, 2017).

Guard views on training

In identifying the factors necessary for transfer of learning to be successful, Haskell (2001) identified motivation as a key factor (p. 117). As will be explained throughout this section, while many guards are keen to receive training when and where they can, many others believe their current training is sufficient despite research undertaken in a number of countries that has identified insufficient training as an issue. This section will detail those findings along with introducing the reader to operational styles with direct relevance to training and trainee perceptions in several contexts and countries. What will also be discussed is how training is being used as form of control over the security industry in some countries. Security training is also discussed further in the context of the ongoing competition with law enforcement. Finally, research participants’ opinions on security will be presented.

Research on guard views of training has been undertaken by Micucci (1998) and Manzo (2009, 2010, 2011) in Canada, the United Kingdom by Gill, et al (2012), United States by Cobinna, Nalla, and Bender (2013), Turkey by Cihan (2013), and Singapore by Lim & Nalla (2014). The value of training is stated neatly by Cihan: “understanding the views and discourses of officers on their training is important because officers’ perceptions might influence their ability to do their job and the quality of their performance” (2013, p. 14). Cihan is correct from Haskell’s perspective that motivation is a key learning component (2001, p. xv).
In Micucci’s (1998) evaluation of private policing operational styles within the university environment, he identified three categories: crime fighters, guards, and bureaucratic cops. Crime fighters were defined as “young, with high levels of specialized education, with short tenure and a specialization in crime control and order maintenance” (p. 43). Guards were defined as “old, with low levels of general education, with long tenure focusing on service and loss prevention” (ibid, p. 43). Bureaucratic cops occupied senior administrative positions and shared similar backgrounds with the crime fighters (ibid, p. 46). Within the three categories, he considered a number of issues including attitudes in relationship to training. Within the “crime fighters” and “bureaucratic cops” groups, both were dissatisfied with a lack of specific training geared towards crime control with an emphasis on “police-type” training and tools (ibid, p. 46). This included special-constable status, handcuff training, nightsticks and vehicles (ibid, p. 46). Only the “guards” group was satisfied with the level and type of training received, most often early on in their careers (ibid, p. 49).

The findings from Manzo (2009) in regards to security officers’ perceptions of training include the idea that “Canadian security officers’ training involves, according to recollections of the officers themselves, mostly instruction in practical procedures and in ‘customer service’” (p. 403). In addition, he gives the recommendation that “given the role – as evidenced in the data reviewed in this paper – that emergent, unanticipated events can play in the work worlds of security officers, consultants might recommend more training for private security officers in decision making or the use of ‘discretion.’” (ibid, p. 403). In regards to security officer perceptions of training, he concludes that:

(G)iven the relative paltriness and lack of standardization of private security training in Canada, one must ask if private security personnel are adequately equipped for responding to the seemingly infinite number of unforeseen emergencies that they might encounter on the job. By examining interviews addressing
these matters with officers who work in regulated and unregulated provincial environments, it appears, first, that officers in both sorts of environments are trained; second, that, whatever the formal nature of their training, officers call on more than training in conducting their work – personal experiences related to past security work as well as experience gained from other activities; third, that officers do encounter emergencies at work; and fourth, that officers can use their training to respond to those emergencies but can also reference and use skills and experiences drawn from outside of that training (p. 402).

What he suggests is that while those he interviewed believed they were well trained, they would benefit from additional training.

There is a similar finding in the following research from New York. In Scollan's research on the New York State enhanced security guard training, the amount of training and guard satisfaction was evaluated. Of the 302 training respondents, whose training ranged from less than 8 hours to more than 40 hours of training, “70.1 percent of respondents indicated that the training they received is sufficient to prepare them” (p. 59) to work as a security guard. New York State requires guards to receive eight hours of mandatory training. However, due to a report by the Public Advocate for the City of New York in 2005 where it was determined that guards were undertrained, underpaid, and unprepared (Sheppard, p. 1), the Public Advocate and the City Council recommended that the training curriculum be revised and strengthened with a 40-hour enhanced training programme (Scollan, 2011, p. 4). While Scollan primarily looked at increased training and guard perceptions of preparedness and employee job satisfaction (ibid, p. 63), his findings revealed that “security officers have made some strides with regard to their preparedness levels as compared to researched conducted in 2004” (ibid, p. 73). However, they were lacking two key areas: building evacuations and conducting emergency drills (ibid, p. 72).
In Gill’s et al 2012 British research, “The Security Sector in Perspective,” he identifies that training is seen through two lenses. The first is that of security specialists, that is, those who deploy security staff, where “the majority thought that training was at least adequate.” The second, of guards “2.4% of those surveyed felt they received more training than required, 46% thought they had adequate training, 49.2% thought they had less than required and 2.4% were not sure” (p. 29).

Cihan’s (2013) research and interviews with 236 Turkish security officers “suggests that a sizeable portion of officers (44.1 per cent) did not believe that their 120 hours of training was adequate to enable them to carry out their duties. (This) also suggests that a significant portion of officers feel that they need more training in firearms, private security laws, fire, first aid, terrorism and policing” (pp.14/15). Further, “this is consistent with research that examined officer training in North America and England (Kakalik & Wildhorn, 1977; Rigakos, 2002; Wakefield, 2003; Button, 2007)” (p. 15).

Cobbina, Nalla & Bender (2013) echoed Manzo’s Canadian research as it pertained to security officers’ perceptions of training. Their findings were that:

(A)s limited and non-standardized as the training requirements are for security officers in the United States, some of the officers improvised the needs and demands of their jobs with experiences drawn from prior employment. However, unlike Manzo’s study, we found that by and large, the officers in the study perceived a lack of adequate training to perform their tasks effectively and strongly endorsed the importance of and need for systematic and standardized training for private security officers. More specifically, the skill areas officers identified for increased training included learning how to handle problematic people and physical altercations, protecting oneself, and understanding the specific ins and outs of the site in which they work (p.12).
Johnston and Hodge (2014) conducted research into masculinity and private security work in the hospital environment and found, among other things, “a widespread lack of adequate training programmes and debriefing exercises making it difficult for guards to come to terms with the nature and stigma of their profession” (p. 553). The disturbing nature of the work that security staff were exposed to included storing both adult and child cadavers in the morgue, releasing the deceased to funeral homes, being exposed to infectious diseases, and constant exposure to extreme physical demands, death, bodily fluids and grievous injury (ibid, p.546). However, in this particular context, whether any or more training can adequately prepare anyone for such issues is up for debate.

Nalla & Lim (2014) looked at a number of issues within the Singapore security environment including job satisfaction, pay and benefits, and training. They found that, “it would appear from this survey that there is strong support for initiatives to professionalize the industry and invest in training. The topics deemed very important were not only hard knowledge such as emergency and fire procedures, but also soft skills such as working in a multiracial and multi-religious environment” (p. 54). Security personnel also desire additional training in legal matters including “arrest, search and seizure” (ibid, p. 53).

Given the four-and-a-half decade span of literature identifying the lack of training for guards, which began in 1971 with Wildhorn and Kakalik, one must question what it will take to increase the amount of training for security guards.

One explanation for the lack of will regarding training, at least in some countries, comes from Giminez-Salinas (2004) and is reinforced by Button (2007, p. 124). Both posit a fundamental difference between Anglo-Saxon and non-Anglo-Saxon countries and how each view the provision of security. They suggest that Anglo-Saxon countries see security as a commodity that “must be regulated by market conditions and that these countries (have) not (had) any national legislative requirements until recently. The sector (has been) mainly controlled by corporate
strategies where associations of private security corporations impose quality and professionalism standards” (Giminez-Salinas, 2004, p. 160). Giminez-Salinas examines the Spanish approach to managing the private security industry, which is that the provision of security is an exclusive state responsibility. Police administration controls private security companies as a “complementary and subordinate form of security that contributes to public order” (ibid, p. 160).

In Spain, along with other countries including Japan (Yoshido, 1999) and South Africa (Sefalafala & Webster, 2013), the government has created mechanisms to ensure the security industry is carefully controlled. Given the varying degrees of autonomy experienced by the security industry in many countries including Australia (Prenzler, 2005), Canada (O’Conner, 2004), China (Guo, 1999), the European Union (Button & Stiernstedt, 2016), Guatemala (Argueta, 2012), New Zealand (Bradley & Sedgewick, 2009), South Korea (Button, Park & Lee, 2006), the United Kingdom (Gill et al 2012; White, 2015), and the United States (Jaska, 2004; Nalla & Crichlow, 2014), and the accompanying lack of security industry professionalization, one must question the effectiveness of the autonomy provided. Regardless of the level of autonomy or control experienced by the contract guard industry in the countries mentioned above, most have insufficient training. Spain is an excellent example of government control that benefits the security industry. With its mandated 180 hours of training (Button & Stiernstedt, 2016, p. 11); the increasing professionalization of security was made in full partnership between government and the security industry and not in opposition. In fact, security guards gained “privileged status next to public security with an open door for possible gains in the future” (Giminez-Salinas, 2007, p. 161).

An alternative opinion on having the security industry fall under the control of public police comes from Blackstone and Hakin (2013), who believe that the security industry is more nimble, effective and efficient than public policing. They write that private security employment is positively related to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and is not a drag on the economy the way police are. In addition, when state
governments establish modest training requirements for guards, it allows for increased training to meet the needs of the market. They believe that the “danger, of course, is that the public police will restrict their competition” (p. 174). The idea of private security being more effective than police is also reinforced by Omotoso & Aderinto (2016) in Nigeria. However, this may be more an ideal than reality as many guards interviewed said that the lack of training made the job less than attractive and contributed to high turnover (pp. 7/8), something from which the industry suffers the world over.

Evaluating statutory guard training requirements

This section presents research perspectives on the outcomes of various statutory training requirements and explains the findings from around the world as they pertain to the adequacy of training. The section opens with a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of legislatively mandated training before moving onto the contention that even when training is mandated, it does not necessarily translate into better trained guards. A number of researchers from around the world support this contention and their findings are presented. The section ends with a brief summary of the overall findings.

In Canada, individual provinces have been accorded responsibility for regulation of trade and industry within the province including labour relations and the regulation of professions (Human Rights in Canada, n.d.). This makes security guard licensing and training a provincial responsibility afforded by Section 92 of the British North American Act of 1867.

At face value, statutory training requirements are a good thing. They provide a level playing field for all contract security providers with minimum training requirements, which in turn standardize services and can be used to justify bill-out rates. Standardization also provides more and better training (in theory) for security
guards, allowing for higher levels of service for the consumer, increasing the safety of and for security guards through increased levels of confidence. Lastly, minimum training requirements help to provide for the protection of society as a whole as in theory there are less violations of civil liberties and criminal violations. However, a differing opinion is that statutory training requirements, which are often driven by the industry itself, allow for private security companies to appear to legitimize themselves in the eyes of the public. This legitimacy opens the door to the marketing of state-sanctioned approval (White, 2012, p. 90), in some cases without actually improving the professionalism of the industry.

Shearing and Stenning (1981) said in regards to training that, “shortage of manpower and resources, however is not the only reason why such regulatory agencies achieve unimpressive results... the fact is that much contract private security work is low status, largely unskilled, tedious, and unrewarding work which attracts a highly transient labor force” (p. 234). This statement suggests that questions regarding training were not asked; however, in discussing the regulatory environment of the contract security industry, mention of the “power to discuss minimum training standards” (ibid, p. 232) is made. The authors also identify minimum standards for recruitment, training and personnel in their discussion of the International Professional Security Association (ibid, p. 234).

As evidenced by the comparative analysis conducted of the 36 training syllabi seen in Chapter 4, there are tremendous differences in mandated training requirements between countries; for example, training times range from 4 to 160+ hours. And one must not forget that there are still many jurisdictions that require no training at all (Nalla & Crichlow, 2013, p. 13: Wakefield & Button, 2014, p. 583). There is also the contention that regardless of whether training requirements are the result of self-regulation or government mandate, the effectiveness of state regulatory systems is in question due to “inadequate implementation resources, the ease in which they can be evaded or the reluctance of regulators to fully enforce regulations” (Stenning, 2000, p. 340). Research conducted by Davis et al. (2003)
contradicts this dismissal of state regulation; they found that government regulations can be an effective source of industry accountability as well as increased professionalism in their evaluation of private police in New York, Johannesburg, and Mexico City. The authors state, “private security services can be highly accountable through a diverse array of sources” (p. 207), and go on to say that “government regulation of private policing is the most visible form of accountability and (...) can take the form of training standards amongst other things” (ibid, p. 199). However, just two years after this research, a damning indictment of the state of private security in New York was released in the form of a report entitled, “Undertrained, Underpaid and Underprepared: Security Officers Report Deficient Safety Standards in Manhattan Officer Buildings.” With this report as evidence, how effective the diverse array of resources that Davis et al. discuss is difficult to reconcile. In addition, in 2014, Sefalafala and Webster evaluated the South African security industry and found there were significant differences between the stated aims of the legislation and the “reality of wide-spread non-compliance” (p. 93).

Maahs & Hemmens (1998) succinctly sum up their American research in a few words: “few states mandate even minor training for security personnel. Given the proliferation of security guards, and the increased reliance upon these quasi-police, it seems reasonable for states to apply more stringent training requirements. Our research indicates, the states simply have no choice but to address the issue of security guard regulation and training” (p. 100).

Hyde (2000) evaluated control mechanisms of the Canadian private security industry by government. It was between 1960 and 1970 that most Canadian provinces enacted security guard licensing (p. 8). The industry was promptly ignored for the next forty years or so and it was not until the latter half of the first decade of the 21st century that legislation was updated, including adding training requirements; by 2010, six of ten Canadian provinces had updated legislation (Kitteringham, 2014, p. 4). In this context, there has been a great deal of mandated
licensing and training requirements. Manitoba has had mandated training since 2004, Ontario and Quebec since 2005 (Manzo, 2009, p. 384), Saskatchewan since 2005 (Kitteringham, 2014, p. 4), British Columbia since 2008, and Alberta since 2010. In fact, 93% (by population) of Canadian guards in those six provinces have completed provincially legislated minimum training standards (Statistics Canada, 2013). With this surge in legislatively mandated training programmes, the provinces of Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick and the territories of Yukon, Northwest Territories and Nunavut are without legislation.

Yoshido assessed the Japanese security industry in 1999. He found that in 1972, the National Police Association (NPA) secured its dominating position over the security industry with the introduction of the Private Security Business Act (p. 249). Ten years later, the act was amended to further strengthen the control the NPA has over the industry. One of the changes to the Act included mandatory training “because many companies did not supervise or train their employees properly” (p. 250). “The system of supervision, training and certification of security employees became much more demanding” (ibid, p. 253). There are now six kinds of qualifications for security guards as well as mandatory semi-annual lectures hosted by a qualified instructor (ibid, p. 254). However, despite the increased training and professional requirements for security personnel in the country, Yoshida states that the real goal of the NPA is to keep the security industry weak as a “junior partner” (ibid, p. 259), requiring constant supervision to maintain primacy of public police.

Also in 1999, Guo evaluated the Chinese private security industry. There are three types of policing in China: public law enforcement, in-house security, and the most recent addition, the contract guard industry, which he characterized as a “combination of poor quality staff, unclear roles, and lack of accountability raising serious questions about the quality of services rendered to clients. There is an urgent need to define the role, powers, and social position of SSCs (Security
In the UK Livingston & Hart (2003) evaluated public images of private security identifying three stereotypes held by the public about the security guard industry. These stereotypes included the Watchman, the Gangster and the Hired Gun (p. 159). All the stereotypes were not flattering, as one can imagine. The Watchman was viewed as incompetent (ibid, p. 163) the Gangster took active advantage of their clients to steal property and commit other crimes (ibid, p. 166) and Hired Gun was someone without ethics or morality (ibid, p. 167). The authors argued that as security continues to grow in importance in terms of joining public counterparts in protecting society, “it is equally unsurprising (...) that private security and its practitioners are subject to increased demands for quality. This notion of quality has seen the related issues of training, qualifications and regulation become focal points of the debate” (ibid, p. 161). At the time of this research, the British Private Security Act was only two years old and improvements in the professionalization of security guards had yet to take place.

Jaska (2004) explored the failed attempt to legislate security guard training in Michigan. In addition to the failure of the proposed bills to “adopt mandatory security guard training regulations” (p. 74), he identified four conclusions: “there is a continued and glaring difference in perception between contract and proprietary security” (ibid, p. 74); “there is a general misunderstanding, on the part of the state of Michigan legislators, of the complexities of the security industry” (ibid, p. 75); “there is a need for a fair and equal regulation of the entire security industry” (ibdi, p. 75); and “a sense of urgency needs to be adopted by the security industry and the Michigan legislature to continue to forge ahead with this issue” (ibid, p. 75).

Conversely, O’Conner et al. (2004) studied the concept of self-regulation of contract security agencies in Ontario, Canada and found that in the absence of any government-driven regulation or industry self-regulation that contracts between
client and provider relations “are primarily responsible for raising the standards of training and education of contract security personnel” (p. 152).

In 2005 the Australian security industry was fragmented jurisdictionally. Prenzler found that “state and territory governments have generally responded reluctantly, often with partial measures; and regulatory reform has been driven mainly by scandals over misconduct. There is an urgent need for a common standard and national system by which governments underwrite basic levels of integrity and competence in security work and facilitate efficient security business activity across the jurisdictions” (p. 62). When Prenzler, Sarre, and Earle followed up in 2008, they identified that while “tougher licensing requirements were introduced with likely positive impacts on the conduct and competency of security providers, (...) a number of issues and problems remain to be resolved, including issues of the powers of private security providers, more proactive forms of regulation and a case for a national licensing system” (p. 415).

Prenzler & Milroy conducted further research into the Australian Security Industry in 2012. Their findings included the infiltration of the security industry by organized crime (pp. 344-348), corruption in the security industry training sector (ibid, pp. 348-350) and the Under-Award Pay Entitlements in the industry, which suggest that many industry players were involved in either illegal or unethical payroll practices (ibid, pp. 350-352). They conclude that the Australian security industry is rife with “diverse and serious forms of corruption and criminal conduct” (ibid, p. 354). They also state that “given that security industry regulation internationally is generally passive and very limited” (ibid, p. 354), they question what similar inquiries would uncover and whether there could be more effective regulatory systems in place.

The South Korean security industry was evaluated by Button, Park & Lee (2006). The title aptly sums up their findings: The Private Security Industry in South Korea: A Familiar Tale of Growth, Gaps and the Need for Better Regulation. Problems,
particularly pertaining to training, include poor quality training, training manuals in need of development and updating, and few specialized training schools. In addition, most training is theoretical in nature with little if any practical application and there are few competent trainers and drill instructors (p. 174). The good news is that South Korea has three levels of security: GSO (General Security Officer), SSO (Special Security Officer), and SPO (Security Police Officer). GSO’s require 15 hours of initial training and 4 hours per month of subsequent training, while SSO’s require 80 hours and 6 hours per month; SPO’s require 76 hours and 4 hours per month, respectively (ibid, p. 172). The authors believe that this “development of special statutory roles with the different privileges they possess, illustrates a model of innovation in want of further research” (ibid, p. 178).

Lee (2008) conducted a comparative analysis on the regulations of the private security of the United States and South Korea including the mechanisms to control the industry. He identified four modes of control including governmental regulations, self-regulation, market forces, and civil suits (p. 168). He found that in the US and Korea alike, the public cannot depend on self-regulation of the security companies, market forces alone were not enough to protect the public, and civil suits and the threat of litigation do little to regulate the industry. He concluded that “it is difficult to expect substantial development of a private security industry without strict guidance, supervision and cooperative effort” (ibid, p. 168) from government forces; all four mechanisms must be used.

Wakefield (2008) conducted three ethnographic case studies of private security in shopping malls. In terms of the training delivery period, it was found to be “extremely short with two days of classroom training and two days of on-the-job training as per the industry standards of the time” (p. 673). This is, in fact, a common feature throughout the world. As of 2017, the UK still only requires 28 hours of training for their security guards. 28 hours may be acceptable from the perspective that it is better than nothing, but for someone with a working knowledge of security guard responsibilities, 28 hours is woefully inadequate to
prepare an individual for the complexities of security work.

Bradley & Sedgwick (2009) looked at the private security sector in New Zealand and concluded that “one significant outcome has been persistent political inaction and the consequent failure of governing legislation, including the recent reviews of the PI & SG Act (1974) and the Police Act (1958), to keep pace with both the much expanded role of private security and the changing context within which it operates” (pp. 485/486).

Thumala, Goold & Loader (2011) have an ambivalent view of the calls for training in the British security industry. They lump the entire industry together from front line personnel to management and consultants and hold that regulation is closely connected to education and training. On one hand, they recognize that “training and education clearly make immediate business sense” (p. 292), while on the other, they state in interviews with industry workers that “security work is not something for which one can be meaningfully be trained” (ibid, p. 291). It is apparent that the authors themselves do not hold a high opinion of guard work, as it is untrue to suggest that security workers cannot be meaningfully trained. While some guards are inadequately trained, this is not true of all guards. Some state governments have established modest training requirements and background checks for private security personnel. However, the highly competitive security industry has increased the extent and quality of security guards to address client preferences (Blackstone & Hakim, 2013, p. 173). There are also many organizations and institutions the world over providing quality training to guards.

In Guatemala, the government has little control over the private security industry as the only laws regulating the industry were passed in 1970 (Argueta, 2012, p. 322). Argueta establishes that the security industry itself has successfully avoided formal controls (ibid, p. 323) and as such, this avoidance has led to poorly trained uniformed security guards who come from poor rural communities with limited education. These guards are given two days of training on security procedures,
laws, and weapons and “are then assigned duty with a shotgun” (ibid, p. 323). The overall goal of the industry seems to be profitability (ibid, p. 323). Unfortunately, this description is all too common.

Sefalafala & Webster (2013) studied security guards working in South Africa. They argue that “professionalisation for the private security industry is not about upgrading working conditions and turning bad jobs into better jobs. Instead it is a strategy of control imposed from above through the state established but independent body, the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA). The project of professionalisation practiced by PSIRA is focused on exercising control over the conduct of both employees and employers in the private security industry” (p. 77). They further cite “challenges facing the goal of upgrading the industry in a context of widespread noncompliance by employers, limited capacity to regulate employment in government, and low union density” (ibid, p. 78). Sefalafela and Webster are not the first researchers to suggest that increased standards and professionalization is more about industry control and less about improvement – Yoshido (1999) suggested the same thing in Japan. One could make the comparison that the banning of the term “security officer” in Alberta is about control and making sure that security personnel know their place in the overall police family, which is definitely below the police.

Nalla & Crichlow (2014) conducted an in-depth evaluation of training requirements for both unarmed and armed security guards in all 50 U.S. states in the post-9/11 environment to see if standards have risen since 1982. In their conclusion, they write, “it is reasonable to conclude that private security continues to be an under-regulated industry despite the reported increase in the roles of private security employees” (p. 13). This is particularly disheartening given the intervening 32 years. One must ask, why have training standards in the United States progressed so little in this time.
White (2015) evaluated the British security industry and the impact of the Private Security Industry Act of 2001. One of his conclusions was that “although the competency requirement has had the beneficial effect of raising standards at the lower end of the industry, at the same time it has had the unintended effect of bringing standards at the higher end of the industry down to this same level. This is because by creating a universally recognized standard of training there is less incentive for those who have historically recruited above this standard to continue to do so. As a result, in some cases companies have downscaled their recruitment criteria to make financial savings” (p. 436).

