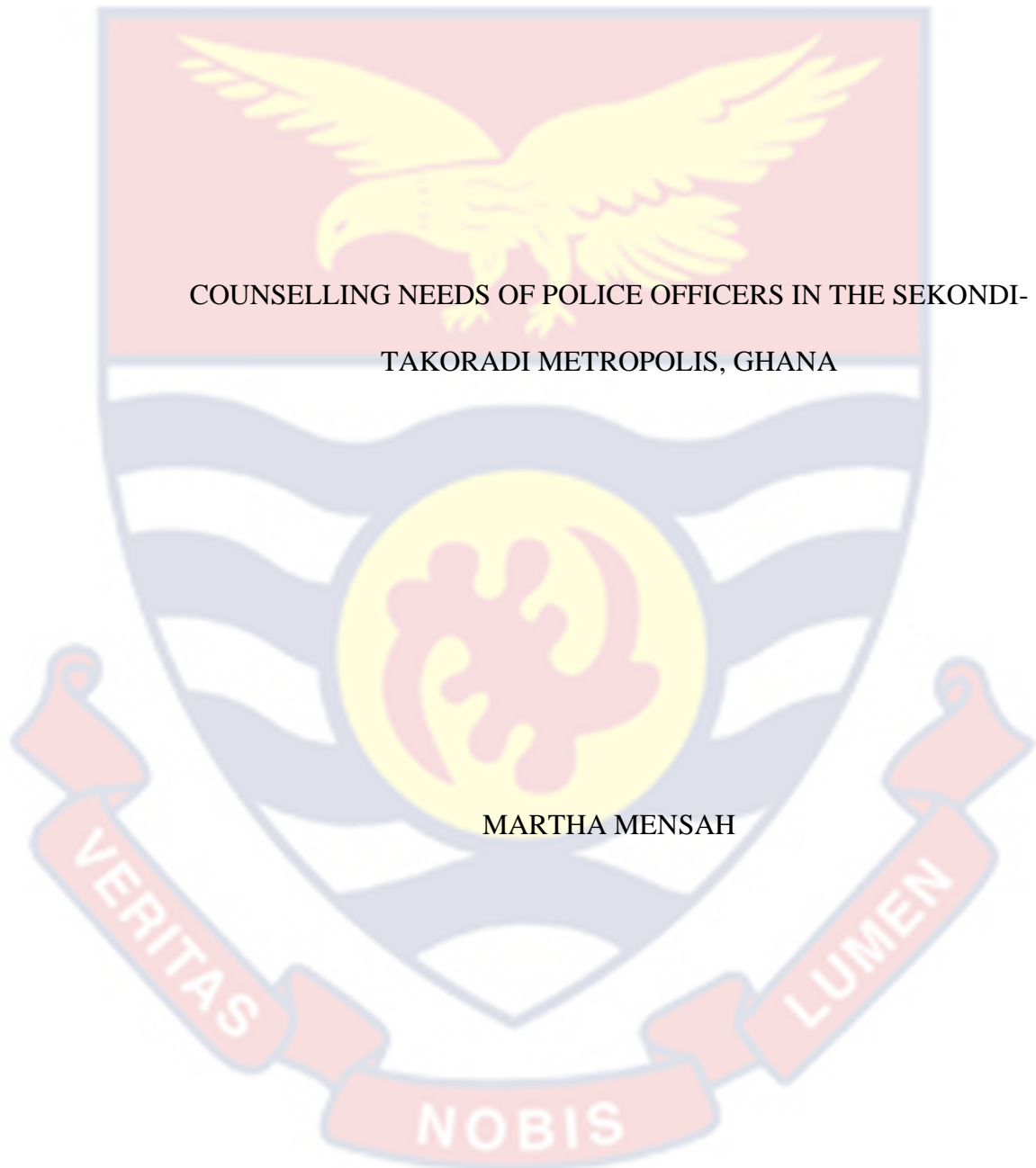UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COUNSELLING NEEDS OF POLICE OFFICERS IN THE SEKONDI-

TAKORADI METROPOLIS, GHANA

MARTHA MENSAH

2023

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COUNSELLING NEEDS OF POLICE OFFICERS IN THE SEKONDI-

TAKORADI METROPOLIS, GHANA

BY

MARTHA MENSAH

Thesis submitted to the Department of Guidance and Counselling of the

Faculty of Educational Foundations, College of Education Studies, University

of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of

Master of Philosophy degree in Guidance and Counselling

NOVEMBER 2023

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature……………………… Date……………………

Name: ……………………………………………………………………

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature…………………………....… Date……….…………