In comparing private security regulations in the European Union Button & Stiernstedt (2016) looked at training evaluation requirements (p. 11). They identified that unarmed security guards require a minimum of 120 hours of training, yet only 7 of 28 countries in the EU meet or exceed that minimum. This minimum “120 hours was developed by using the CoESS European Training Manual for a Security as the basis” (ibid, p. 11).

Researchers evaluating the South African security industry have a different perspective on mandatory training and accreditation. Sefalafela & Webster (2013) take the perspective that the new training requirements introduced by PSIRA are more about “controlling an industry they fear as it is better armed than the police” and less about “advancing the goal of upgrading working conditions or increasing their status in society as ‘professionals’” (p. 94).

Richards & Smith (2007), in discussing the growth of the global security industry, state that policy makers must prepare to deal with legislation due to “potentially serious implications of limited regulation and accountability of a market which continues to grow in both size and importance” (p. 6). Their contention is that there is too much at stake to leave the industry at the mercy of the market.
Globally, there seems to be three forms of training. The first is non-existent training, the second is limited training, and the third is extensive training. Arguments can be made for all three forms. Those that defend no training can make the (sometimes justifiable) argument that training does little to prepare people for the security industry and is simply a form of public relations exercise on part of the government and/or the security industry. The second is that limited training is better than no training. And the third argument is that extensive training is the better way to proceed and is superior to the first two. As evidenced by the research findings in this section, all three arguments may be valid.

**Evaluating the effectiveness of specific training programmes**

This section explores the existing but limited research to understand the effects of training in specific situations, including transit officers in Australia, guards in New York State, and airport screeners in eight European airports.

Teague, Quin, Green & Bahn (2014) evaluated the 12-week basic training programme delivered to transit officers in Australia’s rail industry. The authors concluded “that improvements in the incidence of injury and a reduction in the concomitant loss of productivity could be achieved by making changes and modifications to the initial training and ongoing professional development of transit officers” (p. 25). Upon a detailed examination of the training programme, these researchers found a number of areas for improvement across the course. Their two primary recommendations focused on incorporating CCTV into scenario-based training for enhanced professional development and implementing Field Training Officers (FTO) into the culture of the organization (ibid, p. 26). This research suggested that in addition to the existing certification provided, video from actual incidents should be used to augment scenario-based training along with the use of field training officers because trainees would benefit from real-life situations along with having experienced FTO’s providing mentoring to trainee officers.
Scollan (2011) conducted an assessment of the New York State enhanced guard training legislation and its effects on their preparedness. His findings indicated that 70% of those receiving training believed that they were prepared (p. 59); however, the relationship between training time and job preparedness in this situation is tenuous, as 48.7% reported receiving more than 24 hours of training and 51.3% reported less than 24 hours (ibid, p. 58). What was not reported was the link between hours of training and job preparedness. Neither was it reported how training was actually delivered. While the author discusses the “18 different types of training available to security officers” (ibid, p. 67), he does not discuss delivery methodology. This makes it difficult to determine what, if anything, it was specifically that improved guards’ perceptions of their own job preparedness.

Asking the question of whether training improves security decisions in an airport environment, Kirshenbaum & Rapaport (2014) evaluated the effectiveness of rule compliance-based security training. Airport screeners are given security awareness and standard operating procedure training provided by various public and private agencies. Overall, training provides “skills required for a varied number of security tasks that range from technical skills associated with technology-based screening to broader requirements in risk assessment and crisis management” (p. 2). The conclusions were twofold. First, the authors determined that “security training, in and of itself was inadequate” (ibid, p. 13) and that “training itself does not lead to rule compliance” (ibid, p. 12), but the issue was made more complex by determining the experience of the trainee. The implications of this research led to the suggestion that training “could be enhanced through a comprehensive set of simulated scenarios and practice driven training” (ibid, p. 14). This finding is not particularly surprising given the support of competency-based training (CBT) with its emphasis on practical skills development (Shank, 2014, pp. 447-459; Williamson, Bannister & Schauder, 2003, p. 161). However, like anything else, CBT is not without its critics (Wheelahan, 2007, p. 649; Winskill, 2000, p. 119).
It was found both in Australia and Europe that the quality of the training had an impact on trainees. In both cases, researchers identified that simulated scenarios, and the opportunity to learn from real life situations benefited the trainees. In the case of Australian transit officers, it was the recommendation that video tapes of actual incidents be used in training along with having field training officers assigned to work directly with personnel. It is interesting to note that in an examination of transit officer duties, it was found there to be commonalities with security guards, yet the transit officers received 12 weeks of basic training. This contrast reinforces the belief that 40 hours of training as mandated in Alberta is likely inadequate for guards. In Europe, the recommendations focused on the opportunity by trainees to practice real life situations. These are all examples of active learning techniques were students are engaged in the learning experience and are given the opportunity to review, dissect, discuss and practice responses to real life situations in a safe environment. The findings in the New York context were less obvious. While Scollan did find a connection between training and preparedness what was less obvious was what kind of training or the time spent training improved the guard belief in their job preparedness. What is necessary is that more study be undertaken to evaluate employee preparedness of specific training programmes. The Australian and European studies would benefit from follow up to see if the recommendations were acted upon with an improvement in guard performance.

Discussion

This literature review started off with a brief discussion of the sometimes-emotional use of the terms “guard” and “officer.” It then moved onto exploring and identifying the guard duties for which training is required. It then migrated to discussing the need for, purposes of, and obstacles to training. A discussion was then held regarding guard views on training before moving onto statutory guard training requirements before exploring the final theme that was a critical review of various training programmes.
Regarding the “guard” and “officer” argument, there is too much discussion and I believe that the argument and emotion attached to this issue are overblown and detract from larger, more important issues.

As identified, there were three sources to explore when determining guard duties. These sources included researchers, government and the security industry. We saw that guard duties are varied and complex and include conducting multiple forms of surveillance; enforcing a variety of rules, regulations, codes, bylaws, and statutes; responding to various emergencies, which require a host of skill sets; providing good customer service in dealing with people; and finally, conducting and reporting investigations. A full list of duties were detailed in Table 2.1. In addition to general guard duties, specific locations demanding security guards range from construction sites – requiring simple access control and a mere “presence” – to shopping malls, residential and commercial properties, local, national and international transportation hubs with hundreds or thousands of daily visitors, and critical infrastructure, such as dams, refineries and power plants, with complex security requirements. With many of these sites, any potential security failure can seriously impact many people and causing financial losses to property owners. Regardless of the scope of sites, guard duties will generally fall into the five listed above. While security managers are responsible for designing asset protection programmes, it is the front-line guard who is responsible for implementation.

A security programme consists of three forms of countermeasures: personnel, hardware, and documentation. With guards as the primary personnel within the programme, they require extensive training on how to properly use the hardware that is installed at most sites. Video surveillance, access control systems, communication devices, fire alarms, locks and keys, panic alarms, multiple types of barriers, lighting, and intrusion detection systems form an incredible array of protective devices as long as they are designed, installed, and maintained properly. These systems can cost hundreds of thousands or millions of dollars, but without proper training they will go to waste. Similarly, security guards need to
know how to respond to a variety of emergency situations ranging from a simple first aid request to terrorist attacks. Without proper documentation including standard operating procedures, emergency response plans, detailed training manuals, and skilled trainers, a proper response will not be forthcoming.

The need for guard training has been a topic of research since at least 1971. Some countries have progressed little, such as Japan, Swaziland, and the United States nationally, where training has not progressed much beyond what Kakalik and Wildhorn identified in 1971. Other countries including Australia, Canada, India, Singapore, South Africa, South Korea, Spain, and the United Kingdom have made varying progression. While the United States as a whole has progressed little in the past 20+ years, research undertaken by Scollan (2011), Nalla & Crichlow (2014), and in this thesis has identified that some states have made significant progress as evidenced by Table 4.1 on page 95. Australia, despite unsuccessful calls for training for many years, has made significant movement since 2012, when a national standard was introduced. Canada has also made significant improvements in the past decade with over 90% of the guard force industry having mandatory licensing training of 40 hours or more. While guard training legislation is certainly required to improve guard skills considering that the security industry itself has done little on its own, what is also required is more evaluation to determine the impact of any new legislation.

The next discussion focused on the purpose of training, which is to improve productivity and competency. It began with a discussion of effective and ineffective training as well as the various assessment methodologies available to assist in making that determination. Based on these assessment methodologies, it was illustrated that some organizations do not necessarily improve with training, as in the case of Eastern European security companies. Context was also provided in Table 2.2, where the differences between education and training were identified. Effective training was identified to be instrumental as to why Europeans fly safer than Americans with training for airport screeners being a key factor. Training on a
global scale was discussed by van Steden & de Waard (2013) and they identified the challenges that multi-national security organizations face in attempting to train their people. These challenges include legislation, training costs, salaries, and others. The United States also identified challenges in ensuring guards were consistently trained at federal institutions. Diston (2014) identified a number of challenges in the British context of the issue of work-related violence. In the Singapore security market, researchers identified challenges facing employers in providing meaningful work to their staff. In the Brazilian market, training was discussed as one of several methods for controlling employees.

Along with this discussion on the purpose of guard training is a brief summary of the obstacles to training. The first obstacle was identified by Wakefield & Button (2014) who suggested that training is minimized by having so many retired law enforcement, military, and intelligence personnel in the security industry as the industry relies on their expertise. They argue that by having so many retirees in the industry, the overall appetite for training is dulled. A second factor negatively impacting training was highlighted by Tur-Sinai & Romanov (2016) who stated that due to the low occupational requirements for guard work that training was unimportant. This lack of understanding of guard duties could influence guard training decision makers, including policy experts and security managers, into believing that training is a low priority. The third obstacle identified by researchers including Yoshida (1999) Simelane (2008) and van Stedn and de Ward (2013) was the lack of understanding held by law enforcement of what exactly guards do and the greater concern that law enforcement sees security as competition, both of which result in barriers being enacted to negate or reduce industry improvement.

Providing training with the intent of meeting all the various objectives stated in this section is a tall order. Sometimes training is provided not for the sake of employee improvement but instead sometimes to meet a legislative requirement and sometimes to control employees. Also, as discussed previously, there is both effective and ineffective training. The theory is that employees sent off on training
are exposed to life-changing material and come back as happier, wiser, more motivated and enthusiastic workers who are more efficient and effective. However, this is not always the case. Training is difficult at the best of times, for both the student and the instructor and requires a commitment from both parties. Part of the problem is that effective training material is expensive and time-consuming to develop (Piskurich, 2006, p. 136). Also contributing to the challenge are two issues within the security industry: first, profit margins are low which precludes some guard providers from paying for ongoing training and second many customers do not realize the complexity of guard duties and subsequently do not wish to pay for site specific training. In addition, there are far too many unethical contract providers who provide untrained guards allowing them to underbid on contracts leaving ethical guard companies to either decide to further reduce their profit margins or walk away from a considerable amount of business.

The next point of discussion in this section revolved around guard views on training. In the context of the private-police operational style at a Canadian university as described by Micucci (1998), there was conflict regarding training, where those who identified as crime fighters wishing to have less security and more police-type training. Elsewhere in the Canadian context, Manzo identified that guards believed that they were quite well trained. However, he did recommend that they would benefit from additional training. A similar line of thinking was found in New York: based on self-assessments, 70% of guards believed they were adequately trained while external assessors disagreed with them. Conversely in the UK, almost 50% of guards surveyed thought they would benefit from training, while specialists thought their training was sufficient. There were similar findings in Turkey, where Cihan found over 44% of respondents wanted more training. The request for additional training was also made by guards in the United States in the research undertaken by Cobbina, Nalla & Bender (2013). Johnston & Hodge also recommended additional training for security guards in their research in a hospital, and in Singapore, Nalla & Lim found that guards generally wanted more training.
These conflicting messages highlight one issue in particular: just because someone assumes they are adequately trained, it does not mean that they are. It was interesting to note that in some cases, when guards thought they were adequately prepared, the auditors or researchers disagreed with them while on the opposite side, the guard wanted more training and the auditor disagreed. The question is if a guard says they are not prepared, does that mean they are not? Or, are they prepared despite not thinking so? What does “adequately prepared” truly mean? There are still many unanswered questions regarding guard training.

Another theme that emerged from the section on guard perceptions of training focused on why there seems to be such a disparity in training requirements in various countries. It was both Giminez-Salinas and Button who suggested that the key is how a country views the role that security provides in its society. They suggested that Anglo-Saxons view security as a commodity, whereas others see the provision of security services as an extension of the state. As such, those countries with the view that security personnel have a vital role to play in protecting its citizens instead of seeing security as a commodity have instituted structure to control the security industry through extensive training for domestic guards.

The next theme to be presented was an evaluation of statutory guard training requirements. While it is encouraging to see legislatively mandated security guard training, almost universally the training seems to have limited impact on improving the skills of the front-line security guard regardless of the jurisdiction, whether it is the United States, Canada, Japan, China, the United Kingdom, Australia, South Korea, New Zealand, Guatemala, South Africa, or the European Union. There are two streams of thought on legislated training. The first is that legislation is more of a tool to control the security industry than to improve it. The second is that legislated training does prepare guards for work. What is not clear are all the factors that must be in place for legislation to effectively lay the groundwork for preparing guards to be properly trained.
One concern raised in regards to calls for legislation to control the security industry, which is partly in relation to training, is a concern over the growing militarization of the security industry. While the primary concern is over PSCs, or Private Security Companies – or what they would have been called in the “old days,” mercenaries (Spearin, 2008, p. 364) – some are conflating private contract security companies with Private Military Security Companies (Siebels, 2014). Disconcertingly, in some parts of the world there is a lack of distinction between the two. Just as there is a growing militarization of police (Balko, 2014; Wood, 2014), there has been a growing militarization of the security industry (Cock, 2005, p. 799; Siebels, 2014; Omotoso & Aderinto, 2016, p. 3), even in the more stable countries around the world. This inclusion creates a stark contrast when the private security industry is placed on a continuum; on one end, one would find an unarmed, non-uniformed, untrained, and underpaid guard (Omotoso & Aderinto, 2016, p. 6) and on the other, an armed, combat uniformed, highly trained and highly paid private “contractor” (Scahill, 2007, p. 146). Part of the conflation between militarized contractors and security guards may stem from the lack of consistently applied terminology (Gumedze, 2008, p. 195; Lalonde, 2010, p. 7). Finch (2005), Gibson (2007), Spearing (2008, 2009), Bruneau (2013), and others, in discussing private military groups, refer to them as “private security companies” or PSCs. Other similar titles include Private Military and Security Companies (PMSCs) (Herbst, 2013; Carmola, 2014, p. 747), Private Military Companies (PMCs), or Non-Lethal Service Providers (NSPs) (Richards & Smith, 2007, p. 7). However, in some countries, when one refers to private security companies, they may also be referring to contract security companies (Kitchen & Rygiel, 2014, p. 202) that provide traditional security services. According to Scheier & Caparini (2005), “while there is no current agreed upon definition within any international legislation or convention, one definition of a PMC is a registered civilian company that specializes in the provision of contract military training, military support operations, operational capabilities and/or military equipment to legitimate domestic and foreign entities” (pp. 17/18). The authors define PSCs as traditional contract security companies providing uniform guards domestically (ibid, p. 26). Spear
(2006) echoes this (p. 19). With no standard definitions, it is no wonder that similar terms are used to describe vastly different types of security companies.

There are some who see the security industry as a threat to modern society (Rigakos, 2002; Joh, 2006), but the question that must be asked is, is it the security industry that is a threat or is it an unregulated security industry that is the threat? Joh (2006) sees that “the dominance of private policing represents the failure of the state, and a crisis in public confidence” (p. 359) whereas it may be more apt to say that the real issue is that the state has failed to regulate the security industry. Without a doubt, the unregulated security industry cannot and must not continue on. An unregulated industry only benefits the criminal and unscrupulous security providers. Regulating the security industry benefits the consumer, society as a whole, security personnel, and governments. Of course, it may not be the failure of the state that has led to the growth of the security industry. Shearing & Stenning suggest it is the growth of mass private property (1979, p. 8), which itself is a factor in the complexity of modern society. Another factor is that in many cases, law enforcement has priced itself out of the market (Benson, 1998, p. 2) as well as not being particularly effective (Bayley & Shearing, 2009, pp. 592/593).

Given the numerous complaints regarding the abuse of police authority that have come out in the past several years, particularly in North America, several questions must be considered. Police have been under far more control for far longer, and are provided with more and better training than the uniform guard sector – so, are increased legislation and regulations really going to improve the security guard industry? Would the uniformed guard sector improve overall with increased government scrutiny? Will more training make security personnel better decision makers? Should law enforcement be the bar by which security is measured? Is the guard industry better or worse with the infusion of law enforcement trainers and other expertise imported from outside security? The answer to at least one of these questions comes from Hainmueller & Lemnitzer (2003), who identify stringent
government regulations as they pertain to airport safety in Europe as the difference between high levels of security on that continent and the poor safety record in the United States (p. 3). While there is always a danger in extrapolating results from one area to another, this research does suggest the benefits of increased training. The other questions require additional research.

The final section of the literature review focused on evaluating the effectiveness of specific training programmes. This was a relatively brief section considering how few pieces of specific research were found. Specifically, evaluations were examined of transit officers in the Australian rail industry, security officers in eight European airports, and New York State’s mandatory enhanced security guard legislation and its effects on security officer preparedness. The findings of both the Australian and European assessments were the same, which is that training would be enhanced through the use of simulated scenarios and opportunities to practice the training guards are exposed to. The benefits of scenario-based training and deliberate practice are supported by many educators including Allen et al. (2014, p. 366), Kane (2000, p. 5), Marsick & Maltbia (2009, pp. 160-161) and Haskell (2001, p. xv). Many of those interviewed for this research identified the value of practicing classroom skills and stated they would benefit from scenario-based training.

This last avenue supports the contention that there is indeed “effective” and “ineffective” training, as training evaluators often state. As previously discussed while the purpose of training is to improve employee performance, a considerable amount of training is inefficient and does not meet its objectives (Haskell, 2001, p. 5). Fortunately, there is effective training and the importance of training has been widely recognized and more governments and organizations are focusing their attention on reducing this deficit. As a result, there are a number of countries that have mandated training and are leading by example. Guards like the training they receive, want more training, and in many cases, now feel confident in being able to do their jobs. There are mixed thoughts on guard training legislation. Some see it as a tool to control more than improve the industry, while others see it as a tool for
improving the professionalism of the guard industry. Finally, research to improve training programmes suggests that simulated scenarios and deliberate practice are two approaches to strongly consider in delivering quality content.

The implications from these findings include that the training should be designed to meet the needs of the guard based on their duties. As with any training programme, the training designer works backwards. This means that it must be determined what the trainee must be able to do or know as a result of the training. We saw through this review that guards have numerous and complex duties requiring extensive training. Other implications include that security industry members should be actively involved in legislative development and training programme management. We also see that those with training expertise should deliver the training material that is created and that it should involve active learning as much as possible. As recommended by researchers in Australia and Europe, training should involve scenario based training as a means of learning from real life situations. This can also involve the use of video surveillance of actual situations where the content is presented in a training environment and trainees are allowed to discuss and dissect the situation in a safe environment. Another implication focuses on the ‘effective training’ vs. ‘ineffective training’ argument that reinforces the need for trainees to attend training programmes that have been specifically designed and delivered by adult learning and security experts. Trainers should be certified in adult learning techniques with a minimum mandated amount of formal education in this area. In addition those who deliver security training should also be required to work for a designated minimum amount of time in the security industry.

There are still numerous gaps in the literature review. As we will see in Chapter 4, there has been a steady increase particularly since 2000 in the implementation of security training programmes. However, missing are specific training programme evaluations. As we will see in Chapter 4 a number of guard training programmes have been mandated but there is little research into their effectiveness. In addition, part of the issue when it comes to evaluating training programmes is the evaluation
of those trainers delivering the material. Further there is a disconnect between guard duties and training programmes. In many cases, training does not match the requirements of the job nor likely provide adequate time to prepare guards. The research indicates there is a huge disparity in training times ranging from a maximum of 320 to a minimum of 0 hours.

Police in some cases see security as a threat and not a resource to be partnered with so there is limited research into the benefits of partnerships. Further research is required into the relationship between security and police to address the concerns that both sides have for one another. And finally, there is a lack of globally consistent legislation requiring security guard training as well as research into the effectiveness of the legislation and the training as discussed above. Finally legislation must be created for the right reasons, which is to improve guard professionalism and public safety and not to minimize or keep the industry weak.
Chapter 3: Research Methods
Introduction

This chapter provides an explanation of the empirical research methods underpinning this thesis and specifies the process followed in creating and implementing the research undertaken. The chapter starts with an explanation of the research design before detailing the specific research methods followed. The ethical process is then presented along with the challenges and successes of the research design employed.

Research design

The aim of this research was to examine the relevance of the Alberta Basic Security Training (ABST) program introduced by the Government of Alberta, Canada in 2011, and practitioners’ perspectives of its effectiveness, with a view to making recommendations to enhance the programme.

The epistemological position that informed my approach to the research is based on that of the interpretivist world “which indicates a focus on how the social world is interpreted by those involved in it” (Robson, 2011, p. 24). It suggests that the social world is subjective, based on the various interpretations of its inhabitants. Interpretivism incorporates the values of the researcher and subjectivity is an integral part of the research (Robson, 2011, p. 24). It includes "seeing through the eyes of people being studied (Bryman, 2008, p. 385), symbolic interactionism which "views social interaction as taking place in terms of the meanings actors attach to actions and things (Bryman, 2008, p. 699) and phenomenological research is based on the inclusion of researcher biases, assumptions and preconceptions (Robson, 2011, p. 151). The researcher attempts to explain them and integrate them into the research findings. In some cases it involves the researcher being a participant (Bryman & Teevan, 2005, p. 154). There is also the issue of the interpretation of participant’s perspectives and whether it is valid or not. This is the opposite of what this researcher set out to do which was to
eliminate my biases and keep an open mind about the ABST and its effectiveness regardless of my initial opinions.

Considering the nature of the research that was to determine if those people from the sample believed that they were prepared to work in the security industry, a qualitative methodology consistent with an interpretivist stance was considered appropriate. Those groups involved in the security industry with direct contact with the outcome of the ABST included guards, trainers, security managers and contract management. Their opinions and experiences with the ABST program were foundational in determining the success of the training program. As with any approach there are criticisms of the interpretivist approach that include the recognition that experiences and senses can be and are subjective which are often considered opinions, and that this does not always translate into fact (Cheek & Gough, 2005, p. 303). However, given that experiences and opinions are important, relevant and valid this was still deemed an appropriate research approach. Fundamentally it was important to hear from those with direct experience with the program, as this was what it was created for.

My overarching thesis design was to critically evaluate the ABST using a combination of comparative analysis and critical examination through extensive document evaluation and semi-structured interviews of those security practitioners at the delivery end of the training program.