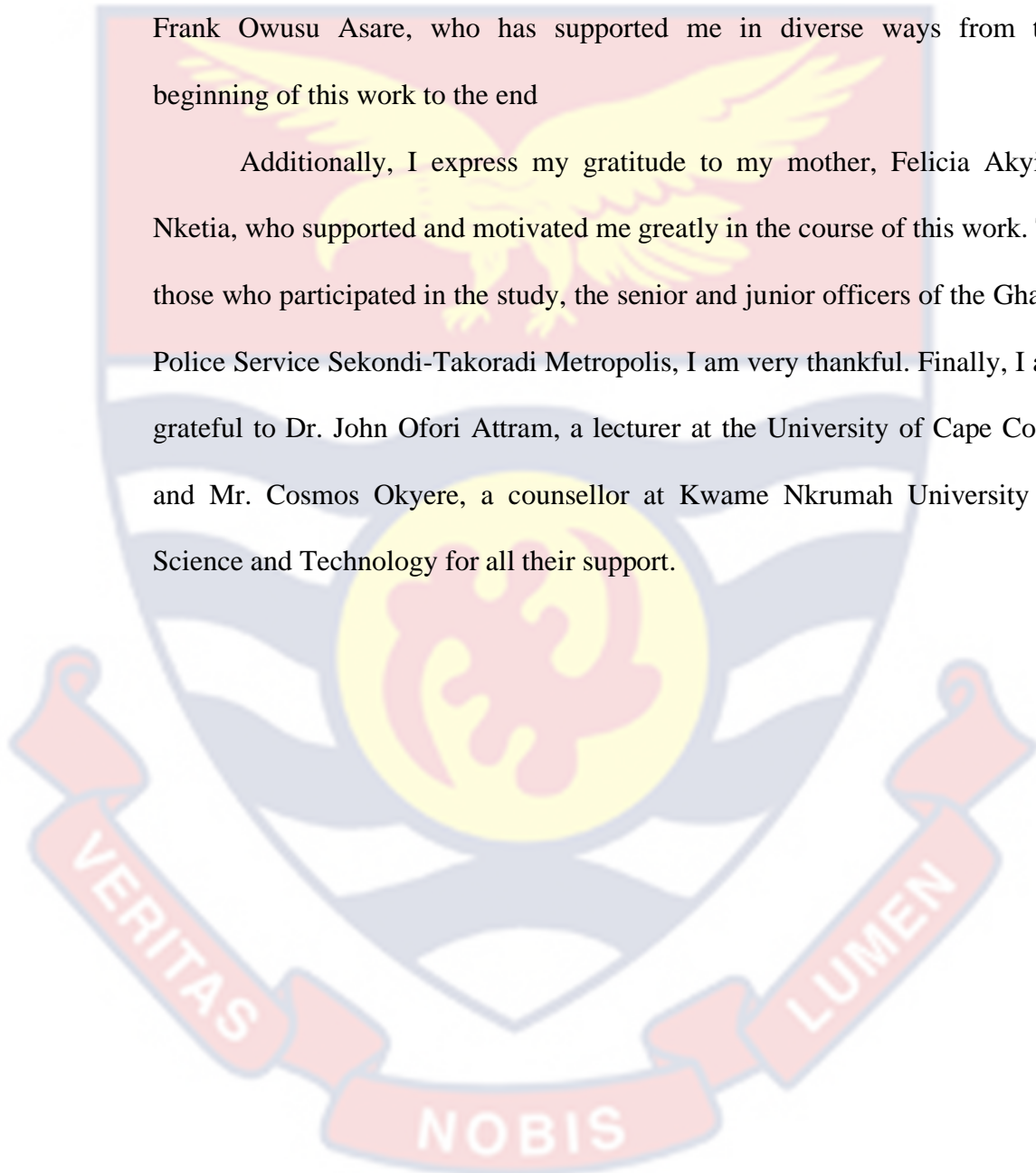Name: …………………………………………………………………….

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ABSTRACT

The study assessed the counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. Descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. A sample of 278 were selected through stratified random sampling from a population of 969 police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. Data were analysed using frequencies, means, t-test and ANOVA. The study revealed that the most common counselling need of the police officers was organisational counselling needs. Negative perceptions associated with their work, how these perceptions affected their families and friends, and the need to uphold "higher image" in the public were the common operational counselling needs of the police officers. Inadequacy of equipment and resources, nature of internal investigations, inconsistency of leadership and dealing with supervisors were the common organisational counselling needs of the police officers. The common personal-social counselling needs of the respondents were solving interpersonal conflicts, understanding themselves, meeting family demands, solving marriage and relationship issues, and dealing with disappointments. There was no statistically significant gender difference in their counselling needs. There was a statistically significant age difference in the counselling needs of the police officers. It was recommended that leadership of the Ghana Police Service organise intermittent workshops focused on helping police officers to handle some of the organisational challenges they face.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful to my supervisor, Rev. Dr. Kwasi Otopa Antiri for his assistance and support during the course of this work. His corrections and guidance greatly enhanced this work. I am also thankful to my husband, Mr. Frank Owusu Asare, who has supported me in diverse ways from the beginning of this work to the end

Additionally, I express my gratitude to my mother, Felicia Akyiaa Nketia, who supported and motivated me greatly in the course of this work. To those who participated in the study, the senior and junior officers of the Ghana Police Service Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis, I am very thankful. Finally, I am grateful to Dr. John Ofori Attram, a lecturer at the University of Cape Coast and Mr. Cosmos Okyere, a counsellor at Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology for all their support.

DEDICATION

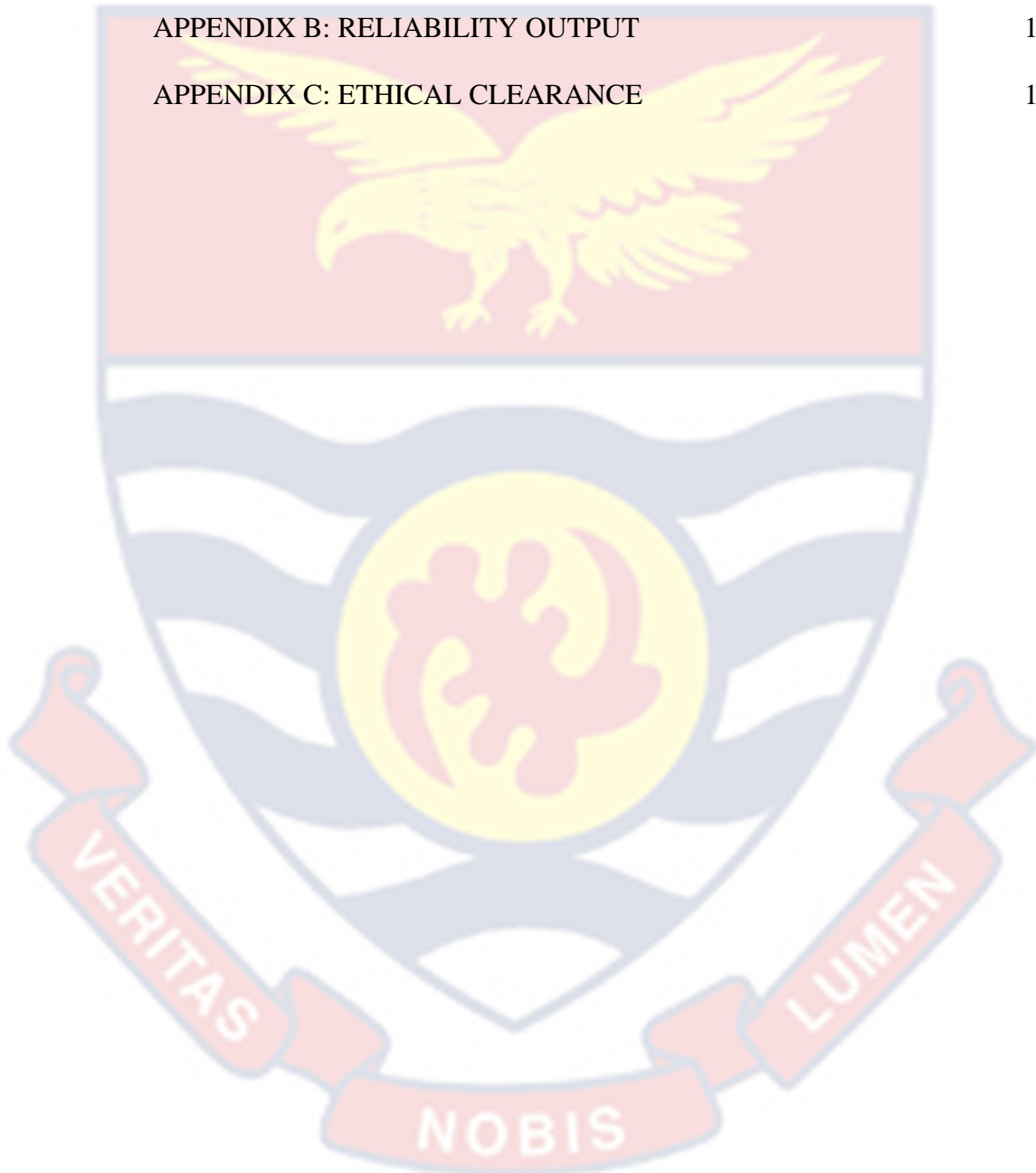To my lovely husband, Mr. Frank Owusu Asare.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Employees in different occupations are the greatest assets of their institutions. They are those who make use of all the resources of their institutions to ensure that productivity is increased (Tuvulla & Byaruhanga, 2017). Employees must therefore be cared for financially, administratively, and socially in order to perform to the standards required of them in their organisations (Matolo & Mukulu, 2016). A major means of helping employees is through providing counselling for them in their areas of needs. The police service is one of the main sources of security provision in any country and to ensure that they are effectively doing their work, they may need counselling help in different aspects of their lives (Chikwem, 2017). This study investigated the counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis.