**Research methods**

The research methodology was a combination of documentary analysis and semi-structured interviews. This section describes the documentary analysis approach that was conducted on the training syllabi before explaining how the semi-structured interviewing process was undertaken.
Documentary Analysis

The first research method was documentary analysis involving a qualitative examination of the training syllabi and material using a thematic coding approach. This approach is defined by Robson as having several elements including “a generic approach not particularly aligned with any theoretical perspective, coding all or parts of data, grouping the same data into themes, using the themes for further analysis and (on) a purely descriptive basis” (2013, p. 467). The table below details the origin and title of the documents assessed as well as the date (where known) of each document. Of these programs compared and contrasted 32, including the ABST, were government syllabi or training manuals; 4 were private sector based. In only 9 cases, including 4 Canadian provinces and 5 American states were both syllabus and training manual provided. In all other cases, the government provided the syllabus and then approves training material put forward by the private sector.

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<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Origin</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>Private Investigator and Security Guard Training Manual (2012)</td>
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<td>Manitoba Security Guard Training Program Participants Manual (n.d.)</td>
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<td>Quebec</td>
<td>Garda World 70 hour basic security training Quebec (n.d.)</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>Specifications for Learning and Qualifications for Common Security</td>
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<td>Industry Knowledge (2014), For Security Guarding (2014), For CCTV</td>
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<td>Control Room Operators (2014), and For Physical Intervention Skills</td>
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<td>(2014) Security Industry Authority</td>
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<td>Australia</td>
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<td>Arizona Department of Public Safety Unarmed Security Guard 8 hour training syllabus (February 2, 2007)</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>Arkansas PI and Security Guard License Guide (062014)</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>12 NCAC 07D.0707 Training Requirements for Unarmed Security Guards</td>
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<td>Oklahoma</td>
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<td>South Carolina</td>
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Official government publications took two primary forms. The first form consisted of training syllabi / material while the second encompassed legislative and regulatory material describing mandatory training headings, registration and licensing requirements, application guidelines and other related content.

The documents reviewed include six mandatory Canadian provincial training programs: Alberta (Alberta Solicitor General and Ministry of Public Security, 2014), British Columbia (British Columbia, 2010), Manitoba (Pinnell & Reid, 2005), Ontario (Ontario, 2008, p. 3), Quebec (GardaWorld, n.d.), and Saskatchewan (Saskatchewan, 2008, p. 3). The federal Canadian General Standards Board CGSB 133.1-2008 security guard standard was also evaluated (Government of Canada, 2008). 21 American state-mandated training programs were also evaluated. These included programs from Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Louisiana, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, and Washington. These states were identified from research undertaken by Nala & Crichlow detailing, among other things, training on a state-by-state basis (2014, p. 5). One European country’s program was evaluated: Great Britain’s Security Industry Authority’s training material for security guards. This material consisted of three training documents known as the “Common Module,” the “Specialist Module,” and the “Conflict Management” module (Security Industry Authority, Specifications for Learning and Qualifications for Conflict Management, 2014). The Australian federal government’s mandatory training program (Australia Justice and Community Safety, 2012, p. 21) was also
evaluated. This program, the “Certificate II in Security Operations (Crowd Control/Unarmed Guard),” is considered to be the entry-level requirement for licensing. Reported delivery times for the Australian program ranged from 80 (ASEC, 2015) to 144 hours (SkillNet Australia, 2015). One Asian program was assessed: India’s Private Security Agencies (Regulations) Act of 2005. The national training program from South Africa, which was introduced in 2016, was also included. Finally, four private-sector security guard training programs were reviewed including the ASIS International Guideline PSO-2010 for Private Security Officer (PSO) Selection and Training (ASIS International, 2010), The Effective Security Officer’s Training Manual, 3rd Edition (Brislin, 2014), The Professional Protection Officer Manual (Hertig & Davies, 2010), and the European Vocational Training Manual For Basic Guarding authored by the Confederation of European Security Services (CoESS) and UNI-Europa (1999). CoESS is a private-sector association comprised of 60,000 security companies located in the European Union and UNI-EUROPA is a global union organization.

The approach to identifying training syllabi started with the Alberta training manual. This was readily available on the Solicitor General’s website as it can be downloaded free of charge. From this the natural progression was to access the remaining provincial and sole federal Canadian training syllabus. From here, I expanded my search to look at the American state training syllabus. Considering there are 25 American states requiring security guards to be trained a search was undertaken to access them. In all, 21 syllabi and/or training documents were accessed from the United States. The search then expanded into the United Kingdom, Europe, Australia and South Africa. The general tactic was to access documents written in English through Internet searches. A total of 32 government and 4 private sector documents were utilized. Once the documents were gained, the goal was to conduct a comparison between the ABST and the rest of the documents with the intent of determining how the ABST content compared against the other documents as well as comparing them against the researcher,
government and industry documents which identified guard duties. This was to determine how the ABST was aligned with those identified guard duties.

The quantitative analysis involved the identification of topics through repetition, which Robson defines as “one the easiest ways to identify themes” (2013, p. 482). The inquiry started with documenting in a spreadsheet the key headings of the 36 training syllabi before proceeding to an in-depth content analysis of the training material that included key word and content identification (ibid, p. 482). Out of the coding emerged several themes including key headings, how the material was initially created, whether an exam was required, the course pass mark, the availability of training material and the required delivery time of the material. In addition, a number of sub-themes emerged.

Of the government-mandated materials, there were only eight fully developed training manuals that allowed for complete content evaluation. Of the remaining syllabi, only the outlines were available, as the licensing bodies required that private-sector companies and educational institutions develop their own training material based on those licensing body guidelines, which made it more challenging to determine what the content developers had in mind. In several cases, when private-sector companies and educational institutions were approached about gaining access to their internally developed material, responses ranged from one individual who immediately hung up the phone without any response, outright refusals to share the content, requests to pay a fee, and even one individual who said that I did not need to worry about accessing the content as “absolutely everyone passed the exam.”

Of the four private sector training programs evaluated, two fully developed training manuals were available for review. The remaining two were syllabi that left trainers and institutions to create content based on the outline.
There are five phases in the thematic coding process, according to Robson (2013, pp. 476/484). These phases comprise data familiarization, initial code generation, identifying themes, developing thematic networks and making comparisons, and integration and interpretation. Data familiarization, as one can imagine, involves extensive and repeated reading of the material and learning it in depth. This was undertaken in two stages: the first was done by conducting initial information gathering based on extensive online searches and the second was reading the secondary data to learn more about the material and identify further sources.

*Semi-structured interviews*

The original process of identifying potential interviewees focused on a cross section of security practitioners who, due to their roles within the guard industry would be familiar with the ABST. The first and most obvious group was those who had been required to obtain their security guard licence by taking the ABST. It was also important to talk to security managers responsible for overseeing the completion of guard duties, ABST trainers, and finally, contract guard company personnel who interview and vet licensees before assigning them to various sites. Once the groups were identified, the next step was to write to a combination of in-house and contract employers.

The participants including guards, managers, trainers and contact management were identified by writing to several organizations in Calgary, Alberta, Canada (see Appendix 2 and 3). In all six large contract security companies, eight training organizations and nine property management organizations were approached. The contract guard companies approached are some of Canada’s best-known and largest regional, national, and international guard providers. It is estimated by this researcher that these six contract companies represent approximately 3500+ security staff in Southern Alberta. In addition, several organizations employing in-house security managers and ABST trainers were approached. These host organizations were asked if they wished to participate and if so, to please forward participant invitation letters and participant information sheets (see Appendices 4
and 5) onto their employees. Potential interviewees were invited to contact me if they were interested in participating in this study. A total of 24 people volunteered, as detailed in chapter 5, and in total 10 security guards, 6 managers, 4 trainers and 4 contract guard management personnel were interviewed individually. All the participants had direct experience with the ABST either as student, instructor or supervisor of individuals who had completed the training.

Much consideration was given to the impact on the various groups involved. As a security practitioner for the past 27 years and being heavily involved in adult learning both in course development and delivery as well as actively engaged in the local security community, finding research participants from all four groups with whom I was not familiar proved impossible. The most vulnerable group was the security guards since, as end users or consumers of the ABST program, they were the group to be asked about their skill sets and whether they felt prepared for their work after receiving the training. This was also a challenging group from which to obtain volunteers. Given the high number of contract staff in the area with an estimated 10,000+ guards in Southern Alberta, it was initially thought there would be no shortage of interested parties; however, just 10 guards volunteered. To ensure that none were pressured into participating and to reduce the potential for harm or embarrassment, a host letter was sent to both contract and in-house guard management that explained the research goals. Two letters were attached to the host letter and hosts were asked to forward them onto guards if the host organizations agreed to participate. The first was an invitation letter and the second was an information sheet. Guards interested in participating were then free to contact me.

This process was repeated with managers from both in-house and contract guard management companies. Trainers were approached directly, and this was the most challenging group. Initially, letters were sent out to more than a dozen training organizations, all of which were ignored. Purely by chance, when discussing these challenges with an individual at an industry event, this person happened to be a
trainer and volunteered on the spot to participate. This happy circumstance then led to three other trainers participating from his network after he volunteered to talk to them to gauge their interest.

Initially, I had not thought to interview contract management personnel until one of the managers whom I had sent a host letter to contacted me and offered to be interviewed. I then recognized that this was a group that needed to be interviewed. In addition to this individual, I had other members of contract management volunteer to be interviewed, and these managers provided a perspective on the preparedness of ABST trainees that ultimately enhanced the research findings.

The interviews were semi-structured. This approach allowed me to create a standard list of questions (see Appendices 6 – 9) so specific themes would be discussed, but it also gave me the flexibility to clarify and expand on various answers provided by the interviewees and allowed me to ask additional questions that arose from the interviewee’s responses (Bryman, 2008, p. 438). Overall, the structured component of the questions allowed for thematic coding to be completed. Robson identifies the value of semi-structured interviews in “flexible design” research (2013, p. 280). This flexible design is apt given the fundamental nature of this research, which is to attempt to determine the effectiveness of the ABST manual and the program as a whole based on the opinions of the interviewees and by comparing the manual against 35 others (ibid, p. 280). However, just as there are advantages of semi-structured interviews, there are also disadvantages. These disadvantages include a lack of standardization, the time-consuming nature of the undertaking interviews, and a potential exposure to bias in the material (ibid, p. 281). The other issue with the approach taken in attempting to assess the effectiveness of an entire program is the small sample size. Given that there are over 24,000 licensed security guards in the province and a total of 10 guards were interviewed, the sample represents a tiny fraction of the guard industry. Also, the interviewees’ results may be skewed based on the educational levels of the respondents. As detailed in the interviewee profiles, this was a group
of highly educated individuals who all displayed an interest, understanding and value of research. It is not known if guards with lower levels of education would provide the same findings. It may be that these responses are not indicative of the industry as a whole.

With the interviewees, grouping began with their four practitioner areas of guard, manager, trainer, and contract management. Interviewee educational and work backgrounds were identified as well as their thoughts on the effectiveness of the ABST training, areas of improvement and program strengths.

Regarding the primary research gathered from interviewees, initially 16 themes were identified and expanded upon. However, with further evaluation it was found that these 16 themes could be divided into 5 major themes and a number of sub-themes, which in some cases were combined. The main themes identified included whether the ABST prepares people for work in the industry, the qualifications of trainers, course content, course time, and the licensing process. Within the theme of whether the ABST prepares people for work, sub-themes of the strengths and weaknesses of the program were identified. For the theme of course content, sub-themes included too much or too little content, whether the content requires updating, what material, if any, should be removed, and comments on the online training program. Within the course time theme, sub-themes included questions about whether 40 hours is enough to learn the material, if time should be added, and how much time would be ideal. The last theme of the licensing process identified sub-themes of comments on the training program, the background investigation process, and the licensing granting process itself. In particular, it is this last theme that provides information on the second goal of the licensing program, which is to assure Albertans that security guards are indeed provided with the skills to do their job.

One of the limitations in this methodology could be said to be the size of the primary interviewee group, comprising of 24 participants. There are approximately
24,500 guards licensed in Alberta as well as hundreds of contract security and in-house security management personnel and dozens of trainers. Given the small number of practitioners interviewed, the extent to which the findings are transferable to the Alberta security industry as a whole ought to be considered. As such reliability and content validity are issues related to Cronbach’s alpha and “whether the results of a study can be generalized beyond the specific research context in which the data is collected” (Bryman & Teevan, 2005, p. 26). It is clear that such qualitative research is not generalizable, but the interview findings are transferable, in the sense that they raise important issues worthy of further study and, coupled with the results of the documentary analysis, the interviewee results provide valuable insight into the programme as a whole and are worthy of serious consideration.

**Document analysis**

Phase 1 of the thematic coding process, data familiarization, pertaining to documents analysis was undertaken over several weeks. After this initial data gathering phase, coding took several days and again involved the process of extensive reviews of the documents. The thematic coding of the training material involved searches of key words as patterns were identified from the training headings and where available, a review of the training content.

From this iterative process came the foundation for phase 2: generating initial codes by organizing both primary and secondary information into meaningful units, which was done by populating the spreadsheets with key terms and information found within the collected documentation. The most-used technique for identifying themes involved the repetitious use of common headings and content. Every time a common subject matter was identified it was added to the list. The initial coding was undertaken to determine how often these common subject matters were listed as it was assumed that the more often a specific training topic was identified, the more validity it held. This was particularly important when it came to identifying how the content was created in the first place. Of the 36 syllabi, 12 provided an
overview of the content creation process where a number of subject matter experts provided input. Overall, content created with subject matter expert involvement was felt to have more credibility.

The above discussion regarding course content creation was a good example for phase 3, which is the identification of themes. In regards to the secondary content evaluation, a total of seven major themes were identified along with a number of sub-themes. Given the nature of thematic coding, it is likely there are even more to be discovered. These seven themes ranged from the number of major headings/content themes identified, required delivery time, availability of syllabi and content, how the content was created, breakdown by hours of content, whether an examination was necessary, the pass mark and when the syllabus/content was created.

Phase 4 involved constructing thematic networks and making comparisons. As identified initially in phase 3, themes were identified then clustered into sub-categories. Within the secondary documentation, seven themes were identified. Of these, four had between two and four sub-themes and three contained a single theme. An in-depth assessment was then conducted with the intent of identifying commonalities within the data. In the primary data gathering, five themes were identified. One had four sub-themes, another had five sub-themes, two contained three sub-themes each and one category had no sub-themes.

Phase 5 involved integration and interpretation. As described throughout, the thematic coding process is iterative in nature. The integration, and particularly the interpretation, took place over several months. At times, themes only emerged after repeated exposure to the material. The thematic coding process initially involved conducting the coding of training syllabi but this process assisted in the development of the interview questions.
Semi-structured interviews

Phase 1 of the thematic coding process, data familiarization, pertaining to practitioner interviews was also undertaken over several weeks. After this initial data gathering phases, coding took several days and again involved the process of extensive reviews of the interviews. The initial phase of coding involved reviewing the interviews and creating a spreadsheet for the display of interview results, which was undertaken mainly to gain familiarity with the data.

From this iterative process came the foundation for phase 2: generating initial codes by organizing interview results into meaningful units, which was done by filling the spreadsheet with key terms and information based on interview results.

The above discussion regarding course content creation was a good example for phase 3, which is the identification of themes. Practitioner interviews followed a similar approach as the document evaluation process with a total of five themes and several sub-themes identified. These themes included asking the question of whether the ABST prepared guards, trainer qualifications, ABST content comments, course time observations and finally licensing process observations.

Phase 4 involved constructing thematic networks and making comparisons. As identified initially in phase 3, themes were identified then clustered into sub-categories. Within the interviewee thematic coding process, the main themes were divided into sub-themes totalling one theme with six initial sub-themes, one with five sub-themes, two each with three sub-themes and one with a single theme.

Phase 5 involved integration and interpretation. As described throughout, the thematic coding process is iterative in nature. The integration, and particularly the interpretation, took place over several months. At times, themes only emerged after continued exposure to the material.
Ethical issues

Steps to ensure ethical adherence were taken throughout this entire research. This research meets the expectations of the British Society of Criminology ethical guidelines as well as the University of Portsmouth ethical guidelines as detailed in Appendix 10 with the Letter of Ethical Approval and in Appendix 11 with the Declaration of Compliance with Ethical Requirements.

To limit harm to participating organizations and potential interviewees, anonymised access was made via the host letters previously discussed that were sent to those organizations with employees directly affected by the ABST program. Host agencies were asked to pass information letters onto interested employees. By doing so, these host agencies were granting permission for their employees to participate. Those interested in participating were asked to contact me. These volunteers when doing so were guaranteed anonymity when being interviewed. Each interviewee signed a participant consent form.

Potential ethical issues included psychological stress by participants, particularly guards who were going to be asked about their preparedness upon training completion. As I was going to ask some of the practitioners if they felt the ABST training they participated in has prepared them for the job, some interviewees may have felt uncomfortable in reporting that they may in fact not be prepared and could feel their job threatened if they thought I would report this to their employer. However, considering the guards in question were interviewed weeks or months after they received training, I was not concerned. Finally, interviews were voluntary suggesting participants were unconcerned about this issue.

As a trainer of security guards in the industry, I also recognized the potential conflict of interest or the appearance of conflict of interest as it could be seen that I was looking for a business opportunity to exploit if I can show that the existing content can be improved upon. However, I plan on sharing my findings with the
Government of Alberta and other interested parties including trainers, which should negate any concerns about taking advantage of the material to improve upon it.

**Researcher reflexivity**

As explained by Somekh et al., reflexive self-awareness is “to explore your own impact on the material you are analyzing” (2005, p. 4). As someone who is actively involved in both adult learning and the security industry, I had to evaluate my own feelings about the ABST. I will admit that what prompted me to initiate this research in the first place was a belief that the ABST manual was poorly written and that the majority of the guards whom I encountered on a regular basis were not prepared to work in the industry. My line of reasoning was that, since the Province of Alberta introduced the new licensing program with the ABST manual, it was my opinion that the problem may reside with the manual or perhaps its delivery. However, I had a burning curiosity to explore the material, as I did not know one way or the other if the ABST was effective. I had the awareness to ask myself how was I going to ensure my personal biases were not reflected in the research outcomes.

Part of this was accomplished by casting a wide as net as possible when it came to conducting my interviews. The first step was by identifying the various groups with direct involvement and knowledge of the ABST program. In effect it was the end-users of the program: trainers who delivered the ABST, guards who received the training, managers who directly supervised those guards and contract guard management with experience in dealing with the government licensers and their employees. My second approach was through the use of semi-structured interviews, which while following a standardized approach of gathering information to allow for later evaluation and to also allow for flexibility as it pertained to going beyond simply yes and no answers giving the interviewee the opportunity to expand on their thoughts about the program. Questions were also evaluated to ensure they were neutral and not leading to any particular conclusion. Interviewees were simply asked to share their thoughts on the program.
To further ensure that I was minimizing my biases, I agreed to deliver the ABST to a group of students wished to obtain their security guard licenses. I believe this exercise in further reviewing the training material; developing training content and delivering it would give me an enhanced understanding of the content from a practical perspective. It was fine to evaluate the ABST content, compare it against a host of other training programs and ask people their opinions and experiences with it but it was another level of understanding to create and deliver training material to a class of students. I did this in order to gain a better understanding of the material and the licensing process itself. When interviewing the 24 security industry practitioners and evaluating the ABST against 35 training programs, I was constantly evaluating my thoughts about the program and its effectiveness.

Conclusion

The documentary analysis approach in evaluating the training syllabi was somewhat limited by the lack of access to actual training material. At times it was challenging to identify the specific meaning of content based on a few words in a heading. However, there were often enough clues in the accompanying government legislation, syllabi and sample content to extrapolate the general meaning of the desired learning outcomes.

A second limitation was in the primary data gathering process that included the volunteer process itself. When one considers the minimum educational requirements of security guards which is to complete high school (Grade 12), this group can be described as highly educated and may not be indicative of the guard industry. As detailed in the profiles in Chapter 5, there were numerous undergraduate and master’s degrees held by the interviewees along with extensive certification and training. It is hard to say whether someone without the same extensive educational profile would choose to participate in a survey that fundamentally asked them whether they felt prepared to do their job. A third limitation is the thematic coding process as a whole. The challenge in working
through the five phases is that the process is based upon the knowledge, skills and industry understanding of the researcher. A different researcher may identify different themes and come to different conclusions. Another related issue is that some themes can take longer to identify than others. Despite evaluating the data on numerous occasions over the past two years, it took more than a year for some themes to emerge. However, the thematic coding process, with its potential weaknesses were overcome by constantly reviewing the training material as well as ultimately delivering it, allowed me to gain an in-depth understanding of it. The time period was also beneficial as it gave me considerable time to review the material on numerous occasions. This allowed for considerable reflection upon both the content and the research process itself. I was open to new interpretations of the content. And the benefit of my research approach is that who better to talk to than the end users directly involved in the provincial training program to provide feedback on it. The guards, trainers, managers and contact staff have direct experience in providing training, attending training and managing the trained guards. There is no denying their experiences, knowledge and insight into the realities of the ABST program. A final limitation was of the secondary data gathering was the inability to fully assess the content. Given that of the 36 programs, access to the full training material was only gained in 12 of them. It was difficult to fully assess the content when in some cases all that was available was a heading. A second limitation of the secondary data gathering was the lack of non-English training programs evaluated. It would have been interesting to assess them, particularly of the several programs in Europe where a number of countries have training programs requiring for more training extending several weeks or months.
Chapter 4: Comparing the ABST globally
Introduction

Three themes were identified from the documentary analysis: training content theme analysis, training program requirements and training content evaluation. The training content theme analysis focused on an evaluation of content, detailed by the various public and private sector groups. Information arising from this analysis allowed for a two dimensional comparison of the ABST. The first was the direct comparison between the ABST and the remaining programs with the intent of determining the ABST’s content appropriateness of preparing guards for work. The second was to determine common themes within the content with the intention to identify potential standards for training material, which were also compared against the research, government and security industry findings (see table 2.1). The second theme, training program requirements included required mandated delivery times, training time breakdown, exam requirements and level of government oversight. The third theme, training content evaluation, concentrated on how and when content was created and the availability of the training material. Each of these themes will be discussed in detail. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the findings and their implications.

Training content theme analysis

The purpose of detailing and comparing the training programs was to first determine how the ABST program compared against other syllabi. The second was to identify themes that can inform on the standardization of guard training material. A secondary finding was a determination average training themes per syllabi. On average there were 12 training themes of which Alberta was slightly higher with 14 showing that the Alberta program had slightly above average content.