Background to the Study

The work of the police is at the centre of any effective system of crime prevention around the world (Robins, 2009). The police service in different countries have the responsibility of ensuring that there is peace and security within the countries (Basińska & Wiciak, 2013). When they do their work well and effectively, societies are likely to remain peaceful and through that enhance the development within the societies. This makes some of the police officers the most important individuals in society. Their wellbeing is essential to their work and effectiveness (Matolo & Mukulu, 2016).

However, it is well known that policing is one of the most demanding jobs in the entire globe (Sharma, 2019). Compared to other professionals,

police officers have higher than average levels of job stress (Russell, 2014). Compared to other professions, policing has received a lot of attention in the literature over the past ten years as being stressful (Campbell & Nobel, 2009; Vuorensyrjä & Mälkiä, 2011). Due to the exposure of officers to a variety of stressful work and acute ongoing situations, it has been shown to be one of the most demanding, difficult, and stressful professions in the world (Liberman, Best, Metzler, Fagan, Weiss & Marmar, 2002; Magnavita & Garbarino, 2013).

The complexity of crime control issues in today's policing are a result of the shifting cultural and social landscape (Ransley & Mazerolle, 2008). Most of the time, police personnel in various societies are stationed in areas where crimes are being committed (Dawson, 2019). The kind of issues that police officers have to deal with in their line of work are always changing and needing new abilities as well as creative and adaptable solutions. This is due to a wide range of political, social, technological, religious, and economic considerations. These demand that police personnel be better equipped for their jobs.

In developed countries, the police and research collaborators have recently participated in early stress management instruction at the training academy level (Arnetz, Arble, Backman, Lynch & Lublin, 2013; Johnson & Jaeckle, 2018). Their instruction has mostly concentrated on diet, exercise, socializing, getting enough sleep, taking vacation days, and developing their resilience and awareness (Agolla, 2008; Beshears, 2017; Edwards, Eaton-Stull & Kuehn, 2021). The nature in which police officers cope, manage and adjust psychologically affect their lives and job satisfaction to a very great degree (Sanderam & Kumaran, 2012). The literature has also shown that various

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counselling support and social support networks may reduce the challenges of police officers (McCarty & Lawrence, 2016; Stinchcomb, 2004; Tsai, Nolasco & Vaughn, 2016). From these, counselling for police officers is recognised as very important.

According to Brammer and Snowstorm cited in Mwenze (2018), counselling for employees involves helping employees to explore their thoughts, feelings and behaviours to achieve self-understanding. Even though employees receive some form of informal counselling and social assistance from their colleagues and supervisors, they may sometimes also need professional assistance (Cole, 2003). Therefore, one of the primary ways that organizations give staff support is through the provision of in-person, private counselling for workers (McLeod & McLeod, 2001).

According to Chauhan (2009), the first duty of any guiding or counselling service is to comprehend the client, identify the client's true requirements and difficulties, and consider the prospects for the client's development. In essence, counselling provided for police officers seek to identify their needs and provide assistance in solving them. The desire for counselling is seen as a significant sense of weakness in some areas of a person's life that causes an uneasy tension (Bozie, 2012). This implies that the counselling needs of police officers cover all areas of their lives where they most especially feel deficient or find challenging.