Table 4.1 details individual training programs first by region then individually as well as the key content headings found in material. The documentary analysis comprised an examination of the 36 syllabi from 6 regions – Australia, Canada, Europe, India, South Africa, and the United States – to look for patterns of standardized training content. 32 are government-based while 4 are private sector.
Table 4.1 Training syllabi details

| Course Title                                                                 | Week 1 | Week 2 | Week 3 | Week 4 | Week 5 | Week 6 | Week 7 | Week 8 | Week 9 | Week 10 | Week 11 | Week 12 | Week 13 | Week 14 | Week 15 | Week 16 | Week 17 | Week 18 | Week 19 | Week 20 | Week 21 | Week 22 | Week 23 | Week 24 | Week 25 | Week 26 | Week 27 | Week 28 | Week 29 | Week 30 | Week 31 | Week 32 | Week 33 | Week 34 | Week 35 | Week 36 | Week 37 | Week 38 | Week 39 | Week 40 | Week 41 | Week 42 | Week 43 | Week 44 | Week 45 | Week 46 | Week 47 | Week 48 | Week 49 | Week 50 | Week 51 |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
In addition to identifying the foundational guard duties based on evaluating the three sources from Table 2.1 (p. 32) the analysis of Table 4.1 shows a confirmation of many of these duties through the identification of key training themes in column 1 including understanding legal issues, report writing, responding to emergencies, patrolling, fire prevention and protection, first aid response, health & safety, understanding physical security, and controlling traffic amongst several others.

As seen in Table 4.1, the ABST has content in 14 categories. This includes the top 8 as well as categories 10, 11, 13, 18, 25 and 34. Of the 45 training headings identified from the syllabi analysis, there was only one common to all syllabi: “legal issues”. However, the next 13 headings including report writing, emergency procedures, patrolling, communications, professional ethics/conduct, introduction to private security, fire prevention/protection, first aid, health and safety, physical security, customer service, traffic control and law enforcement relations were listed with enough frequency to suggest their value within any security training program. While a formal quantitative data analysis was not done, repetition of common headings suggests high relevance across the syllabi.

In comparing the ABST content with the list of common guard duties in Table 2.1 (p. 32) several similarities were made. Where the common guard duties identified report writing, the ABST presented the same topic and expanded it with the gathering of documentation and evidence, maintaining notebooks, taking statements, writing reports, gathering evidence and preparing for court. Both discuss responding to alarms and emergencies. In addition, an analysis of ABST Module 5 identified the requirement for guards to have basic investigation skills. The ABST states that guards “contribute to the success of investigations through their documentation, reporting, preparing reports and documents, collecting and preserving evidence during the investigative process” (Alberta Solicitor General and Ministry of Public Security, 2014, p. 5.1). The ABST also provides extensive information on alarm systems, alarm response and emergency scene management. Enforcing rules is common to both and covered in the ABST section.
on communication for security professionals where topics including verbal and non-verbal communication, challenges to communication, communicating with uncooperative persons and conducting an interview are found. Where the common guard duty table identifies enforcing rules, this is identified throughout the ABST in sections on legal operating parameters and expanded upon in traffic control. Conducting inspections and undertaking physical and electronic patrols / surveillance are also common to both and is expanded upon in the ABST in the section on basic security procedures where observation and patrols skills are presented, It is also discussed in the section on the introduction to the security industry where security professionals roles and responsibilities are made. The only topic with little depth in the ABST is access control concepts. Additional ABST content alignment includes material on appearance and conduct of security guards, dealing with substance abusers, traffic control, shift work, working with a partner and occupational health and safety. For a full list of ABST content, see Appendix 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.2: common guard duties vs. ABST training content headings</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>common guard duties</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Access control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Conduct basic investigations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Conduct inspections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Enforce rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Respond to alarms and emergencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Write reports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Undertake physical and electronic patrols / surveillance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Undertake assignments as requested such as:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Transporting valuables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Receptionist duties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o Manage lost and found</td>
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<tr>
<td>o Educating employees</td>
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<tr>
<td>o Testifying in court</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Legal issues

Legal issues were the only category that all 36 documents had identified as necessary knowledge for security guards to have. The most common learning objective revolved around the legal framework under which guards operate. Depending on jurisdiction and training times, content from various training documents included a wide variety of criminal and civil law (Florida Department of Agriculture and Consumer Services, 2010, p. 1; Security Industry Authority, ….Common Security Industry Knowledge, 2014, p. 4), conducting legal arrests (Arizona, 2007, p. 2); search and seizure (California, 2010, p. 2), human rights legislation (British Columbia, 2010, p. 1), criminal offence definitions (Alberta Solicitor General and Ministry of Public Security, 2014, pp. 2.5-2.15), use of force (California, 2010, p. 2; Saskatchewan, 2008, p. 4.4), security guard legislation (Connecticut, 2007, p. 2), court system (Government of Ontario, 2008, p. 24; South Africa, 2012, p. 1) and testifying in court (New York, 2010, pp.3.24/3.25). Finally the Indian Private Security Agencies Act calls for a “rudimentary knowledge of the Indian Penal Code, right to private defense, procedure for lodging first information in the police station and Arms Act and Explosives Act” (Garg, 2010, p. 15).

While all training syllabi had specific sections devoted exclusively to legal issues, some also had overlapping content in sections such as report writing and the law (Alberta Solicitor General and Ministry of Public Security, 2014, pp. 5.19-5.21; Department of Education, 2012, CPPSEC2009A, p. 4; Hertig, 2010, pp. 381-402; Shepp, 2010, pp. 403-411) and occupational health and safety (Brislin, 2014, pp. 194-215; Connecticut, 2007, p. 3; New York, 2010, pp. 4.14-4.16; Government of Ontario, 2008, pp. 19-20). In addition, there was often more than one section specifically devoted to legal issues. In some jurisdictions, including Arizona, Connecticut, Georgia, Louisiana, and New Jersey, there was considerable time allotted to legal issues; for example, Arizona (2007, pp. 1-4) has eight hours of training with four out of eight sections specifically focusing on the legal authority of a security guard, the laws of arrest, search and seizure, criminal law and recognizing crimes, Arizona laws pertaining to uniforms, use and levels of force,
and crime scene preservation. Connecticut (2007, pp. 2/3) also devotes at least four of its eight hours to legal issues including licensing legislation, search and seizure, use of force, and basic criminal justice, with the remainder spent on public safety and first aid.

**Report writing**

“Report writing” was the next most common topic presented: 32 documents either specifically list or at least imply it. This topic is closely aligned with both legal issues and conducting investigations as security guards can often find themselves gathering information and documenting incidents that provide the basis for criminal and civil legal proceedings. The ABST (Alberta Solicitor General and Ministry of Public Security, 2014) has numerous references throughout regarding investigations that a guard can be expected to undertake when they discuss “obtaining information”, providing “detailed explanations” of criminal and emergency situations and the importance of detailed notes as it pertains to gathering evidence, protecting crime scenes and testifying in court. Hertig (2010), Brislin (2014) and the Manitoba (Pinnell & Reid, n.d.), British Columbia BST (2010) and Saskatchewan training manuals all clearly state that security guards conduct investigations regularly. These documents also provide training in the area of report writing and conducting investigations. South Africa calls for training in the area of giving evidence in court (South Africa, 2012, p. 1). The UK devotes an entire session to “reporting and record keeping” in its Specifications for Learning and Qualifications for Common Security Industry Knowledge document (2014, p. 10). The time spent on report writing was identified in several training documents. Florida (Florida Department of Agriculture and Consumer Services, 2010, p.3) provided for three hours, while Canada (Government of Canada, 2008, p. A-2) and Quebec (GardaWorld, n.d. p. 3) both called for four hours under sections entitled “report writing, note taking, evidence and crime scene sketching”; Ontario (Government of Ontario, 2008, p. 3) does the same, although in their case they split the time between in-class and outside class hours – the only training manual to do so. Saskatchewan (2008, p.1-4) calls for three hours of training in report
writing while California (2010, p. 3) requires four hours. In California there are a number of related topics covered, including report writing, English as a second language, observation and patrol techniques, asking appropriate questions, and observing suspects/suspicious activity. Strongly associated with report writing was observing suspicious/suspicious activity. Several of the training documents highlighting the connection between report writing and investigating skills for guards is the Australian Government Industry Skills Council "CPPSEC3005A Prepare and present security documentation and reports" (2012, p. 2). Several of the training documents under the heading "note taking and report writing" (1990, p. 1). Several of the topics under the heading "note taking and report writing" (1990, p. 1) were presented to course participants in New York. Content to be presented to course participants in New York included fire, bomb threats, hazardous materials, natural disasters, crimes in progress (2010, pp. 4-2.4.18), evacuation procedures, public expectations during emergencies, and emergency procedures. Emergency procedures were identified in 30 syllabi. ABST content included alarm systems, responding to alarms and emergency scene management (Alberta Solicitor General and Ministry of Public Security, 2014, pp. 6-1/6-18). In New York, content to be presented to course participants included fire, bomb threats, hazardous materials, natural disasters, crimes in progress (2010, pp. 4.2-4.18). Emergency procedures were identified in 30 syllabi. ABST content included alarm systems, responding to alarms and emergency scene management (Alberta Solicitor General and Ministry of Public Security, 2014, pp. 6-1/6-18). In New York, content to be presented to course participants included fire, bomb threats, hazardous materials, natural disasters, crimes in progress (2010, pp. 4.2-4.18). Emergency procedures were identified in 30 syllabi. ABST content included alarm systems, responding to alarms and emergency scene management (Alberta Solicitor General and Ministry of Public Security, 2014, pp. 6-1/6-18).
emergencies, the role of security during emergencies, and legal requirements around duty of care (Government of Ontario, 2010, pp. 21-23). In the ASIS guideline, topics under the headings of “Emergency Response Procedures” and “Life Safety Awareness” included explaining the incident command system, critical incident response, evacuation procedures, disaster preparedness, emergency equipment placement, and fire prevention skills (2010, pp. 9/10). Some of the content was precise and provided instructions on how to respond to specific incidents (Florida, 2010, p. 2), while other content focused on larger issues such as defining what constitutes an emergency (Pinnell & Reid, 2005, pp. 6.11-6.19 and 9.11-9.21; Spaninks, Quinn & Byrne, 1999, p. 62) and the legal responsibilities of security personnel (ASIS, 2010, pp. 9/10; Government of Ontario, 2008, p. 23).

Patrolling
“Patrolling” is also listed 30 times as a necessary job responsibility for security guards and is defined as “the act of moving about an area to provide protection and to conduct observation” (Vail, 2010, p.119). In training documents, patrolling was sometimes closely aligned with report writing and note taking (Alberta Solicitor General and Ministry of Public Security, 2014, pp. 2-11/2.17; ASIS, 2010, p. 9; California, 2010, p. 3; Spaninks, Quinn & Byrne, 1999, pp. 46/47). While India does not specifically use the words “patrol” or “patrolling”, it is suggested as a duty is “physical security, security of the assets, security of the building or apartment, personnel security, household security” (Garg, 2010, p. 15). It is difficult to imagine how securing assets, buildings, or personnel can be accomplished by a security guard without patrolling. Considering the importance of patrolling as a key element of facility risk management and asset protection, it is surprising that it was not listed in all 36 documents.

Communications
“Communications” was listed 28 times. An entire module is devoted to this issue in the ABST (Alberta Solicitor General and Ministry of Public Security, 2014). An examination of other descriptions found content including customer service, public
relations, dealing with the media, conducting interviews (ASIS, 2010, p. 9), writing, human relations and use of force as they apply to communications (Arizona, 2007, p. 4), protocols pursuant to contact radio/monitors and other technology, communicating with external agencies (California, 2010, p. 3), workplace recording and reporting procedures, teamwork, and giving information to the public (Spaninks, Quinn & Byrne, 1999, pp. 117-144). “Communications” falls under the category of “personal safety” in the ABST program (2014, p. 2) and under a category of receiving and understanding information, communicating with others and recording security information (Department of Education, 2012, CPPSEC2001A, p. 4; Department of Education, 2012, TLIE2007A, p. 2). As evidenced by the differences in just seven syllabi, it is easy to see how “communications” has been widely interpreted.

Professionalism/ethics/conduct


Introduction to private security

An “introduction to private security” was identified in 21 documents. In the ABST this includes roles and responsibilities, legislation and licensing and appearance and conduct (Alberta Solicitor General and Ministry of Public Security 2014). Elsewhere this is a very broad category with a wide number of subjects covered such as orientation (Arizona, 2007, p. 1), history (Connecticut, 2007, p. 2),
professionalism, ethics, crime awareness and prevention (Georgia, 2007, p. 1), culture, sectors and services, legislation, regulations and standards (Spaninks, Quinn & Byrne, 1999, pp. 11-21), assets, threats and risk (Ellis & Hertig, 2010, pp. 1-10), standards of behaviour (Security Industry Authority, Common Security Industry Knowledge, 2014, p. 8), types of incidents that can occur requiring a guard response, the role of emergency services, regulatory authority of emergency services on private property (British Columbia, 2010, p. 1), roles and responsibilities of security, legislation, and appearance and conduct (Alberta, 2014, pp. 1.1-1.17). It would be easy to move some of the topics into other categories including legal issues or professionalism/ethics/conduct, which underscores the difficulty in placing content under a single heading.

_Fire prevention/protection_


_Health and safety_

“Health and safety” was another broad category that was identified and discussed in 18 documents. Alberta has an entire module devoted to this issue (2014). In the European vocational manual, the role of social partners and personal protective equipment were introduced (Spanink, Quinn & Byrne, 1999, p. 88), while the UK’s Security Industry Authority discussed the importance of health and safety in their

**Physical security**

Traffic control


Crime scene preservation

“Crime scene preservation” was identified in eight syllabi: within the ABST (2014, pp. 5/19-20), by Shepp (2010, pp. 403 – 411) in the CPO and ASIS (2010, p. 17) along with California (2010, p. 6), New Mexico (n.d., p. 6), Oklahoma (2011, Phase 2, p. 4), Utah (n.d., p. 1), and Washington State (2011, p. 13). It is interesting to note that these seven syllabi are all American, which while American content developers see security guards potentially having responsibility for this duty no other content developers do.

Substance abuse

“Substance abuse” was listed by five documents: ABST (2014, pp. 24/25), ASIS/PSO (2010, p. 18), Australia (Department of Education, CPPSEC103A, 2012), Brislin (2014, pp. 264-278) and the Certified Protection Officer training manual (Elliott, Kitteringham & Gibbs, 2010, pp. 270-285). As one imagines, the topic involves a discussion of a variety of drugs and alcohol and their impact in both the workplace and on those individuals ingesting them. The Australian document provides guidance on the responsible use of alcohol in venues and how security personnel are required to understand the legislative parameters under which alcohol is served (Department of Education, CPPSEC103A, 2012).

Shift change responsibilities

“Shift change responsibilities” are identified in the ABST (2014, pp. 3/29-30) and the South African document (2012, p. 1). The content, while short is detailed with discussion of both starting and ending a shift.
Headings not included in the ABST

There were a number of headings identified in other training content that was not covered in the ABST. This was expected as given that a total of 45 content headings were identified amongst all material and the ABST had 14. Those headings not covered included first aid, customer service, law enforcement relations, terrorism and counter-terrorism, workplace violence, labour relations, employer policies/enforcement, access control, crowd control, sexual harassment, driver safety, communication systems, workplace crime, leadership and supervision, information protection, security awareness, firearms/weapons, workplace effectiveness, executive protection, cultural dynamics, street gangs, identification of IEDs, people with special needs, environmental crime control theory, future security/technology, school security, security and responsible alcohol, cash in transit, physical fitness training, documentation and identification management and security risk management.

Training program requirements

The second theme to emerge from the analysis was information revolving around the various program requirements. As can see seen in Table 4.1 three sub-themes were identified. These sub-themes included the required minimum delivery times of specific training programs and applicable national averages, if there was a breakdown by hours for specific content and exam requirements on whether the attendee was required to pass the examination along with the stipulated pass mark of that exam.

Minimum delivery times

The ABST with its mandated 40-hour training program meets the minimum de facto standard in Canada and provides for more than twice as much training than the average time of 17 hours in the United States. It also exceeds the UK training of 28 hours and matches the required 40 hours of training in South Africa. Just India
with its 160 hours and Australia with its average 112 hours of training time both exceed the ABST delivery time. Of course, there are other training programs, particularly in Europe that far exceed all these countries. However, their content was not evaluated.

Five of the seven Canadian programs were mandated to be forty hours in length, with the two exceptions being the Federal Government’s CGSB training program at fifty-four hours and the Province of Quebec’s training program at seventy hours (GardaWorld, p. 3). However, the CGSB also stipulates that First Aid and CPR are required (2008, p. 1) and the hours required for this training must be conducted by a “recognized organization using qualified instructors” (p. 4). Ontario suggests that First Aid and CPR training “may be required” (Government of Ontario, 2008, p. 3) above and beyond their 40-hour training program. The average training time of these seven syllabi is 46 hours.

Regarding American syllabi evaluated, training times ranged from 8 to 40 hours. Three states including Arizona (2007, p. 1), Connecticut (2007, p. 2) and New York (2010, p. 2) each required eight hours of training. Louisiana (Ryland, 2015) and North Carolina (North Carolina, 1990, p. 1) both require 16 hours of training. Illinois requires 20 hours of training (Protection and Investigation Services, 2014) while Georgia (2007, p. 1) and New Jersey (n.d.) each have 24 hours of mandatory training. California (2010, p. 1) requires 32 hours of training. Finally, Florida (2010, p. 1) stipulates 40 hours of training. This range shows considerable inconsistency in training delivery times with an average time of 17 hours.

Of the 36 training syllabi and programs evaluated, just two did not provide information on the required or recommended length of training time. The European report does not provide a breakdown of hours, as the authors readily acknowledge their recommendations are incomplete. Specifically, they note that, “although legal areas are incomplete of details of the legal codes some guidance has been given for the level of detail that will be required to complete these sections at a national
level” (Spaninks, Quinn & Byrne 1999, p. 5). As such, they have left the creation of training content to individual countries as well as the decision about the necessary number of hours to properly and effectively deliver the content. The other document that did not provide a schedule is Brislin’s “The Effective Security Officer’s Training Manual.”

When comparing delivery times, training was inconsistent between jurisdictions. The average length of time for Australia was between 80 and 144 hours, Britain was 28 hours, Canada was just over 46 hours, the United States just over 17 hours, and the private sector was 60 hours. There was no standardization within the 36 syllabi although there was some consistency between regions within countries.

**Breakdown by hours of content**

14 of the training programs stipulated that trainers were required to devote specific amounts of time to specific material. For example, the Ontario training program breaks down the content into sections divided by time and also suggests that their 40 hour training program be roughly divided equally into “inside and outside classroom” hours (Government of Ontario, Security Guard Test Preparation Guide, 2010, p. 3). The Canadian federal document also provides a breakdown by hour. For example the document requires a minimum of three hours spent on access control (Government of Canada, 2008, pp. A1/A2). Other jurisdictions requiring delivery breakdown included Arkansas (Arkansas, 2014, p. 5) and California (Bureau of Security and Investigative Services, n.d.).

**Exam requirements**

While 16 documents stipulated that a pass mark was required, only 13 stated the mark. A pass mark was a requirement for all seven Canadian training programs. The CGSG has a pass mark of 75% (Canada, 2008, p. C1), British Columbia 60% (Justice Institute of British Columbia, Course Completion), Alberta 80% (Alberta Justice and Solicitor General, 2015), Saskatchewan 75% (Ministry of Justice,
personal correspondence, January 20, 2015), Manitoba 75% (Private Investigators Program, personal correspondence, January 20, 2015), Ontario 62% (Security Guard Test Preparation Guide, 2008, p. 4), and Quebec 75% (GardaWorld, p. 3). In the United States, California requires a pass mark of 100% (State of California, Power to Arrest Training Manual, 2011, p. 10), Connecticut 70% (2007, p. 3), Florida 75% (2010, p. 7), New York 70% (2010, p. 1.3), and the Professional Protection Officer requires a pass mark of 70% (International Foundation for Protection Officers). The other training programs likely require a pass mark but in the cases of the European, United Kingdom, and Australian documents the syllabi were evaluated with no actual training material reviewed. The remaining syllabi did not provide any detail as to whether a pass mark was required.

**Level of government oversight**

There were two government levels responsible for creating and managing guard training standards. The first was at the provincial or state level and the second was at the federal level. This section discusses the observations made regarding this issue. Australia, India, United Kingdom and South Africa created these standards at the national level whereas Canada and United States have left the issue of guard training at the provincial or state level. As such Canada and the United States have no mandated national standard. While the Canadian Federal Government through the Canadian General Standards Board has created a voluntary national standard for the country (Government of Canada, 2008, p. ii), the provinces are free to develop their own security guard training criteria. The United States similarly has no national standard, though one can suggest that ASIS International and the International Foundation for Protection Officers have put forward their own versions for consideration for such a national standard. ASIS International asks that the various elements presented in their document “be considered by any government entity proposing to exercise controls over the providers of private security” (p. 4). Combining this with the statement that “the Guideline is United States-focused and it is not intended as an international document” (p. 1), an argument can be made that this guideline is to be considered
a federal standard. The remaining two countries, Australia (Australian Gov., 2013) and England (Security Industry Authority, Introduction to Learning Leading Towards License-linked Qualifications, 2014, p. 4) both created national standards.

**Training content evaluation**

This third theme of overall content evaluation was divided into three sub-themes. The first examined how the training content was created with the intent of determining its validity and appropriateness to be delivered to students. The underlying belief is that the validity of the content was based on the extent of various subject matter expert involvement in creating the content. The second sub-theme assessed the availability of the content to the potential student body. The third sub-theme focused on the date of the content creation.

**Training creation**

Only 12 documents detailed this process. Along with a single subject matter expert, Alberta based its content on an evaluation of what other provincial documents contained (Alberta Solicitor General and Public Security, 2009, p. 20). The Canadian Federal Government convened a committee of subject matter experts and interested parties to develop the CGSB content (Government of Canada, 2008, p. iv). British Columbia lists 18 people on their advisory committee (British Columbia Ministry of Justice, 2009, p. 2). The Manitoba training manual (Pinnell & Reid 2008, pp. iii/iv) was developed with extensive input from 43 contributors. The Saskatchewan manual was developed by one writer who “relied heavily on the Manitoba document to supplement the initial training document” (2008, p. 2) In addition three individuals are listed as having contributed to the development of the Saskatchewan manual. In the Ontario training manual, an extensive explanation was provided in the training curriculum; the stages of the process included “occupational grouping and job analysis, skills modeling, validation of the job analysis and skills modeling data and identification of training requirements,

In the U.K., the Security Industry Authority created several syllabi for the security industry. The foundation for this content came from the British Government’s National Occupational Standards (NOS), which “are statements of competence and specific performance outcomes. The detailed specialist content of the SIA learning specifications has been mapped to the respective NOS” (Security Industry Authority: Introduction to Learning Leading Towards Licence-linked Qualifications, 2014, p. 4). The European report, produced in 1999, was the result of a three-year partnership between CoESS (Confederation of European Security Services) and UNI-Europa, a trade organization which represents around 300,000 employees in the private security industry (Spaninks, Quinn & Byrne, 1999, p. 1). The intent of this report was to provide guidance and advice to European countries and companies in developing their security training programs; there is no time frame associated with the delivery of the material.

The Australian training content, the “Certificate II in Security Operations,” was a joint effort between the Australian, state, and territorial governments to create a national standard for the security guard industry (Training, 2015). The Australian Government’s Department of Education, Employment, and Workplace Relations developed this content. What was not stated for this Australian document was whether the private security sector was invited to provide input into the content or review the output.

**Availability of content**

Training content was available free of charge in 9 of the 36 jurisdictions with Alberta being one of them. These jurisdictions provide the training manuals online at no cost, making it easier for students to learn the material and prepare for the
exam and prepare for guard work as a whole. Regarding the remaining jurisdictions, particularly in reference to the private sector agencies, the CPO is administered through IFPO a for-profit organization. Likewise with Brislin’s training manual, this is a book created by an individual and marketed through a publisher. It cannot be expected that these books would be available free of charge. In other cases, syllabi such as the ASIS PSO guideline, was never intended to be anything other than to provide guidance for organizations interested in creating their own programs. Some of the government syllabi are simply little more than vague suggestions. In these cases the government provided the outline and left it to others to develop the content. In those cases, it again becomes an issue of profit generation by selling the training material to prospective students.

*Document creation date*

The final issue resulting from the training content evaluation was the date the specific training documents were put forward. The dates range from 1988 when the first edition of the IFPO document was first released though it has gone through eight iterations with the last release in 2010 to 2016 when South Africa released its training standard. However one of the challenges in clarifying the specific dates is that in-depth research was conducted to determine if a training manual was created as a first time document or to replace a previous version. One document was released between 1980 and 1989, that being the Certified Protection Officer, 1st Edition in 1988. Six manuals were released between 1990 and 1999. 16 were released between 2000 and 2009 and 12 between 2010 and 2016. Obviously only time will tell how many more training programs will be released by 2019, rounding off the last 10 years. One document was undated, that being the Quebec manual.

The ASIS Guideline was originally created in 2002 as a joint effort between the “Private Sector Liaison Committee of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), which includes members from the National Sheriff’s Association, the National Association of Security Companies and ASIS International” (Williams,
The first edition of the Effective Security Officer’s Training Manual was published in 1994. The second manual was published in 1998, and the third in 2014. Considering the book is in its third edition and has been on the market since 1994, one could assume a sustained interest by the guard industry. The Professional Protection Officer’s manual, now in its eighth iteration, was first published in 1988 (Davies & Hertig, 2010, p. xix). The eighth edition was published in 2010. This training manual is available through the International Foundation for Protection Officers and was developed by its editors and subject matter experts who contributed to each edition according to requests from the security industry over a 22-year period (Davies & Hertig, 2010, pp. xix-xxiv).

Discussion

As identified in the analysis, there were several findings. The first is that the ABST has content quite similar with the other 35 syllabi as seen in Table 4.1. With the 45 key headings identified from the analysis of the material, Alberta provided training in 11 of the top 13 categories as well as content in an additional 3 areas. In identifying the key training themes, the ABST, while not as comprehensive as programs like India, California, the CPO, Brislin or Florida, still has a considerable amount of information and is in alignment with other Canadian provincial training manuals. And the ABST also has far more content than many other jurisdictions outside of Canada and in particular when compared against many of its American counterparts. While the Alberta government is to be congratulated for their intent in providing this amount of content, there may be too much given the 40 hours of delivery time.

From a content perspective the ABST was assessed on the results of the literature review and the comparison with the 35 syllabi. As seen in Table 4.2 the Alberta training program certainly meets the knowledge requirements of standard guard duties as determined by the research community, various government occupational standards and what is discussed within the security community. The second
dimensional criteria were the identification of standard training themes amongst the 36 programs. While the ABST does not cover all the material that some training programs provide, nor do most others. While the ABST is not at the apex of the evaluated training material and provides less content as the CPO or Brislin’s training material, it does cover the most important topics as detailed above. The implication is that students exposed to the ABST are providing with training in the most important areas that guards should know in order to perform their jobs effectively. Given that delivery time is as important as delivery content, this will be discussed in the next section.

While many of those topics identified in the training material and not presented in the ABST are worthy training topics, given the 40 hours of training time provided it would not be feasible to present these topics. Consideration could be given to adding them to a higher-level training program but that is a future issue to be addressed if and when such a program is pursued.

The second theme explored was the lack of standardized delivery time. This can be assessed from different levels including nationally and internationally. Britain with its 28 hours, India with 160, Australia with its average of 112 hours and South Africa with 40 hours have a huge range. The United States ranges from 4 to 48 hours. Canada also has a range, albeit smaller from 40 to 70 hours but it depends upon how one counts the training. Quebec counts 20 hours of first aid and CPR as part of their 70 hours whereas the remaining provinces don’t and yet it is standard that guards in those provinces obtain anywhere from 8 to 20 hours of first aid and CPR training. This becomes an issue of perception of more hours but they are just counted differently in different provinces. When training times are adjusted to take into account such programs as first aid and CPR, Canada is well on its way of creating a minimum standard with 40 hours expected in 5 of the 6 provinces. The implications for the remaining 4 provinces and 3 territories is that they will likely adhere to this 40-hour standard to meet AIT obligations.
Again, looking at all the programs in question, training delivery times ranged from 4 to 160 hours in the 36 programs. In relation to the private sector programs, there are no standard delivery times. For example the CPO can be delivered in 40 to 160 hours. I have personally seen the program delivered in 40 hours and myself have delivered the program in 160 hours. The realities of course delivery include level of student knowledge prior to the course delivery, licensing requirements, level of language proficiency and quality of the delivery which can be a combination of the training materials, pre-reading assignments and expertise of the instructor. The second finding is in regards to the delivery time of the ABST. There are mixed thoughts on the 40 hours required. In comparing Alberta against the rest of Canada, the ABST program provides similar content. As seen in table 4.1 all Canadian documents have similar training content with much shared training content. And when comparing the ABST against its American counterparts, it is superior as the average delivery time in the US is 17 hours. However in comparing the ABST globally against such programs in Australia with its 80 – 144 hrs and India with its 160 hours it falls far short far shorter with ranges from a quarter to half the time spent in the class. The consequence of more class time is that content is more likely to remain with the student when being exposed to training material in a month or more rather than a week. This is where those programs with 40 hours of training fall short.

What the ABST does not have is specific time allotted to specific elements of the material. However, it would take additional research to determine whether there are significant advantages to this. The ABST is in a group of 26 training programs that requires an examination. Of that group, only 23 stipulate the pass mark. Of those 26, only 4 jurisdictions have a higher pass mark: California and South Carolina with 100% and Oregon and Washington both at 85%. Again, the implication is that given the high pass mark required of those writing the ABST exam, this puts the onus on student and trainer to take the program more seriously and to be more engaged when the expectations are clarified up front.
Whereas Australia, India, South Africa, and the United Kingdom each had their national program and hence national standard this bodes well for those jurisdictions. It is likely far easier to maintain or improve standardization of training material than in Canada and the United States with their fragmented security programs. At least in Canada with its Agreement on Internal Trade (AIT) the country is well on its way to creating a national standard. Just six provinces had similar programs, but by population the majority of the country’s guard force is trained to a consistent standard. While the four Atlantic provinces and three territories lack programs it is likely that as pressure builds to provide guard training, they will have six programs to choose from or use as a level to create their own.

Regarding the United States, they have a tremendous way to go before they approach anything close to a national standard. With 5 states not requiring licensing nor training (Nalla & Crichlow, 2014, p. 13) and 25 states not requiring any training for unarmed guards (p. 7) the US is only half way to creating a national standard of requiring any training whatsoever. With the ranges of 4 to 48 hours in just 25 states, there is a tremendous amount of work required to standardize. It is highly unlikely that Alaska and Oklahoma with 48 and 40 hours of training respectively would be willing to drop their standards and also unlikely that South Carolina and Tennessee each with 4 hours of mandatory training will be inclined to increase their training by a factor of 10 any time soon.

The third finding is that training content was developed in what can be considered a “consensus approach” in 12 of the documents. In the majority of these “consensus-built” programs, the contributing subject matter experts were identified. As identified in the preamble of the 12 training documents, the vast majority of those involved in the content development were involved in the guard force industry. The implication of this approach is that it provides a level of validity that the content was developed by those with knowledge of guard duties and by extension this suggests that guards exposed to the training material are benefiting from it. This is opposed to the remaining material where it is not known how the
content was arrived at. The concern is that it is unknown if the content was created by those with specific experience in both guard duty requirements and familiarity with adult learning concepts.

There is also a concern over the availability of the training material. With Alberta being part of a minority of jurisdictions that has made the training material freely available, this opens up the concern in those jurisdictions that are charging for their training material that those organizations may have a greater motive for profit and ensuring students pass the material regardless of their understanding of the material. As stated by one training organization, “all students pass” and there is no need to worry about the exam or the content. One implication for jurisdictions providing the training material free of charge is that they are more concerned about the increased professionalism of the student rather than seeing students as an opportunity to increase profits at the expense of the learning experience.

Regarding the document creation date, based on the analysis of when the material was developed as well as the amount of material, there is a suggestion that there is an increased interest in requiring security guards to meet improved training standards. So far the busiest 10-year period for the documents released was from 2000 to 2009 with the release of 16 training syllabi/manuals. However, when assessed by year, in that same period between 2000 and 2009, 1.6 documents were released each year whereas from 2010 to 2016, 1.7 documents were released each year. Whether this .1 increase is statistically relevant and indicative of a growth in increased and improving training is yet to be seen.

The issue of delivery times can be best summed up by stating that in the North American context, Alberta is in alignment with its five provincial counterparts and obviously much further ahead of four provinces and three territories that require no training and as good as the best in the US, better than the UK and in alignment with South Africa but far behind India and Australia. Creating international training
standards is likely many years away. A national Canadian standard is also likely not going to arrive any time in the next few years.

This research adds to the sparse existing body of knowledge as it pertains to security guard training programs as it examines content from a number of jurisdictions around the world. While content in only twelve of the programs has been created as the result of a consensus process with a number of subject matter experts, this consensus approach highlights what can be considered the more ‘legitimate’ content to be delivered. Given that training programs are almost always limited in what content can be presented in a fixed time, this research highlights what security trainers consider most important to present in each of the 36 training programs within their given time frame.

The training content examination identified several additional issues requiring discussion. First, individual syllabuses without content were compared against those with both a syllabus and training content. As a result this did not allow for a detailed examination of all content as a view of only the headings could be misleading as compared to looking at both the headings and content. This may have lead to misinterpretations of data. Secondly, in the case of the CoESS document, while this report was a recommended training manual, it was deliberately incomplete in the area of legal issues as that would be up to each EU country to insert their legal material if they chose to incorporate the CoESS syllabus. In addition, how much content was actually adopted by individual EU countries was not examined. However, this was an important report to evaluate considering the consensus approach to its development and the fact that it highlighted key content themes to be considered for inclusion into training.

Another issue to consider with the inclusion of all private sector documents: the CPO, the ASIS PSO guideline, Brislin’s training manual and the CoESS document is that their content was developed by subject matter experts all within the security industry. For example, the CoESS document was developed in consensus
between industry and security guard unions, the CPO with its eight editions developed over a 22 year period and presumably subject to considerable market scrutiny, the PSO now coming to its third edition also developed after extensive consultation with security industry subject matter experts and finally Brislin’s manual also in its third edition. The average number of headings in the private sector was 27 where it was just 10 headings for the public sector documents. This suggests that the private sector has long recognized the complexity of the job of security guard and has created correspondingly more training content to prepare them for the job. This is in contrast with the various government agencies and their training documents with the minimum legislatively mandated content in some cases from unknown sources. This highlights that governments are constrained by time and cost limits, various constituent needs that are often at odds with one another, limitations of enacting legislation, and enforcement and licensing infrastructure requirements. It is one thing for a non-elected body to create such documents to assist and inform policy makers and private sector entities but they are not tasked with implementation and management. The difference in security training between the private and public sector can best be described as the private sector is advocating the training that should be provided whereas the government is providing the training that it must provide.

As a result of the analysis it was found there were two differing approaches taken by the various companies providing in-house and contract guard services. The first is that the provincial registry created both the syllabi and the training material, which is both positive and negative. It is positive as the content-creating body can bring consistency to the material being presented to all students. The negative is if this delivery is poorly delivered or managed overall, then there will still be inconsistencies in the quality of the security guards attending the training program. This was evidenced in the ABST review, as some guard companies simply provide ABST-certified staff and others have extensive training programs going beyond the ABST standard. All three of the contract security interviewees stated they provided anywhere from 16 to 60 hours of additional internal training.
The second approach involved the development of an outline only, thereby leaving the actual development of the material to individual organizations. These organizations had to submit their content for approval to the licensing body; however, this process can lead to varying emphasis being placed on individual content headings. It is also important to note that in this approach, the training material and times were minimum standards to be met – there was nothing stopping an organization from developing more content and spending more time delivering the training material than was mandated. It is also important that Alberta approves considers equivalencies to the ABST and there are some private sector organizations teaching their own government-approved training material in Alberta, which is how one of the interviewees had been trained.

Despite regional differences, those involved in developing the content, whether they were private or public sector syllabi, when the course was created, and the delivery time frames involved, there are many common themes that have emerged from this comparison including content headings, requirements for a written exam, and, fundamentally, the fact that both industry and government have recognized the need for trained security guards and are also taking the next step in mandating and providing minimum training.
Chapter 5: Practitioner perspectives of the ABST
Introduction

This chapter draws on semi-structured interviews to examine practitioners’ perspectives on the effectiveness of the ABST and potential areas for improvement. This chapter starts with an overview of interviewee profiles. It then presents in turn the five themes that emerged from the interviews. The first theme focused on whether the ABST prepares students for work as a security guard. The second was a discussion of the qualifications of ABST trainers and whether they are generally prepared to provide quality training to students. The third focused on the ABST content. The fourth focused on the appropriateness of the 40-hour course delivery time and the fifth and final theme to emerge focused on the guard licensing process time.

Security practitioner interviewee profiles

The 24 security practitioners came from four areas of the Alberta security industry. These areas included guards, trainers, security managers, and contract guard management personnel. Each had direct experience with either the ABST or those with ABST training and in a position to comment upon the program’s effectiveness. A brief profile of each interviewee is provided in table 5.1.

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<td>21</td>
<td>Contract Security Management</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Human resource position with contract guard company</td>
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<td>22</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>Contract Security Management</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Senior management with contract guard company</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>Contract Security Management</td>
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<td>Senior management/owner of contract guard company</td>
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The work and education profiles of the guard interviewees were wide and varied. Their educational backgrounds ranged from two guards who had only completed high school to others with post-secondary education ranging from one to four years or more of university. One participant held multiple undergraduate degrees, another held both undergrad and master's degrees, and a third had an undergraduate degree and two master’s degrees. Collectively, the guards held numerous industry-related training certificates in numerous subjects. They also had between 20 months and 10 years of security experience working at a variety of sites. The average length of security industry experience was 3 ¾ years. Seven interviewees worked as security guards while three had been promoted to shift supervisor. All ten interviewees started work in the contract security industry, and two of them have migrated in-house. These ten interviewees have security experience across Western Canada working in a number of markets including shopping malls, commercial high-rise properties, health care facilities, parking lots, a distribution centre, a government facility, and a bank.
All four ABST trainers had extensive backgrounds in security, law enforcement, and the military. One trainer retired from the Armed Forces after 25 years before moving into security for several years. This trainer obtained extensive adult learning certifications while in the military and subsequently worked as a trainer and supervisor for other trainers. He had considerable experience in creating course content. The second participant has worked in the security industry for over three decades in the capacity of trainer and course content creator. The third trainer has several years of security experience as well as working as a trainer for several years. The fourth trainer has worked in security and law enforcement for over 40 years, creating and delivering training content for much of this time, as well as attending numerous academic institutions and taking a variety of courses in adult learning. On average these participants have 28 ¼ years in creating and delivering adult learning content as well as taking considerable training in adult learning principles themselves.

The security managers' security experience ranged from 5 to 22 years with an average of 16 years' industry experience. Two had military backgrounds, both of over a decade. Between the six participants in this category, there were numerous university certificates, three diplomas, an undergraduate degree, a master's degree, and extensive certification and education in a variety of industry-specific and non-related areas from a variety of institutions and organizations across Canada. Five of these managers were currently working in the commercial high-rise environment, while the sixth managed a quasi-governmental security department. All six security managers had extensive experience working at multiple sites as security guards, supervisors, and managers during their careers. All six managers, all currently in-house, also had extensive experience in managing and working with both in-house and contract guards. Five of the six managers currently manage hybrid departments that are a mixture of in-house and contract security staff departments; the sixth security manager currently managed contract staff only. These managers have amassed extensive security experience across Canada.
The four participants from the contract guard industry hold numerous responsibilities. Two interviewees were involved in human resource-related activities including recruiting, interviewing, hiring, retention, training, and termination of security staff as well as strategic organizational development. The other two were part of senior management teams responsible for managing and directing contract operations, interacting with clients, submitting Request for Proposals (RFP), supervision of training, and general day-to-day company operations. The four participants had an average of 8 ¼ years working in the contract guard industry. Their education qualifications included three degrees related to personnel management and adult learning. These participants have considerable experience in the security industry across Western Canada.

Preparedness of ABST graduates for their security guarding roles

This first theme evaluated the ABST on its effectiveness in preparing students for work as a security guard. In evaluating the data, two sub-themes emerged. The first focused on the program’s strengths and weaknesses, including the content and the flexibility of the program in allowing trainers to deliver it and the second was on interviewee’s level of satisfaction with the program meeting industry needs.

Program strengths and weaknesses

The strength of the program from several interviewees was that the program did prepare guards through a general introduction to the guard industry but its weakness was that it provided limited specific and practical skills in day-to-day security operations. Guards in theory may have known what they were expected to do but the majority of management responses and from some of the guards was that when trainees were first assigned to a site that they were generally ineffective. First, there was too much theory to learn in the 40 hours and second, they were given little time to practice the skills they were exposed to in class such as report writing and patrolling. While report writing, patrolling, emergency response, rule
enforcement and other guard duties are common, guards need to learn more than just the theory of these topics. Unfortunately they were not provided with the opportunity in class to practice specific skills. While it is unrealistic that guards would be expected to know how to work at a specific site upon completion of the ABST, it should be required that they are provided with the basic aforementioned skills as for example report writing and patrol tactics are universal skills.

One instructor stated that the ABST program provides a ‘big picture’ overview of guard duties and is theoretical and definitely prepares guards for work in the industry. Within the trainer group, comments included “I tell them (the students) this is a theory course. Once you get hired on by a company they can teach you what they want”. This is entirely realistic as it would be impossible to teach guards specific site duties. When asked to clarify, he expanded, “I am happy with the program as a whole. It is getting us better quality security professionals”. This was echoed by a second instructor who stated “the ABST creates a uniform baseline for entry and also opened up discussion about standards for both guards and contract companies as well as end-user clients.” However, when asked if the program prepares guards for specific security jobs he stated “absolutely not, that is the duty of the employer to deliver site specific skills and training.” Another trainer stated that the ABST prepares people for work in the industry by providing them with an “introduction to the industry and can help people decide to get into security as a career”. The fourth instructor commented that as an in-house instructor, while the program was not beneficial to her site “it was a very good program if someone does not have a job.” Her concern was that it was “too global” and did not provide specific training for her site. Another strength of the program was its flexibility according to the instructors. One instructor stated, “instructors have the leeway to deliver how they see fit”. He expanded on this theme by saying he learned to “read his students and adjust the time and delivery to meet the specific class needs”. Another said he “has a lot of flexibility in delivering training within each module”. A third instructor said of the delivery “trainers are given a fair amount of leeway. I know I teach the content differently than other instructors. We need this leeway
based on the student make up.” At least one instructor stated the opposite in reference to the delivery flexibility when saying “there is a lack of flexibility in delivering the training content.” Despite these comments, the Province is very clear that all the content must be taught. The leeway is how it is delivered whether it is a complete review of the manual on a page-by-page basis, delivery via Power Point, in-class discussion or through hands on practice.

The remaining three groups had mixed comments on the program. One contract manager said, “it contributes to preparing guards to the point of being trained on the real aspects of the job. I liken this to moving from a tricycle to a bicycle on training wheels.” A second contractor stated, “the material is good but it is a subset of law enforcement instead of customer service focused.” One of the human resource interviewees said of passing the ABST exam “it shows people are capable of training, just like in other education.” One security manager made a general comment that “it is a basic good start with the introducing the theoretical but missing the practical.” He went on to explain that the ABST was a “good first step.” A second manager indicated that the “ABST prepares someone to work at a construction site but that is about it.” A third manager stated that the training program “was a great stepping stone for someone being introduced to the security industry” and that “it gives them the basic knowledge of the functions of a security guard.” In effect, these comments support those made by the trainers, which is that the ABST provides an introduction to the guard industry. Regarding comments from guards there were some positive comments about the training. Two guards stated that they enjoyed learning about the fundamentals of guard force duties however the training was very short on training specific skills. However one interviewee was very specific about what he learned from the training. This included “note taking which was very helpful, conducting patrols, recognition of escalated individuals, and the use-of-force continuum.” His class also spent time on “first aid, bomb searches, first responder duties, slip falls and controlling access.” However, he did say that many of his co-workers upon arrival at a site were ineffective. One guard, satisfied with the program stated: “I think the ABST is
meeting its objective of preparing guards for work but I have dealt with incompetent security officers but I think it was more a maturity issue than the training.”

Interviewee satisfaction with the program

There are mixed messages from the interviewees regarding program satisfaction. 18 interviewees stated that the ABST program does not prepare security guards for work in the industry. 8 of the 10 guard interviewees stated that the ABST program did not adequately prepare them for security guard work. This is an important finding that this many people who received the training found it lacking. 5 guards provided a firm “no” when asked about its preparatory nature; another guard rated its effectiveness at 10% and 2 said it prepared them to approximately 65 and 70%. 1 of these 2 guards stated: “it was good fundamentals but left a lot of room for the employee to pick up site specific training.” He observed that “a lot of guards showed up on site completely out of their depth, particularly with hands on patient control and physical restraints and issues of assault or self-harm.” The guard stating 70% preparation said, “the theoretical part was good but the training was lacking in practical applications as there were no real life situations.” 1 guard stated that his training consisted of a couple of videos and the class working their way through the manual page by page. We went out once on a practice patrol and the trainer pointed out what to look for.” His job preparation was inadequate as “I was not prepared at all. I was provided with the basics but no specific job duties.” while another interviewee could not answer the question as she said that she had already been working in the industry for three years when she first took the course. She did mention, however, that it was an excellent refresher course. This interviewee stated that the training made it easier for her to do her job and it was “familiar and a refresher.” This positive comment was one of a few in favour of the training. One interviewee who is now a supervisor stated that the ABST was “inadequate, incomplete, in dire need of a real work over and actual focus on real-world skills.” Another interviewee, now a supervisor said that after taking the training “he was not prepared whatsoever.” He said of his training experience, “the
delivery and quality of the material were not there. The study guide was there to help me pass the exam but I did not feel I received any preparation to do the actual job.” 1 guard when asked if the ABST was doing what it was intended to do which is prepare guards for work said “it is more successful than unsuccessful but it is very much dependent upon the quality of the individual”. While he thought this was a “great job for new Canadians, these new Canadians are often lacking in language and educational skills.”