Generally, the challenges or problems of police officers have been classified to come from personal-social, operational and organisational sources (Morash, Haarr & Kwak, 2006; Queirós, Passos, Bártolo, Marques, Silva & Pereira, 2020). The personal-social has to do basically with the individual's

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own issues while the operational and organisational are related to their job and institutional issues which affect the police service (McCreary & Thompson, 2006).

It has been considered that the operational covers matters that are particular to policing, how society views policing, anxiety about using brute force, traumatizing experiences at work, violent encounters with coworkers, work-family tensions, fear of injury, and work shifts (McCreary & Thompson, 2006; Queirós et al., 2020). Issues relating to the individual's personal life as well as his personal relationship with others are all covered as part of the operational counselling needs (Stogner, Miller & McLean, 2020).

These issues come from the view that police officers feel mentally taxed and this may affect their personal-social lives (Hartley, Burchfiel, Fekedulegn, Andrew, & Violanti, 2011; McCraty & Atkinson, 2012; Paoline, 2003). Law enforcement personnel have mental health issues at a higher incidence than the general population as a result (Hartley et al., 2011). As such, police officers have high likelihood than the overall population to experience melancholy, family conflict, alcoholism, and suicidal thoughts (Wang et al., 2010; Rees & Smith, 2008; Menard & Arter, 2013).

On the other hand, organisational sources of challenges are connected to the police as a structure or organization, and include stressors like disagreements with superiors or coworkers, a lack of materials or human resources, too much workload, huge amount of administrative tasks, issues with leadership, and unique ways that each police station operates (Queirós et al., 2020; Zhao, He & Lovrich, 2002).

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The challenges and needs of police officers have been seen in the literature by various authors to be related to different demographic characteristics. For instance, it has been noted that variances in the requirements and challenges faced by police officers depend on a variety of factors, including age, gross monthly income, job experience, educational attainment, marital status, and gender (Mohamed, 2015; Sharma & Devi, 2011). Also, it has been recognized that age, rank and marital status may cause a difference in the needs and challenges of police officers (Quarshie, Odame & Annor, 2020). Sanderam and Kumaran (2012) have indicated that the challenges and needs of police officers are more daunting for young police officers.

Globally, numerous studies have shown that the job of a police officer happens to be one of the most stressful jobs (Gul, 2008; Gül & Delice, 2011; Shane, 2010), and that police personnel are particularly vulnerable to stress-related physical health issues (Lagestad & van den Tillaar, 2014; Randal & Buys, 2013). Consequently, concerns that affect police officers' job satisfaction in different places of the world include "repeatedly dealing with death, serious injury, horrific crime scenes, the need to be constantly alert whether on or off duty, and being ostracized by communities, friends, and family members" (Smith & Charles as cited in Gyamfi, 2014). As a result, policing is seen as one of the main occupations in which stress is mainly experienced by employees (Chapman, 2009).

Similar reports have been made in Africa. According to Robins (2009), numerous issues affecting African judicial systems directly affect police personnel on a daily basis. Underfunded and overworked police services in

Africa must contend with rising crime rates and expanding populations, which hinders their ability to deter and solve crimes (Chikwem, 2017; Robins, 2009).

In Ghana, even though successive governments have, to some degree, backed the police with supplies such as vehicles and other tools to fight crime, the Ghana Police Service is seriously understaffed (Braimah & Mbowura, 2014). The 2021 population and housing census showed that the population of Ghana was 30,832,019 while the number of police personnel was 41,369 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2021a). This makes the Police Service unable to meet the United Nations standard of 1:745 police-citizens ratio. To make matters worse, the few police officers in the police service are overly stressed and challenged in varied ways (Gyamfi, 2014).

In recent times, there have been media reports of events organized for police officers across the country with the aim of improving their wellbeing. For instance, the Accra Regional Police Command organized a one-day health sensitization lecture for its Police officers, aimed at alerting officers on the need to develop and build lifestyles that enhance their mental and physical well-being in the discharge of their day-to-day duties (Kumi, 2019). According to the report of Kumi, the regional police commander noted that there has been an increasing trend of suicides among police officers due to work issues and several officers also engaging in alcohol abuse. Also, Kamasah (2021) reported a press release by the Ghana Police Service after series of suicides of police officers that issues bothering on the welfare and psychological support for police officers need to become top priority for the Ghana Police hierarchy.