When interviewing the six managers, one said that she believed guards were prepared while the remaining five said the opposite. The manager who believed the ABST was proper preparation mentioned that the ABST “was a great place to start and that we needed this for a long time in the industry.” General comments from this group included “I don't think it serves a purpose as each guard has to be trained at the site anyway,” “the ABST does not do what it was meant to do. The material is too basic and students are not retaining the content beyond the exam,” and “The ABST is a waste of time.” “It's a cash grab” and “guards have no understanding and cannot perform basic tasks related to the ABST such as carrying and completing a notebook.” When asked to share his thoughts on the ABST being delivered effectively in 40 hours one manager said “I don't think it serves a purpose. Each guard has to be trained by the site.” This point was echoed on numerous occasions within 3 of the 4 groups interviewed as they expected guards to arrive to be prepared to work. However, as discussed the disconnect potentially lies between general and specific training. There was a considerable amount of frustration expressed by the managers. All had sophisticated sites within downtown Calgary with large security departments with a combination of multiple physical security measures and demanding clientele requiring smooth-flowing operations. It is interesting to note that despite the complex nature of the sites, all the managers did not place unrealistic expectations of their newly arrived staff. New guards were generally given 24–48 hours of onsite training and were assigned limited duties. Even with the limited tasks required, one manager estimated that 10% of the new guards assigned to the site were not capable of
completing basic tasks including access control and basic emergency response. One security manager said he knew the site could be overwhelming and therefore provided one-on-one training for a period of 48 hours with an experienced guard assigned to the trainee. He said he had “zero expectations of them when they first show up.” All he requires is that the guard look presentable and professional and “be trainable.” He also stated that while the training program provided a good introduction to the industry what was missing “was the ability to communicate, read and write and documentation from a practical perspective. Also missing are investigative techniques along with report writing because if there is a slip and fall the guards do not know how to do a basic investigation.” He also expressed frustration that “their basic English is not good.” His final comment was “I have no faith that they know anything.” A third manager stated: “I think there is a lot of time and effort wasted on material that is not relevant to front line security”. He also stated that there was no effort to build soft leadership skills of the guards.” He stated: “the ABST does not prepare guards unless maybe it is a construction site.” A fourth manager when asked about the impact of the ABST program said: “No, I don't think it makes a difference. We have licensed guards having issues with ESL (English as a Second Language) and we are struggling to motivate them”. He went on to state that in his opinion the ABST made no difference to their preparedness to do the job. He also said that at his site, they send away at least half of the contract guards that show up on the site because they “lack competency” to do the job.” The fifth manager thought the ABST training did not teach the guards what they needed to know. “It teaches them theory but no experience. They don’t know how to write a report or conduct patrols”. He summed up his concerns with “they (the guards) do not know how to do their jobs.” Only one manager of the six thought the ABST was doing an effective job. She commented that the program “was a great stepping stone for someone being introduced to the security industry.” As indicated five of the six manages interviewed had strong feelings supporting the contention that the training program was inadequate. Given their experiences in managing ABST trained guards, their comments bear significant weight.
All four contract security providers stated that the program was insufficient in meeting their company needs. This again is an important consideration. These people came into direct contact with trained guards and they were not impressed. There were three firm “no’s” and one “it prepares them about 20%” when asked about the program’s effectiveness. Comments regarding the provincial training program included “it’s a complete waste of time” and “its only effectiveness was that it saved my company from conducting criminal background checks.” One interviewee stated that “this program was created to allow as many people as possible into the industry but it is more about government covering their butts” as regardless of the training provided all his guards required additional training “on everything.” One senior contract manager stated that “the guards cannot articulate their duties and they are taught to simply pass the course. It is unfair and unsafe.” Another stated, “I have met licensees who cannot even tie their own shoes”. While this is obviously an exaggeration, it no doubt expresses the frustration that she has in dealing with people who have been approved by the government to work in the security industry. She went onto to express the following “I think the ABST is good in theory but I have concerns about how it is being delivered.” She summed up her feelings regarding the program with “for me, the ABST is nothing but an indicator that you are interested in a career in security.” One interviewee summed up his thoughts on the program with this statement “I would stop short of saying it is a good program. It needs tweaking and that tweaking should involve people who work in the industry.”

One of the weaknesses of the program brought forward in the interviews was the challenge with guards unable to communicate effectively in English. One contract provider stated in frustration “despite the training, the biggest complaint is that the guards cannot speak and write English. How is that possible?” Another interviewee said, “I think the content has been made too easy for people with ESL to pass.” Another contract management interviewee mentioned that her company held a hiring fair, and of the 59 applicants with their ABST, 9–11 of them failed the English proficiency exam, which consisted of 15 or 16 questions and one written scenario.
She stated: “some people with the ABST have very poor English. Our company has an English equivalency exam and many (licensed guards) fail it despite having the ABST.”

Guards expressed the same frustration. One interviewee said: “the ABST was engineered for ESL students to pass.” Whether this is true or not, the problem is the perception that the ABST, at least to many of the interviewees, is not working. What is true is that several guards and supervisors have expressed frustration about the lack of English communication skills. One interviewee who supervised several guards expressed his frustration that guards were lacking such basic English skills that he could not communicate with them either through verbal or written commands and that he had “use a physical form of training by taking them to the locations” where he needed duties carried out and demonstrate what he wanted done. He went on to explain that in his opinion these guards are simply “taught to say yes.” In addition, “radio communication is very difficult” because of the language barrier. Another guard commented on the situation thus, “some of my co-workers cannot speak English. I wonder how some of them passed the course.” She went onto to explain that these guards had to be taught communication skills to deal with the public. Another guard commenting on his training said: “it was pretty unsophisticated training material. It was engineered for ESL students by the way I was able to get through it.” He expanded on the content by saying, “there was no complex problems presented that you would encounter in real life.” Other guards indicated that when they were in class, fellow students could not follow the material and the instructor spent precious time they did not have teaching basic English skills. One guard said that while the course delivery was excellent he recognized that “ESL was an issue and they had some language barrier issues.” Another student said that the lack of English was a “major issue in class” and that “an English proficiency course should be passed in order for people to take the ABST”. During their ABST training, guards frequently indicated that other students had a great deal of difficulty in understanding the training material and they were frustrated that the instructor had to spend as much time as they did
communicating training concepts. Interestingly enough none of the trainers interviewed identified any language barriers specifically but most mentioned the need to be flexible to meet the needs of the class.

This was a common comment with some security managers as well. One manager, when asked how to improve the course said, “add English proficiency to the criteria to enroll in the course.” Another manager said they had issues with guards showing up ‘having issues with ESL”. Another manager expressed his frustration regarding English shortcomings with the following statement, “there is supposed to be a language proficiency to get their license and there are several (contract guards) who do not meet that criteria. In my opinion, 75 – 80% do not have the appropriate language skills. The could not make a fire alarm announcement if asked and also has a spill over effect on their report writing skills.” While one manager said in reference to the issue of language that she “has not seen anyone pass the exam who lacked English proficiency” one of the most reoccurring questions asked by the interviewees was summed up with the question “how is it possible that someone who cannot even communicate in English can pass the exam?”

It must be noted that at least one Alberta academic institution, Columbia College, in their participant application form for the ABST, stipulates that students must affirm they have achieved a Canadian Language Benchmark of 5+ (Columbia College, n.d., p. 1). Alberta regulations require a benchmark of 5 (Alberta Justice and Solicitor General, 2015, p. 19). The Canadian Language Benchmark is a “descriptive scale of language ability in English as a second language written as 12 benchmarks on a continuum from basic to advanced” (Hajer & Kasker, 2012, p. v). The benchmarks and ability level of 5 through 8 range from initial, developing, adequate, and fluent and is defined as having “intermediate language ability and (the ability to) interpret and create moderately complex communication in moderately demanding contexts of the four competency areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing” (ibid, p. XI).
ABST trainer qualifications

The second major theme to emerge from the interviews focuses on trainer qualifications. In Alberta, ABST trainer qualifications must include experience in the security services and/or investigations industries, experience as a trainer/instructor, and a training or teaching certification from a recognized institution or program; for example, train the trainer certificates, effective facilitation programs, adult education certificates, or education degrees. Experience as a police or military trainer or as an approved trainer for provincial security training programs in British Columbia, Ontario, Saskatchewan and Manitoba (SSIA, 2014, p. 1) can also qualify as ABST trainers.

Trainer qualifications

The issue of trainer qualifications came up on several occasions with three of the groups. The only group to not comment upon trainer qualifications was the contract management interviewees.

Two ABST trainers believed that the trainer-vetting program was inconsistent. One trainer stated that he would like to “ensure that ABST trainers need demonstrated competence as the current vetting is insufficient.” One trainer believes the poor quality of some training is “the fault is how some instructors are delivering the material” and that “they are not properly vetted and don’t have the background or experience to deliver the ABST.” Another trainer comment was that “there should be a standardization or qualifications for ABST instructors. There are presenters and instructors” suggesting a difference in their quality.

One manager was frustrated that when he took the ABST course his “trainer did not know the difference between a door contact and a card reader” suggesting a lack of practical security experience. A guard commented that if he could change anything about his training he would “change it so that a security trainer with actual experience is delivering material.” One supervisor indicated that his trainer, a
former police officer, told a lot of “cop stories” that were entertaining at the time, but in hindsight his training was “completely useless.” Another guard, when asked how to improve his training course, said he wished they would have brought in a guest speaker who “had actual security experience to discuss real-life scenarios.” Another security manager suggested that, “all trainers need to be given practical training and make sure that ABST trainer qualifications include security experience.”

While the province does have standards for instructors this comment suggests these standards need to be increased. Putting the importance of trainers into perspective, one guard succinctly stated, “the quality of the program is based on the skills of the trainer.” This was reinforced by a second guard who said, “I think the classroom is good but it all depends upon how the content is being delivered”. She went on to say that it “also depended upon the quality of the trainer.”

The training content requires updating

The third theme to emerge focused on the content of the ABST. The first sub-theme focusing on opportunities to improve it were identified. This included consideration as to whether there was too much or too little content. The second sub-theme involved comments on the value of the online training program.

Opportunities to improve the program

Related to the issue of whether the current program prepares people to work in the industry the response by the trainers can be characterized as “yes, but it could be improved”. The breakdown of the responses was interesting in that all four trainers said that the program does prepare people for work in the industry; however, their responses were far from a solid “yes.” Each qualified their answers with such statements as “the program requires updating,” “the program should be delivered with more hours” ranging from 20 to 40, “there should be another level of
mandatory training included,” “pre-reading and pre-online training should be added to the program,” and “the ABST was better than nothing.” One trainer’s perception was “the ABST gives students the theory of what is required of a security guard and it is up to the company to provide site specific and job specific training.” Interestingly, he later commented, “the ABST is not doing what it was set out to do. There is a tremendous amount of knowledge that the students are expected to learn” and the course should double in length. He said that practical training was missing. An instructor said that while the current program was good but “it needs to be updated and that the province needs to listen to qualified instructors.” He thought that very module requires updating. Another trainer stated, “there is too much information for a guard to know to safely work within the industry to be delivered in a 40 hour course.” He went on to suggest one of the problems lay with the government (of Alberta) who said, “the training does prepare guards and so employers may not provide their own training or provide site specific training.” While it would be expected that the government stand behind their program, it is also true that they should say that additional training is also required.

There was a common theme from many of the guards interviewed. One guard said there “was no practice time.” He added that he would like to see “practical time spent on patrolling, personal safety, report writing and note taking.” He also expressed a desire to see the “another 24 – 40 hours of training, though the current time of 40 hours is not bad.” Another guard said that was lacking was “practical applications and no real life scenarios.” He said there was “too much information” to learn in the time allotted. He also said, “the ABST would benefit from a thorough vetting by security practitioners.” One interviewee, now a supervisor stated that he would change “how the material is being delivered. They should focus on day-to-day operations and add more practical elements and dealing with real life scenarios such as active shooter, arresting people or dealing with someone with a gun.” Another guard simply stated about the ABST: “there was too much information and no opportunity to practice.” This sentiment was again reinforced by another interviewee who said of his classroom experience, “in
addition to Power Point, the instructor also wrote on a white board and the students underlined the material in the student manual. There was no practice at all. There was some class discussion and lots of lecture.” In response to a question about improving the program he commented, “I would like to see less content, more practical active learning, more site training and a practicum set up”. He expressed the sentiment that 40 hours was not enough and 80 hours would be better, in fact 80 hours theory and 80 hours theory”. One interviewee stated that he though the “ABST was based on the assumption that private industry will make up the difference which is often not the case.” This gap that this guard and others have talked about between ABST training and additional training to be provided by the private sector is common issue. Site-specific training should be, and is, provided, particularly in some complex settings such as the hospital environment, commercial real estate and government sites.

The changes requested included minor redesign, including updating the table of contents with page numbers and numbering all pages in sequential order instead of numbering the pages in each module only.

The chief complaint of the content was in regards to the vagueness of the material. One guard said: “the theory of what I learned was not specific enough”. What she said that she really needed was to “add practical training with scenarios.” She said the training provided her “with a good idea of the general duties.” A second guard said of her experience after completing the training that “she felt comfortable until I got to the assignment where I felt unprepared”. She expanded by saying that “the issue was the lack of training on dealing with a situation on my own. When I was in training I always had a partner.” A third interviewee said that she benefited from her training but she had already worked in the industry for three years. She did state however that she wished she would have received “more practical training on access control, more administrative / operational training on policy and procedure.”
Value of the online training program

The second sub-theme raised about content revolved around the effectiveness of the online training program. One instructor thought it brought value by it adding a pre-reading assignment component. The remaining three instructors did not have any experience with online learning. However one instructor stated that he thought the “whole thing (ABST program) needs to be reviewed and updated.” However he also added that the current program “gives them (the guards) the theory and knowledge of what is required to do the job as it provides foundational knowledge.” With the guards, five had no experience with ABST online training. Two guards believed it should be eliminated, as they both learned nothing of value in it. One guard said that after taking the online course that he “was a blank slate with no preparation.” This particular guard said he completed the 40-hour course in eight hours. Another guard when asked to improve the online course said he eliminate it and “make it mandatory for students to attend class. The online course offers no opportunity to develop practical skills. They are just teaching people to pass the course.” Two contract management employees thought also that the online training should be eliminated. One of them “took the 40-hour course in 16 hours”. What was missing, in his opinion, was the “why” around guards carrying out their duties. The second management employee’s issue with the online learning was that it was delivered in a passive learning environment and that it did not prepare guards for work. One guard said they “really enjoyed the online learning experience” and thought it should be retained. Only one of six managers thought the online training should be eliminated. The others said the online training was not an issue for them.

The 40-hour course delivery time

The fourth theme revolved around the issue of course delivery time. Given its current 40 hours, sub-themes came up of students having enough class time to practice the skills they learned in class, whether the 40 hours is enough, and if not, how many hours would be reasonable to add.
Course delivery time

When comparing the ABST to other programs with similar content, particularly in Canada, the 40 hours is reasonable and is fact has been recognized by the Government of Alberta as the de facto standard for security guard training in Canada given the Agreement on Internal Trade requirements (Alberta Solicitor General and Public Security, 2009, p. 20). Other Canadian provincial security training standards include the Manitoba Security Guard Training Program with its minimum 40-hour delivery time that was created by two adult learning professionals with input from several security practitioners (Pinnell & Reid, n.d. pp. iii/iv). One can assume, given the education and experience of the writers, both with Bachelor of Education degrees, that 40 hours is an appropriate time to learn the content; although this is, of course, dependent on the quality of the trainer as well as the abilities, interest and experience of the students. The authors of the Manitoba document even go so far as to state, “professional trainers have the experience to help this material come to life and provide you with valuable examples from the security industry” (p. ii). Their comments, focusing on both the professional qualities required to deliver training to adult learners and on those with security experience, underscore the value of proper vetting of trainers. The Justice Institute of British Columbia created the British Columbia Basic Security Training program, also a 40-hour program. Given that an academic institution created the training manual, the assumption is that 40 hours is an adequate timeframe to complete the program. The ABST itself was the product of an “Educational Enhancement Team” from Lethbridge College who had input from one subject matter expert. The actual course content was required to be in alignment with similar security guard training programs in Canada as per the Agreement on Internal Trade. As a minimum, the ABST was required to include legal matters related to conducting arrests, use of force, charter of rights, testifying in court, evidence collection, and conflict resolution (Alberta. Alberta Solicitor General and Public Security, 2009, p. 20).
Despite the belief held by content creators and government officials on the adequacy of 40 hours being sufficient, in the case of the ABST, 19 of 24 interviewees said that 40 hours was not enough time to learn the content. This topic was discussed extensively in the section on how to improve the program.

To be fair to the province, the blame is not all directed at the ABST as one guard said that “the current course is good, I loved it but sometimes companies don’t do what is detailed in the training program. They lack policies and procedures and they are not doing security properly.” Another guard, happy with the training said that he thought the 40 hours of training was “excessive but I did not mind it as I think it important that people take the training before they do the job.”

When asked how much more time was necessary, answers ranged from 10 to 120 hours, with the average additional time being 20–40 hours. Of the guard contingent, the one group at the receiving end of the training program, 8 of 10 stated that they were not given any opportunity to practice, beyond a very limited time of just a few hours out of 40, the skills they were exposed to. 3 of the 4 trainers and all 6 security managers also thought that students required more time to practice their skills. It is interesting to note that only 1 of the 4 instructors thought they had the flexibility to give students time to practice their skills. This trainer said he spent approximately 35% of the 40 hours in the field providing skills development time including conducting patrols, learning traffic control, and writing reports. The remaining 3 instructors identified class discussion and group work as active learning opportunities, although they did provide limited opportunity to practice writing reports.

There is no law stating that more than 40 hours cannot be used to convey the material. However, the likelihood of trainers instituting additional training is low. Only one trainer indicated that more time was used to get through the material, but this was a unique training environment where the employer had mandated a six-week training period.
The guard licensing process time

Licensing process comments emerged as a fifth and final theme with two sub-themes. The first was the background investigation process and the time this takes dependent on the jurisdiction within Alberta. The second sub-theme was the Alberta provincial licensing granting process for new and existing licence holders.

The background investigation process

The background check for anyone living in Calgary and dealing with the Calgary Police Service is as follows. The applicant can go either attend the office in person or go online to a web portal to the ePIC (electronic Police Information Check) and initiate the process. This process includes submission of the appropriate personal identification, answering police information requests and consent forms. The applicant, if successful in submitting all the information then awaits their results. Otherwise they will have to attend a police station for a face-to-face appointment (Calgary Police Service, 2017). The Calgary Police Service states that their license processing takes approximately 2 – 3 weeks as they are processing 200 – 300 applicants every day (Maureen, personal correspondence, August 30, 2017). The processing time as stated is if everything is seamless. If not, an applicant will receive an attend letter to come to the main police campus for a follow up meeting to clarify any concerns the check may have created. If an applicant resides within a small city or town in the province, the criminal background check will take three days or less (RCMP, 2017). Once this information is obtained it is then submitted along with the security license application to the licensing unit.

According to one contract management interviewee, the background investigation process can be a “nightmare” for her company. It is “very cumbersome”. Ideally a guard applicant will attend the company with their license in hand. They can be put to work upon immediate processing of their application but this is often not the case. If the employee requires training and licensing they attend the company training program with its ABST equivalent program. In addition the background
investigation process is started. “In Calgary, it takes 4 – 6 weeks to this get this done.” If the person resides outside of Calgary “it can be done in a single day”.

The provincial licensing process

Adding this potential delay to the licensing period within the Solicitor General’s office, which currently sits at 6-8 weeks, the time from a student completing their training to receiving their licence is eight weeks at a minimum and 14 weeks at a maximum. Contract guard management interviewees stated that this had a major impact on their operations with one person stating her company loses up to “30% of their applicants due to this process”. Many of them simply cannot afford to go that long without work.

Comments from interviewees included this from one guard, “It took me about six weeks to get my license once I completed the exam. It took me two months to get my license renewed. I was off site waiting for a week for me to get my new license. I did not work and did not get paid. People are now being asked to start applying three months before the expiration of their license.” Another guard said that when she first got her license “in 2011 within about two weeks of completing the ABST. The current process is way too long. People cannot work without the license and so they have to find other ways of making money. People are getting other jobs as they cannot wait.” A third guard commented that it took “four weeks to get his background check just from the police then the Sol Gen’s office misplaced by paperwork. In all it took eight weeks to get my license. In comparison, it took less time to get my EMT license. The irony is that there is far more responsibility as an EMT.” One guard did say that when he applied for his license he “got it in a couple of weeks.” One supervisor with experience in managing several guards going through the licensing process said “I got my license at the time fairly quickly but if I had to do it now, I would have to get another job as three or four months is a long time to wait.”
Discussion

The interview phase of this research generated a range of interesting findings on stakeholder perspectives of the ABST. The first theme discussed focuses directly upon the stated goal of the ABST, which is that it prepares guards for work in the security industry. The trainers stated that the purpose of the ABST was to provide general training to guards and that the ABST fulfilled these objectives. The majority of those in the remaining groups, by contrast, expressed the opinion that the ABST was failing as it did not provide specific skills to guards.

An analysis of the ABST however makes it very clear that there are a number of specific skills requiring development. These include report writing, conflict de-escalation, managing security systems, responding to emergencies, and conducting patrols. It would appear that based on the interviews that the trainers justifiably believe they are delivering what they have been asked to provide which is to provide a general overview of security duties. Opposing this is the belief held by the majority of the guards and managers and all the contract guard management personnel is that guards were not provided with specific and practical skills to do their jobs. While the ABST does call for specific skills development there is likely too much material and not enough time to practice specific skills including report writing, patrolling, emergency response and communication skills. It may be that some of the trainers fail to appreciate that specific skills are course outcomes and the training needs to be modified to reflect this. This is a potential area where the Solicitor General’s office can develop enhanced training material to assist its accredited trainers in meeting the course objectives.

One outcome was that the ten guards interviewed supported the aggregated common guard duties as found in the literature in researcher, security industry and government documents in Table 2.1 (p. 32). The interviewees stated that their activities included patrolling (7), access control (7), report writing (7), customer assistance (6), responding to emergencies (5), protection of patients (2), responding to suspicious behaviour (1), responding to alarms (1), providing a
physical presence (1) and controlling keys (1). Their reported activities was in line with the duties described by all three groups and detailed in table 2.1 on page 32 and in column 1 of table 4.2 on page 97. A comparison between the common guard duties in the existing literature and the results of the security guard interviews are consistent.

One of the areas identified as a source of frustration in the interviews was in the area of English language fluency. Based on the experiences of many of the interviewees the issue of guards obtaining their ABST with poor English skills has ramifications beyond simple commands. Their inability to write reports, conduct basic investigations, control access onto the site, interact with customers and other site users, provide information, respond to emergencies, conduct arrests and articulate their reasons for doing so, testify in court, and obtain further training has serious ramifications for the professionalization of the industry as a whole and detrimental to specific guards.

This point of frustration opens up the ABST program to criticism by those taking the training, those delivering it, and those managing staff with language difficulties. It can also be assumed that if these people are frustrated, it is likely that the public is as well when dealing with these uncommunicative guards. Considering that language fluency can be quite noticeable and have serious ramifications, particularly in emergency situations for the public, this is an area that requires attention. While it is recognized that educators and employers are at the mercy of the availability of qualified applicants, the ramifications of poor communication skills needs to be addressed. If trainers are spending time teaching basic English skills to students instead of teaching them security concepts, the outcome is reduced training for all students in class. Once hired, those lacking communication skills, while qualified according to the Province of Alberta, will impact everything from enforcing rules and regulations, following standard operating procedures, writing reports, conducting investigations, and more importantly, communicating during emergencies with possible life and death consequences.
Those four interviewees representing three different contract providers stated that they spent a considerable amount of time on additional training programs for their staff. Their companies provided anywhere from 16 to 60 hours of additional training per employee. This amount of training provided may be standard with the larger and better security providers but as one guard stated, the ABST is based on the assumption that the private sector will provide additional training, which is not always true – some companies provide the mandated training and no more. This can provide an uneven playing field as training costs money for guard and trainer salaries, training materials, and rent for training space, as well as causing scheduling challenges when replacing guards that are attending training. In addition, as discussed in the literature review, training effectiveness is a factor.

The issue of trainer qualifications is an important one. Feedback from trainers and guards alike highlighted the importance of qualified trainers. The question of what makes a qualified trainer is open to debate to some people. The province has decided that experience in other fields makes a person qualified to teach security guards. However, as identified by some of the guards interviewed, in some cases their trainers were lacking in security industry knowledge. However, again the issue is, was the training lacking or was it the fact that the guard had to wait almost three months before working, was the student not all that interested in the first case, or did their lack of English fluency preclude them from truly learning the material. There are too many factors to consider to lay blame at one, some, all or none of them. However this does not change the fact that instructor qualifications require an assessment to determine if the trainers are truly qualified. Security experience should be mandatory as should formal adult learning training.

Updating the training content was an issue brought up by numerous interviewees. When asked what would improve the training program, twelve interviewees suggested adding material on fire alarms, taking statements, note taking, report writing, observation skills, personal safety on patrol, ethics, emergency procedures and response, legal issues, health and safety, professional development, video surveillance, key systems, and access control. It is interesting to note that all but
the last four issues identified were already part of the training program. As these interviewee comments came from all four groups, this anomaly suggests at least two concerns. The first is that the person making the observation was not familiar with the content of the program or second, those who had received this specific training did not remember taking the training.

Based on the feedback on this issue, there is certainly merit in the complaint that the online learning was a passive way to learn the material and hence not an effective method. However, online learning can be as an effective learning tool as in-class; it all depends on the delivery. The current online course consists of downloading the training manual, reading it, and then answering questions.

Given the common complaint by many of those interviewed that 40 hours is simply not enough time to gain familiarity with the material, it is not surprising that other countries have mandated more time for training. There are some comparisons between the ABST and other programs including Australia where its security training material was created by its Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations. The Australian training modules, of which there are more than 30, have all been written by that department (Department of Education, 2012), and the difference is striking. The content, which looks similar to the ABST, has a delivery time measured between 80 and 144 hours, depending upon who is delivering the program. While the training required for security guards in European jurisdictions certainly varies from one end of the spectrum to the other, Button & Stiernstedt (2016, p. 11) have identified the CoESS requirement that guards require a minimum of 120 hours of training to be most efficient.

Comments from the instructors highlight the fact that flexibility is required on their part in delivering material. This is a fair point. There can be considerable differences between one class and the next. There could be 20 students in one class, all with limited or no security experience and with English fluency challenges whereas another class could consist of far fewer students, all with extensive
security experience and high levels of English fluency. It is not necessary to ensure that both classes spend the same amount of time in the classroom.

Another theme to emerge focused on the ABST content. Sub-themes of too much and too little content as well as opportunities to improve it by adding or taking away material were identified, and, comments on the value of the online training program were discussed. When asked what elements would improve the training program, twelve interviewees suggested adding material on fire alarms, taking statements, note taking, report writing, observation skills, personal safety on patrol, ethics, emergency procedures and response, legal issues, health and safety, professional development, video surveillance, key systems, and access control. It is interesting to note that all but the last four issues identified were already part of the training program. As these interviewee comments came from all four groups, this anomaly suggests at least two concerns. The first is that the person making the observation was not familiar with the content of the program. Three of the four contract providers had not taken the ABST and neither had three of the security managers. The second is that the guards were not displaying knowledge of this particular training requirement in their interviews. Given the challenges in retaining the extensive material from the 200-page textbook and that several interviewees had never seen the ABST manual, it is likely that both issues are relevant. The few topics identified included verbal judo, situational awareness, active shooters, and self-defence. An analysis of the table of contents identifies that there are sections on both verbal communication and personal safety & identifying hazards, two topics that if taught properly could assist in conflict resolution and situational awareness. The additional topics of active shooters and self-defence, while they may be worthy, may not be appropriate given the training time that is required to learn self-defence. Also, considering that at this point there is no set response in dealing with active shooters other than to “run, hide or fight,” these topics are beyond the outcomes expressed by both the course designers and the industry as a whole. Response to an armed attacker by an unarmed security guard would in most cases mean the guard should simply leave the area.
The space between learning time and when licenses are granted and guards begin work is an issue, particularly given that it takes anywhere from 8 to 14 weeks to obtain a licence – creating issues of ABST material retention that are affected by this licensing gap. While the specifics of knowledge retention and forgetting are open to debate (Averell & Heathcote, 2010, p. 1; Jaber, Givi, & Neumann, 2013, p. 1), research supports the contention that the longer the time gap between exposure to training material and being able to practice the learned skills, the more challenging it is to retain information. Consequently a wait of 14 weeks has serious ramifications for knowledge retention and job preparedness. One instructor stated that while the ABST “has created an opportunity to elevate security into a profession it has also created barriers and roadblocks due to the administrative burden” of licensing wait times. He advocated for a reduced licensing time.

Given the complexity of the issue of knowledge retention and forgetting, as well this being based on individuals and their abilities, language proficiency, and interest in the job, among other factors, it is not surprising that knowledge retention is a common challenge with this waiting period. Conventional wisdom suggests that if the licensing gap dropped to two, four or six weeks from training to employment that guards would be better prepared to do their duties.

The time it takes to have a background investigation completed is based on the jurisdiction the applicant resides within. Applicant A can walk into small town RCMP police station A and have her fingerprinting completed within minutes, whereas Applicant B, who lives in a different jurisdiction such as Calgary or Edmonton must set up an appointment with the police agency two to four weeks out. This is another complex problem not easily resolved. In Calgary, which has more than 1.2 million residents (Grey, 2016, p. 8), background checks and investigations are going to take longer than in a town of 1,000. While there are more resources within a large police agency, there are also numerous groups requesting police checks including those working in vulnerable sectors, immigrants, security guards, locksmiths, investigators and security consultants.
In summary the research presented in this chapter are foundational issues that have direct bearing on learning retention for students in the ABST program. The quality of the material, the amount of material presented to students in a limited time, the ability of instructors to delivery quality training as well as the wait time between learning and practice are all factors to consider.
Chapter 6: Conclusion
Summary of findings

This research project was conducted to determine if the Alberta Basic Security Training program is providing guards with the skills necessary to work in the security industry. As identified in Chapter 1, four specific research questions were identified at the outset of this inquiry. They were to determine how the ABST compared against government and industry counterparts from a content perspective? The second question was to identify what the duties of security guards according to researchers, governments, and the security industry was. The third question was to seek security practitioners’ opinions of whether the ABST program prepared security guards for entry-level security work. And the fourth was to identify the research implications of the findings, in order to inform the creation and delivery of appropriate content for both government legislators and private-sector program developers. The findings are addressed below.

Analysis of the ABST against the 35 other training programs suggests that the ABST content is in alignment with standard guard duties from around the world. The ABST content was compared from two perspectives – first against security guard duties as identified from the literature review, and second against the 35 training programs. Other findings from the ABST comparison include the fact that Alberta is one of just 9 jurisdictions to freely provide their training material. While there are a total of 45 training themes from the 36 syllabi the ABST has content in 11 of the top 13 themes. It was somewhat disappointing to note that training content was developed in a consensus approach in only 12 of the 36 documents and that Alberta was not one of these 12. However, to its credit, the ABST was one of the 26 of 36 programs requiring an exam. While Canada and the United States leave security guard training to provincial or state authorities, Australia, India, South Africa, and the United Kingdom manage security training at a federal level. There is also no global standardized training program. Finally, in Canada, the de facto training time is just over 40 hours, and Alberta is aligned with this time. It was also refreshing to note that while Alberta has more time mandated than most
American jurisdictions and the UK and equivalent to South Africa it was less than Australia and India.

The second research question to be answered was in regards to the identification of security guard duties. Findings from both the literature review and primary and secondary research showed that there are indeed standard guard duties including access control, report writing, monitoring and responding to alarms, responding to emergencies, enforcing rules, conducting inspections and undertaking physical and electronic patrols and surveillance. These standardized duties were confirmed when analysing the research, government and security industry documents as well as the 36 training syllabi and confirmed in the 24 interviews.

In completing this research, it is safe to say that Alberta is a leader in some areas, firmly in the middle in other areas, and a follower in a few categories. The Alberta Government is commended for creating the ABST when so many jurisdictions have done nothing or simply paid lip service to this issue. It should also be given full credit for the ease in which the ABST material can be accessed. Many jurisdictions have either no or little material posted online and in other jurisdictions, what is posted can be a challenge to understand. While 40 hours of training is not enough to prepare guards for employment, it is aligned with much of the rest of Canada.

The ABST was primarily designed to prepare security guards for employment in the security industry by providing them with the necessary skills, training and experience to complete their duties. This research suggests that the program is not preparing people for security employment due to a lack of practical training opportunities. While the content is sound, the delivery requires improvement. Students are exposed to a considerable amount of material but given little opportunity to practice and develop their skills. Interviewees also said that the licensing program was failing. The suggested reason for its failing is that the licensing process is too long. By the time people are licensed, they likely have forgotten most, if not all, of the training material.
The majority of the participants expressed frustration with the Alberta Basic Security Training program in its current form. Other than 2 security managers who stated the program should be done away with, the remaining 22 interviewees called for a updating of the program. 18 of 24 people felt the ABST did not prepare security guards for work in the industry. In addition, the private sector filling the gap with additional training is only partially successful because some companies are providing this training while others are not. Trainer qualifications were also cause for concern. Trainers, guards, and managers expressed the opinion that the province was not stringent enough in qualifying trainers. Given that the majority of guards felt they themselves were not adequately trained, there is likely some truth to this matter. The content of the ABST was also an area of concern. Content related comments included too much content by eight participants, with twelve expressing a desire for more content. On this note, many thought the program was in dire need of updating, which largely involved the removal of excessive training material. The next theme to emerge from the analysis revolved around the time it takes to learn the material. As there is a direct connection between the amount of content and the ability of the trainer to convey the material, it is not surprising that interviewees wished to see training time added to the program. The last theme to emerge focused on the time it takes to obtain a licence. The 8-to-14-week wait is, according to some interviewees, having an impact on the ability of people to get into the industry; waiting up to 14 weeks causes some to exit the hiring process. In addition, from a learning and knowledge retention perspective, 14 weeks from exam to work may have a significant impact on guards’ ability to carry out their duties. This may explain why many of those interviewed believed that the ABST was failing to prepare guards.

The conclusion of this research is that the ABST has a strong content basis. The material is sound for the most part and it is detailed. In fact, the problem is not that the material is poor, it is that there is too much, particularly in light of the amount of hours required to deliver it in. Instead, the problem is the delivery and the licence processing time. The training material is often delivered in a passive learning
environment and then it takes anywhere from 8 to 14 weeks to obtain a license. Most employees, especially if they do not periodically re-read the material nor are given the opportunity to practice the material in the extended time necessary to obtain their licence, will forget the material. Upon arrival at their first post, it is the same as if they had never taken the training at all.

Implications of research findings

There are a number of implications stemming from this research. The first implication is knowledge retention and the potential 14-week wait time to obtain a licence. Given the complexity of the issue of knowledge retention, as well the fact that this knowledge retention is based on the individual and their abilities, language proficiency, and interest in the job, the stress of waiting for the license and potential lack of income, among other factors, it makes sense that retaining the ABST knowledge is a common challenge. Forgetting the material in that gap also supports the contention of many interviewees that the ABST program is inefficient.

Other areas of guard training that would benefit from additional research are the effectiveness of specific training programs on the ability of guards to perform their duties, a determination of which specific training would be most effective, the impact of legislation on mandatory training in a variety of regional contexts, and what delivery methods are the most efficient in these courses.

Having law enforcement involved in training and/or supervision of the security industry could lead to barriers against improvement of security, which has been seen in other jurisdictions. Closely related to this issue is the suggestion that anyone wanting to work in the security industry – even those with a law enforcement background – should be required to take security-specific training commensurate to their positions. Equivalencies from all other industries including law enforcement, military, and intelligence agencies should be denied. This will assist in ending the attitude that security training and experience is not necessary if
one comes from a related discipline. Finally, to ensure that training programs are being properly created, there should be an assessment of the particular duties to be undertaken by guards in specific applications. While this research has determined general security guard duties, it has not delved into specific applications such as commercial high-rise offices, shopping malls, airports, nuclear facilities, or other sites with complex security needs.

Guard perceptions of any training they have received is of vital importance and should be a key part of any research taken into guard training and its effectiveness. As evidenced by a considerable proportion of adult learning research, evaluations of training programs should be always be undertaken. The question asked of all trainees should be whether the training they have completed was of value and will improve their effectiveness.

Legislation alone is not a sign that guards are better trained or that their qualifications have improved. A considerable amount of research has been conducted on the effects of legislation, and the implications are that one should never assume that because training has been legislated, guards become better trained. This has been shown elsewhere in the world and it has certainly been shown in Alberta that guards are often not prepared despite mandated training.

Finally, the implications of the research findings reinforce the view from many of the interviewees that scenario-based training and opportunities for hands-on practice for skill development are a must. Trainers should consider whether scenarios and hands-on training can be provided.

Some of these findings suggest we are setting up these guards for failure. Their duties are complex and require extensive training in order to bring them up to a level of competence commensurate with their expected responsibilities.
Key Recommendations

There are eleven key recommendations to be considered.

The first recommendation is to reduce the content of the ABST material to that of basic identified guard duties as detailed in Table 4.2. Based on the research undertaken in this thesis as well as input from other researchers and industry experts, the key duties that security guards are responsible should form the ABST content and guards should be provided training on these duties only. As identified in Table 2.1 the most common security guard duties are to:

- Conduct surveillance;
- Control access;
- Conduct and report on investigations;
- Enforce rules;
- Respond to emergencies; and
- Provide customer service.

When comparing this list against the ABST manual, there is already a considerable amount of overlap between the list above and the manual. One potential approach is detailed in Appendix 12 and should be given consideration.

The second recommendation is to request the involvement of adult learning professionals in updating the training material. In some cases, students are trained in a passive learning environment where they sit in class for 40 hours working through hundreds of power point slides. The Solicitor General's office should request subject matter experts from Alberta Education to assist in creating active learning training material for instructors to use in their delivery. As part of the involvement with adult learning professionals, improving and ensuring learning outcomes of the training material are met. This is where getting subject matter experts from adult learning involved in the ABST will provide valuable input. This would also allow for a variety of delivery methods to be incorporated into the program as well as migrating from instructor- to learner-centric approaches. Alberta
Education may also be able to assess the current ABST trainer qualification program to determine if increased trainer qualifications are in order.

Recommendation three is to add a mandatory practical element to the training program to allow students time to practice the material in class. As detailed in recommendation #2, reducing the training content to its essentials will provide more time for students to practice key skills in class. Currently, Ontario provides a detailed breakdown of time to be spent on specific subjects. In addition, it specifies in-class and out-of-class reading time to be spent on specific material. While one cannot force a student to read material out the classroom, developing a training program based on homework has merit. While the material will be covered in class, requiring students to be prepared upon arrival in the classroom should provide additional time for students to practice skills development in the classroom. Based on feedback from participants, particularly guards, and taking into account the limited research on specific training, which includes the work of Teague et al., scenario-based training is recommended for the ABST. Creating real-life scenarios and teaching the appropriate responses would greatly benefit ABST students. Given how often practical training was identified as a form of improvement for the program and how often those guards interviewed suggested it scenarios would likely benefit students specifically and the industry generally. This training would also meet the criteria for active training, particularly if students are given the opportunity to monitor and practice the real-life situations.

Recommendation four focuses on striking a committee of security industry experts to elicit feedback on improving the content. The original content was created first by identifying commonalities in security training programs from across Canada with the intent of meeting AIT requirements. The second source was a single subject matter expert. While this may have been acceptable to initiate the program, the province is now facing credibility issues from industry practitioners due to the training program shortcomings as well as the frustrations that the security industry is experiencing in licensing times and a lack of guard preparedness. One of the
best actions that can be taken is to ask industry experts for their input, and doing so will also allow the province to improve its public relations. Given that the province struck a Member of Legislative (MLA) committee to seek security industry end-user input over several years to improve the industry this should not be a challenge. Involving security industry end users will likely improve perceptions of the effectiveness of the program as well as suggest improvements to the program.

The fifth recommendation focuses on evaluating the effectiveness of the online training option for students and consider eliminating it. Feedback from several students, managers, and contract providers identified weaknesses in the online component and cast doubt on its effectiveness. However, as stated previously, online learning can be an effective method of delivering training. Given the growth in online learning, high-quality training material can be created, although developing quality material is both expensive and time consuming. This is a case of “if something is worth doing, it is worth doing right.” This is another opportunity for adult learning specialists to provide input into the development of quality training content.

The sixth recommendation is to eliminate redundancy of the material by making content changes including updating the table of contents, providing proper page numbering, eliminating the duplication of use of force in both Modules 2 and 3, and eliminating Module 7, which focuses on occupational health and safety. Given that all organizations in the province are required to train their employees on OH&S, exposure to this content is redundant. In the case of contract guards, both their employer and clients will have an OH&S program. This is a double redundancy for the guards. Additional technical changes include moving Legislation and Licensing of Security Professionals in Alberta from Module 1 into Module Two: the Canadian Legal System and Security Professionals and finally remove “Interacting with the Media” in Module 3. The standard response in dealing with the media by security guards is that they are not to interact with them and to direct them to a company media representative. There is little point in expanding beyond this.
The seventh recommendation focuses on urging the provincial government to put more resources and personnel into reducing the licensing time; 14 weeks is far too long for an applicant to wait before they can start employment. This waiting time may in fact be a primary barrier against the industry hiring adequate staff to fill the requirements of clients and in-house departments. Some contract providers and in-house security departments have positions that remain vacant for weeks and months. The Solicitor General should also consider seeking input from the security industry on how to reduce licensing wait times. Some contract providers have resources across Canada and may have expertise based on experience with other jurisdictions in improving the effectiveness of the licensing process. Given the jobs going unfilled, one also must question the potential loss of revenue facing the government in the form of lost tax revenue.

The eighth recommendation is to increase English proficiency requirements for applicants. It is in the best interests of all parties to improve the language skills of applicants, and when students are unable to participate fully in class it has a negative impact on all students regardless of their language proficiency. Furthermore, guards with lower language levels are unable to conduct investigations, write reports, assist the public, or respond to emergencies including making emergency broadcast messages. It is a challenge to accept that a benchmark language mastery of 5 (based on the Canadian Language Benchmark from the Ministry of Citizenship and Immigration) is an adequate skill level to successfully complete security guard duties given the complexity of their responsibilities. As there is a strong component of both written and verbal communication skills required ranging on topics such as emergencies, legal issues including writing witness statements, articulating reasons for conducting an arrest, and testifying in court, as well as the operation of numerous types of complex computer equipment, the benchmark of 5 is not enough. It is strongly recommended that the Alberta Solicitor General's office consider increasing the benchmark to 6 or possibly even 7. Many new Canadians are employed in the security industry and this may pose a challenge to those wishing to hire security
guards as strong English levels are not always synonymous with new immigrants. However, this does not mean that just because jobs are hard to fill that an entire industry should downgrade its entrance requirements.

Nine, the government should improve the vetting of ABST trainers to ensure they have a proficient level of security experience, adult learning training, and delivery experience. They should not allow equivalencies. This means that only those who have worked in the security industry for a minimum time (likely 3-5 years) would be allowed to deliver training. This would also mean that trainers would be required to prove their formal training certification(s) in order to provide training. As detailed above, currently trainers are required to have security experience unless they have law enforcement or corrections experience, which is not the same as security work. As discussed elsewhere, one of the barriers to professionalization of the security industry is the influx of people from law enforcement, the military, and intelligence agencies. There is a perception that they bring with them security skills; however, as evidenced by the research, this is often not true. As a result, they often bring with them the misperception that security training is unnecessary. This attitude needs to be eliminated by requiring all personnel to be trained in security – but trainers in particular must have security industry experience.

Ten, consider creating an industry panel of security practitioners to work with the Solicitor General's Officer to monitor and manage the security guard training and licensing process. Having such a panel would assist in improving the professionalism of the guard industry within the province as well as identify barriers to improvement and licensing issues. This will likely also improve communications between the Solicitor General's office and the security industry. The panel of industry experts could participate in implementing many of the previously identified recommendations. The province has numerous boards involved in a great number of issues that affect Albertans so creating a security industry board is appropriate.
The eleventh and final recommendation is to consider increasing the training time but only after the previous ten recommendations have been implemented and evaluated for effectiveness. Based on feedback from the Alberta interviewees, 40 hours is not enough time to prepare guards for employment. As previously stated, Button & Stiernstedt (2016, p. 11) argue that 120 hours of training is required for guards to be sufficiently prepared for their wide-ranging roles. As such, tiered training may be an option, which would require the province to create two or even three levels of training. Tier 1 could include only those with how have completed the ABST while Tiers 2 and 3 could include increased levels of training to provide clients with guards with increased skill sets for more complex sites. However, given that Alberta is currently aligned with British Columbia, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario, Quebec and the federal government to meet AIT standards, increasing training times would be problematic. As such, Canada as a whole should consider increasing their guard training time to move into alignment with other global security guard training leaders including Australia (144 hrs), Romania (360 hours), Hungary (320 hours), Sweden (288 hours), Poland (245 hours), Spain (180 hours), Latvia (160 hours) and Belgium (127 hours) (Button & Stiernstedt, 2016, p. 11). Further research is required to determine the appropriate number of training hours and should aim to assess more conclusively the extent to which guards are actually prepared for work (as opposed to ‘feeling’ prepared). Such research could focus on skills testing upon being assigned to a site. Skills include controlling access, conducting basic investigations, report writing, alarm response and patrolling and electronic surveillance can be tested to determine whether guards are prepared for the job site. In addition, research should focus on training quality vs. training quantity to determine if for example if guards are correspondingly better prepared with 360 hours as provided in Romania instead of 127 hours such as in Belgium.

Guard work is mentally challenging, physically dangerous, monotonous and technically complex, requiring a wide variety of skills, and the majority of guards are not being provided with proper training to be successful. There is high turnover,
inadequate salaries, often very high expectations, and a general lack of respect for the industry as a whole and for people working as guards. It is highly unlikely that the average member of the public could or would do the job given its challenges. While the Alberta Government has taken strides to enhance guard performance, more needs to be done. I encourage them to work with the security industry and consider these recommendations.
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September 2017


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Appendices

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  Legislation and the Licensing of Security Professionals in Alberta
  Appearance and Conduct for Security Professionals

Module Two: The Canadian Legal System and Security Professionals
  Charter of Rights and the Criminal Code of Canada
  Use of Force
  Additional Legislation

Module Three: Basic Security Procedures
  Observation
  Patrol Skills
  Dealing with Substance Abusers
  Interacting with the Media
  Traffic Control
  Traffic Collision Reports
  Post Orders
  Starting a Shift
  Ending a Shift
  Working with a Partner
  Use of Force Response

Module Four: Communication for Security Professionals
  Verbal and Non-Verbal Communication
  Challenges to Communication
  Communicating with Uncooperative Persons
  Conducting an Interview

Module Five: Documentation and Evidence
  Notebooks
  Statements
  Reports
  Evidence
  Preparing for Court

Module Six: Response Procedures for Security Professionals
  Alarm Systems
  Responding to Alarms
  Emergency Scene Management

Module Seven: Health and Safety for Security Professionals
  Personal Safety
  Identifying Hazards
  Shift Work
Appendix 2: Host organization invitation letters

Date
Addressee
Dear Sir,

RE: Perceptions of the Alberta Basic Security Training program.

I am writing to seek your assistance with a research study as titled above. I am a professional doctorate candidate in the Security Risk Management Program at the University of Portsmouth in the United Kingdom. As part of my degree I am conducting research into the Alberta Basic Security Training (ABST) program. This research entitled: Security Practitioner Perceptions of the Alberta Basic Security Training Program will focus on the perceptions of security guards who have received ABS training to determine if the training they received effectively prepared them for work in the industry. I would like to invite your company to participate in this research study by forwarding this letter onto your ABS trained employees. As I hope to shed light on the effectiveness of ABS training here in Alberta, this research should be of interest to your organization.

I am reaching out to several contract guard companies in Calgary. I am seeking 10 interviewees willing to participate in a face-to-face interview of no more than 60 minutes. I would be grateful if you could circulate copies of the participant invitation letter to individuals who would be eligible for the study. Interviews will be completely anonymous and confidential. The notes from the interview will be hand recorded and no audio recording will be used. Participants will be permitted to withdraw from the research at any time prior to the analysis of the data. Included with this letter are the participant invitation letter and information sheet that explains more about the research and the processes employed.

By way of appreciation, I would be pleased to share a copy of the final research report with you. If you have any specific queries or concerns please contact me or my research supervisor, Dr Alison Wakefield. I would appreciate if you could confirm with me via my email address above if you are able formally to give permission for the research.

Again, I appreciate your consideration of this matter and look forward to hearing from your employees.
Yours sincerely,

Glen Kitteringham
Date

Addressee

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: Perceptions of the Alberta Basic Security Training program.

I am writing to seek your assistance with a research study as titled above. I am a professional doctorate candidate in the Security Risk Management Program at the University of Portsmouth in the United Kingdom. As part of my degree I am conducting research into the Alberta Basic Security Training (ABST) program. This research entitled: Security Practitioner Perceptions of the Alberta Basic Security Training Program will focus on the perceptions of security managers who work with security guards who have received ABS training to determine if the training they received effectively prepared them for work in the industry. I would like to invite your company to participate in this research study by forwarding this letter onto your security managers. As I hope to shed light on the effectiveness of ABS training here in Alberta, this research should be of interest to your organization.

I am reaching out to several property management companies in Calgary. I am seeking six interviewees willing to participate in a face-to-face interview of no more than 60 minutes. I would be grateful if you could circulate copies of the participant invitation letter to your security manager who supervises security staff who have received ABST training. Interviews will be completely anonymous and confidential. The notes from the interview will be hand recorded and no audio recording will be used. Participants will be permitted to withdraw from the research at any time prior to the analysis of the data. Included with this letter are the participant invitation letter and information sheet that explains more about the research and the processes employed.

By way of appreciation, I would be pleased to share a copy of the final research report with you. If you have any specific queries or concerns please contact me or my research supervisor, Dr Alison Wakefield. I would appreciate if you could confirm with me via my email address above if you are able formally to give permission for the research.

Again, I appreciate your consideration of this matter and look forward to hearing from your employees.
Yours sincerely,

Glen Kitteringham
Date

Addressee

Dear Madam,

RE: Perceptions of the Alberta Basic Security Training program.

I am writing to seek your assistance with a research study as titled above. I am a professional doctorate candidate in the Security Risk Management Program at the University of Portsmouth in the United Kingdom. As part of my degree I am conducting research into the Alberta Basic Security Training (ABST) program. This research entitled: Security Practitioner Perceptions of the Alberta Basic Security Training Program will focus on the perceptions of security trainers who deliver the ABST. I would like to invite your institution to participate in this research study by forwarding this letter onto your ABST trainer(s). As I hope to shed light on the effectiveness of ABS training here in Alberta, this research should be of interest to your organization.

I am reaching out to several organizations in Alberta who deliver this training. I am seeking four interviewees willing to participate in either a face-to-face or online interview of no more than 75 minutes. I would be grateful if you could circulate copies of the participant invitation letter to your staff who deliver ABST training. Interviews will be completely anonymous and confidential. The notes from the interview will be hand recorded and no audio recording will be used. Participants will be permitted to withdraw from the research at any time prior to the analysis of the data. Included with this letter are the participant invitation letter and information sheet that explains more about the research and the processes employed.

By way of appreciation, I would be pleased to share a copy of the final research report with you. If you have any specific queries or concerns please contact me or my research supervisor, Dr Alison Wakefield. I would appreciate if you could confirm with me via my email address above if you are able formally to give permission for the research.

Again, I appreciate your consideration of this matter and look forward to hearing from your employees.

Yours sincerely,

Glen Kitteringham
Appendix 3: Host interview information sheet

Study Title: Security Practitioner’s Perceptions of the Alberta Basic Security Training Program

I would like to invite you to take part in this research study. Before you decide I would like you to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Please feel to ask me if there is anything that is not clear.

I am conducting research into the Alberta Basic Security Training (ABST) program by exploring the perceptions of security practitioners who have familiarity with it. This includes security officers, managers and trainers. My goal is to determine if the ABST program effectively prepares security officers for their assigned job placement in the field. I plan on speaking to ten security officers, six security managers and four ABST trainers.

What is the purpose of the study?
My goal is to determine if the ABST program effectively prepares security personnel for their assigned job placement in the field. This research will allow me to complete my professional doctoral program.

Why have I been invited?
Your employer who thought you might be a suitable participant in my research has passed this letter onto you.

Do I have to take part?
It is up to you to decide to join the study that involves an interview with myself. I have several questions regarding your training and first assignment. If you agree to take part, I will ask you to sign a consent form.

What will happen to me if I take part?
The interview will last approximately 60 minutes. Some of the questions will be basic background questions including name, employment and education history, time spent working in the security and your thoughts on the Alberta Basic Security Training program as well as your time spent working in security on site. The research will continue through Fall 2016 and potentially Winter 2017. The process involves an interview that will be recorded. You will not be identified in any of the published material. My research method involves semi-structured interviews.
Expenses and payments
If you agree to participate, I will be happy to meet you at a mutually agreed upon location. There is no reimbursement for your time as this is considered completely voluntary. I am very flexible with my time and am willing to work around your schedule and location in the city.

What will I have to do?
You simply have to call or email me to arrange a mutually convenient time and agree to be interviewed. I have developed a questionnaire schedule with approximately 18 questions.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?
Potential disadvantages include the inconvenience of participation.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?
The possible benefits include improved training and better understanding of the challenges in delivering the Alberta Basic Security Training program.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?
Your involvement will be kept confidential. However if you are directly quoted there is a chance that you may be identified by others. If you join the study, it is possible that some of the data collected will be looked at by authorised persons from the University of Portsmouth. Data may also be looked at by authorised people to check that the study is being carried out correctly. All will have a duty of confidentiality to you as a research participant and we will do our best to meet this duty.

Your confidentiality will be safeguarded during and after the study. This will be done by keeping all collected information in a locked filing cabinet inside a locked office. Electronic information will be stored on a laptop computer which is password protected. I am bound to retain documentation for a period of six years and consent forms for 30 years. Your name will be assigned to an interview document. The information collected will not be retained for use in future studies.

Once the retention period has ended the research material will be destroyed by me.

You as a participant have the right to check the accuracy of data held about yourself and correct any errors.

What will happen if I don’t want to carry on with the study?
If you choose to withdraw from the study, you are free to do so until the time when data is analysed starting February 1, 2017. If you choose to withdraw, please contact me and I will destroy the material personally. Once the interview data have been analysed it might prove impossible to withdraw any individual’s personal contribution.

What if there is a problem?
If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you should ask to speak to the researcher Glen Kitteringham or my supervisor Prof. Alison Wakefield, who will do their best to answer your questions at 403-909-8949 or UP708102@port.ac.uk or Alison.wakefield@port.ac.uk. If you remain unhappy and wish to complain formally, you can do this by contacting Dr. Phil Clements at phil.clements@port.ac.uk. He is the department head.

What will happen to the results of the research study?
The results of the research study will be made available upon approval of the thesis by December 2017. I plan on publishing the results in an academic research journal at this point. If you wish to obtain a copy of the research please contact me. You will not be identified in any report or publication unless you have given your consent.

Who is organising and funding the research?
This research is organized and sponsored by the University of Portsmouth. Amongst other issues, this means that it will provide proper supervision and insurance.

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

Concluding statement
Thank you for taking the time to read the information sheet regardless of your decision to participate or not. If you decide to participate you will be given a copy of the information sheet to keep and your consent will be sought.

Glen Kitteringham
Professional Doctoral Student
University of Portsmouth
Appendix 4: Interview participant invitation sheet

Researcher: Glen Kitteringham
tel. 403-909-8949
e-mail UP708102@myport.ac.uk
Supervisor: Dr Alison Wakefield
alison.wakefield@port.ac.uk
Department Head: Dr Phil Clements
phil.clements@port.ac.uk

Study Title: Security Practitioner’s Perceptions of the Alberta Basic Security Training Program

REC Ref No: 15/16: 54

My name is Glen Kitteringham. I have worked in the security field since 1990. I am a professional doctorate candidate in the Security Risk Management Program at the University of Portsmouth in the United Kingdom. I live and work here in Calgary. I am writing to you in the capacity of a student researcher. I am conducting research into the Alberta Basic Security Training (ABST) program by exploring the perceptions of security practitioners who have familiarity with it. This includes security officers, managers and trainers. My goal is to determine if the ABST program effectively prepares security personnel for their assigned job placement in the field. I would like to invite you to participate in this research study.

Your employer who thought you might be a suitable participant in my research has passed this letter onto you. They have not provided me with your name, address or any personal details. Please be aware that there are no consequences either negative or positive with regard to you participating in this survey. Participation is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw at any point in the process up until the time of data analysis where I will be reviewing your specific responses to the questions I ask. Please note that volunteers will not be paid for their time and efforts. Also note that I will record our conversation however this will be for my access only.

I will be asking everyone similar questions, about their background as well as their perception of the Alberta Basic Security Training program. This is for research purposes only and will be totally confidential. If you are willing to talk to me, your comments will be entirely anonymous.

If you are interested in participating, I would be grateful if you could email me at UP708102@myport.ac.uk or call me at 403-909-8949 to discuss and set up a time for an interview. I have provided a form for your review and signature signing off that you are interesting in proceeding. If you want you can keep a copy which explains that if you change your mind, just contact me at the above email address or phone number and we will note use your information. Please note there is also a contact number for any complaints. I very much appreciate your time in reviewing this letter and the other material provided regardless of whether you decide to participate.

Thanks very much for your attention and looking forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely

Glen Kitteringham
Appendix 5: Interview participant consent form

CONSENT FORM:

Title of Project: Security Practitioner’s Perspective’s of the Alberta Basic Security Training Program

Name and Contact Details of Researcher(s): Glen Kitteringham 1-403-909-8949 or UP708102@myport.ac.uk

Name and Contact Details of Supervisor (if relevant): Prof. Alison Wakefield Supervisor 44(0)23 9284 3942 or Alison.wakefield@port.ac.uk.

Ethics Committee Reference Number: 15/16-54

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet dated 22NOV16 for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time until Feb 1, 2017 without giving any reason.

3. I understand that data collected during this study, could be requested and looked at by regulatory authorities. I give my permission for any authority, with a legal right of access, to view data which might identify me. Any promises of confidentiality provided by the researcher will be respected.

4. (If appropriate) I understand that the results of this study may be published and / or presented at meetings or academic conferences. I give my permission for my anonymous data, which does not identify me, to be disseminated in this way.

5. I agree to the data I contribute being retained for any future research that has been approved by a Research Ethics Committee.

6. I agree to take part in the above study.

7. I consent to verbatim quotes being used in publications; I will not be named but I understand that there is a risk that I could be identified.

Consent Form-Guidance and Template Version 1.0-September 2013 David Carpenter – University Ethics Advisor
Name of Participant:  

Date:  

Signature:  

Name of Person taking Consent:  

Date:  

Signature:  

Note: When completed, one copy to be given to the participant, one copy to be retained in the study.
Appendix 6: Guard interview questions

Security Practitioners’ Perspectives on the Alberta Basic Security Training Program

INTERVIEW GUIDE (Security Guards)

1. Security guard background and training experience
   • By way of background, could you say a bit about your employment and education history before your involvement with the ABS training?
   • Why did you choose to work in security?
   • How much time have you spent in the security industry?

2. How long have you been working since receiving your ABS training?

3. Can you tell me what further training you have had?

4. After the ABS training, how prepared did you feel for your first assignment in the industry?

ABST Training Perspectives

5. How would you describe the delivery of the material in the class you attended?

6. What and where were your primary duties on site?

7. To what extent did your duties as a security guard align with your training?
   • Why or why not?

8. If you could change how the training material was delivered, would you change the emphasis on any of the material? By this, I mean would you spend more, less or the same amount of time on each module? Would you add or take away any content? Would you like to see a practical element added?

9. Do you know what the ABST was set up to accomplish? Do you think the ABST is doing what it was designed to do?
   i. Why or why not?

10. What are your thoughts about other security staff completing their duties in a proper, effective, and efficient manner?

11. Have any co-workers expressed either confidence or stress pertaining to doing their jobs properly?

12. What do you think of the current 40-hour timeframe for training?

13. How comfortable are you in doing your job?

14. If you were asked to comment upon the training program, what would you say?
15. Can you describe the licensing process from when you passed your ABST to when you started work?

16. Is there anything else you would like to add?
Appendix 7: ABST trainer interview questions

1. By way of background, could you say a bit about your employment, training and education history before your involvement with the delivery of the ABST?
   - Why did you choose to work in security?
   - How much time have you spent in the security industry?
   - What has been your involvement in developing security training content?

2. Have you taken the ABST?

3. What is your understanding of a guard’s duties?

4. Have you worked as a security guard?

5. How do you think the ABST program contributes to preparing security guards for work in the industry?

6. Are there any areas/content that you did not deliver in your training course that you felt should be covered?

7. If you could change how the training material was delivered, would you change the emphasis on any of the material? By this, I mean would you spend more, less or the same amount of time on each module?

8. How would you describe the training you delivered? Would you consider it active or passive delivery based or some combination thereof?

9. What sort of feedback have you received from trainees on the material you or other trainers provided, including the 40-hour delivery time?

10. What are your thoughts about the ABST program in terms of its goals of preparing security guards for their duties and providing assurance to the public that SOs are properly trained?

11. Do you believe that security guards are prepared to do their assigned duties upon completion of the ABST? Why or why not?

12. What are your thoughts about changing the delivery program to splitting the course into theory and practicum?

13. If you were asked to comment upon the training program what would you say?

14. Would you do anything differently if you were asked to create content?

15. What is your opinion of the delivery of other trainers providing quality training?

16. Is there anything else you would like to add?
Appendix 8: Security manager interview questions

1. By way of background could you say a bit about your employment and education history before gaining familiarity with the ABST program?
   • Why did you choose to work in security?
   • How much time have you spent in the security industry?
2. Have you taken the ABST program?
3. What are your thoughts about it?
4. Have you worked as a security guard? When?
5. Can you tell me of any security-specific training you have had?
6. Can you tell me of any adult learning-specific training you have had?
7. How do you think the ABST program contributes to preparing security guards for work in the industry?
8. What and where is their first assignment at your site, including duties?
9. Are there any areas that are not covered in the training that you felt should be covered?
10. What are your thoughts about changing how the training material is delivered? Would you change the emphasis on any of the material? By this, I mean would you spend more, less or the same amount of time on each module?
11. After security guards have completed the ABST and first come to your site, how prepared do you believe them to be to do their jobs? Is this everyone?
   • Why/why not?
12. Is there a consistency in security staff preparedness in completing their jobs upon initial assignment at the site? Is this a good or bad consistency?
13. What are the primary duties of security guards at this site?
14. Are you comfortable with security staff completing their duties at your site?
15. To what extent do their duties as a security guard align with their training, which is meant to prepare security guards for their duties and provide assurance to the public?
   • Why or why not?
   • If not aligned, what was the inconsistency?
16. What are your thoughts about any gaps or recommended changes in the ABS training?
17. What do you know about the ABST program and what it was designed to do? (Prepare security officers for their duties and provide assurance to the public)

18. What are your thoughts about the ABST preparing security guards to do their assigned duties upon completion of the training? Why or why not?

19. What ideas do you have about any recommended changes to the training delivery program including more or less practicum time?

20. What are your thoughts about the ABST being delivered effectively in 40 hours?

21. Is there anything else you would like to add?
Appendix 9: Contract management questions

1. By way of background could you say a bit about your employment, education and training history?
   • Why did you choose to work in security?
   • How much time have you spent in the security industry?
2. Have you taken the ABST program?
3. How familiar are you with the ABST?
4. What are your thoughts about it?
5. Have you worked as a security guard? When?
6. Do you think the ABST program prepares security guards for work in the industry? If it doesn’t, why do you think that is?
7. What and where can their duties be with your contract company?
8. Are there any areas that are not covered in the training that you felt should be covered?
9. What additional training does your company provide?
10. What are your thoughts about changing how the training material is delivered? Would you change the emphasis on any of the material? By this, I mean would you spend more, less or the same amount of time on each module? Would you add a practicum?
11. What are your thoughts about any gaps or recommended changes in the ABS training? What is good about the training?
12. What are your thoughts about the ABST being delivered effectively in 40 hours?
13. After security guards have completed the ABST and are first assigned to a site, how prepared do you believe them to be to do their jobs? Is this everyone?
   • Why/why not?
   • Are you comfortable with security staff completing their duties with your clients?
14. Is there anything else you would like to add?
Appendix 10: Letter of ethical approval

27 July 2016

Dear Glen Kitteringham

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study Title:</th>
<th>Security Practitioners’ Perspectives on the Alberta Basic Security Training Program</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethics Committee reference:</td>
<td>15/16:54</td>
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Thank you for submitting your documents for ethical review. The Ethics Committee was content to grant a favourable ethical opinion of the above research on the basis described in the application form, protocol and supporting documentation, revised in the light of any conditions set, subject to the general conditions set out in the attached document.

The Ethics Committee provides a favourable ethical opinion with requirements. The requirements are:

- Documentation should be held for 6 years and consent forms for 30 years as per university retention guidelines and under DPA conditions
- Interviews should be in neutral areas that also afford appropriate privacy
- Review of public documentation must conform to robust methodological standards
- Every effort should be made to ensure that the contribution of the content developer is managed in a way that does not jeopardize the participant’s professional reputation. The supervisor should be particularly mindful of this.
- Clarity as to whether the interviews will, or will not, be recorded and the consent form and invitation letter amended to address this

Please note that the Letter of Information for Participants and the Letter to the Host Organisation have been submitted separately from the original documentation at the request of the Chair of Faculty Ethics. It has been agreed by Jane Winstone, Richard Hitchcock and Simon Kolstoe, who constitute a quorate ethics opinion, that these meet the standard required.

There is no need to submit any further evidence to the Ethics Committee; the favourable opinion has been granted with the assumption of compliance.
The favourable opinion of the EC does not grant permission or approval to undertake the research. Management permission or approval must be obtained from any host organisation, including University of Portsmouth, prior to the start of the study.

Documents reviewed

The documents reviewed by The Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Ethics Committee.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document</th>
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<td>19/07/201</td>
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<tr>
<td>Consent Form(s) (list if necessary)</td>
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<td>Invitation Letter</td>
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Statement of compliance

The Committee is constituted in accordance with the Governance Arrangements set out by the University of Portsmouth

After ethical review

Reporting and other requirements

The enclosed document acts as a reminder that research should be conducted with integrity and gives detailed guidance on reporting requirements for studies with a favourable opinion, including:

- Notifying substantial amendments
- Notification of serious breaches of the protocol
- Progress reports
- Notifying the end of the study
Feedback

You are invited to give your view of the service that you have received from the Faculty Ethics Committee. If you wish to make your views known please contact the administrator ethics-fhss@port.ac.uk

Please quote this number on all correspondence – 15/16:54

Yours sincerely and wishing you every success in your research

***************

Chair
Dr Jane Winstone
Email: ethics-fhss@port.ac.uk

Enclosures: “After ethical review – guidance for researchers”
Appendix 1

After ethical review – guidance for researchers

This document sets out important guidance for researchers with a favourable opinion from a University of Portsmouth Ethics Committee. Please read the guidance carefully. A failure to follow the guidance could lead to the committee reviewing and possibly revoking its opinion on the research.

It is assumed that the research will commence within 3 months of the date of the favourable ethical opinion or the start date stated in the application, whichever is the latest.

The research must not commence until the researcher has obtained any necessary management permissions or approvals – this is particularly pertinent in cases of research hosted by external organisations. The appropriate head of department should be aware of a member of staff’s research plans.

If it is proposed to extend the duration of the study beyond that stated in the application, the Ethics Committee must be informed.

If the research extends beyond a year then an annual progress report must be submitted to the Ethics Committee.

When the study has been completed the Ethics Committee must be notified.

Any proposed substantial amendments must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for review. A substantial amendment is any amendment to the terms of the application for ethical review, or to the protocol or other supporting documentation approved by the Committee that is likely to affect to a significant degree:

(a) the safety or physical or mental integrity of participants
(b) the scientific value of the study
(c) the conduct or management of the study.
A substantial amendment should not be implemented until a favourable ethical opinion has been given by the Committee.

Researchers are reminded of the University’s commitments as stated in the Concordat to Support Research Integrity viz:

- maintaining the highest standards of rigour and integrity in all aspects of research
- ensuring that research is conducted according to appropriate ethical, legal and professional frameworks, obligations and standards
- supporting a research environment that is underpinned by a culture of integrity and based on good governance, best practice and support for the development of researchers
- using transparent, robust and fair processes to deal with allegations of research misconduct should they arise
- working together to strengthen the integrity of research and to reviewing progress regularly and openly

In ensuring that it meets these commitments the University has adopted the UKRI Code of Practice for Research. Any breach of this code may be considered as misconduct and may be investigated following the University Procedure for the Investigation of Allegations of Misconduct in Research.

Researchers are advised to use the UKRI checklist as a simple guide to integrity.
Appendix 11: Declaration of compliance with ethical requirements
Appendix 12: Current and Proposed ABST Table of Contents

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<td>• Starting a Shift</td>
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<td>• Working with a Partner</td>
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<td>• Use of Force Response</td>
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