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From the forgoing, exploring the experiences of police officers is significant because of the numerous challenges and issues and the huge expectations that come with the job (Sanderam & Kumaran, 2012). It has also been emphasized that researchers need to pay greater attention to the seriousness of the needs and issues facing police officers and how these may affect them at work and in their general life (Chikwem, 2017; Manzoni & Eisner, 2006). In light of this, this investigation is being carried out.

Statement of the Problem

The work of the police officers has been found to be stressful and demanding mostly due to the danger, uncertainty and unpredictability that comes with the job in different countries (Baldwin, Bennell, Andersen, Semple & Jenkins, 2019; Violanti et al., 2017). The pressures of the work might cause exhaustion, mental/psychological illnesses, or even police suicide in some cases (Baka, 2015; Garbarino, Cuomo, Chiorri & Magnavita, 2013). Police personnel are therefore more susceptible to developing physical and mental health disorders, such as poor psychosocial wellbeing, physical disease, self-harm, and functional problems (Garbarino et al., 2013; Lucas, Weidner & Janisse, 2012).

The Ghana Police Service has been plagued by several job-related challenges which have generated a lot of concern for the police officers (Gyamfi, 2014). The challenges mostly revolve around the stress that comes along with their job. However, in spite of the stress, Many Ghanaians believe that there is something improper with how the Ghana Police Service officers are performing (Avuyi, 1995; Osabutey, 2009; Gyamfi, 2014). Among the

staff of Ghana Police Service, there is also the opinion that there are minimal systematic efforts to seriously address job stress (Aning, 2006).

All these send the signal that officers in the Ghana Police Service experience several stressful challenges. To change the organizational culture that affects police officers, it is essential to investigate the actual requirements and difficulties of police officers (Selokar, Nimbarte, Ahana, Gaidhane & Wagh, 2011). It has been claimed by Okyere (2017) that it is through needs assessment that the counselling needs of individuals can be identified and addressed through the establishment and effective running of a comprehensive counselling system.

Globally, literature on police service have focused mainly on job stress (Biggam, Power, Macdonald, Carcary, & Moodie, 1997; Kploanyi, Dwomoh & Dzodzomenyo, 2020) and the coping strategies of police officers (Basińska & Wiciak, 2013; Finn, 1999; Stinchcomb, 2004). Other studies concentrate on the impact of police stress on employment outcomes and productivity (Dawson, 2019; Hawkins, 2001).

In Ghana, there have been some studies conducted on the police service. The studies have focused on the impact of job stress on job satisfaction of police personnel (Gyamfi, 2014), political impartiality and public trust in the police (Osei-Adubofour, 2017), issues in the combat of crime (Braimah & Mbowura, 2014) and the suicidal behaviours of some police officers (Quarshie, Odame & Annor, 2020). Also, in Ghana, studies on counselling needs assessment have largely focused on students at the neglect of police officers (Amaning, 2009; Awabil, 2002; Okyere, 2017). None of these studies assessed the counselling needs of police officers. This is in spite

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of the well documented challenges of the Ghana Police Service. This shows that there remains some gap in the literature to be filled by the current study. The gap was that the studies mentioned earlier did not address the counselling needs of police officers in Ghana.

In the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis, it is documented that in recent times, crime has been on the ascendancy and as such there is a burden on the police force in the metropolis to ensure that there is constant peace (Ebu, 2020; Frimpong, 2019). Such pressure and burden to maintain peace take a toll on the police service and as such the police officers may need more support in the course of their work.

All the above scenarios combine with the fact that the needs and specific challenges of police officers in Ghana have been ignored (Boakye, 2005; Gyamfi, 2014). Hence, this study was considered to be necessary. The continuous neglect of the counselling needs of police officers may cause a deterioration of the overall wellbeing of police officers and ultimately affect their work in maintaining peace and order in the country.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. In terms of specific objectives, the study sought to:

1. find out the common operational counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis,

2. find out the common organisational counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis,

3. find out the common personal-social counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis,

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4. identify the common counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis,

5. identify the forms of support available to police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis,

6. find out the difference in the counselling needs of police officers on the basis of gender, and

7. identify the difference in the counselling needs of police officers on the basis of age.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the common operational counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

2. What are the common organisational counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

3. What are the common personal-social counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

4. What are the common counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

5. What support is available to police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses guided the conduct of the study:

1. $H_0 1$: There is no statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of male and female police officers.

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$H_1$1:   There is a statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of male and female police officers.

2. $H_0$2:   There is no statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of police officers on the basis of age.

$H_1$2:   There is a statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of police officers on the basis of age.

Significance of the Study

Firstly, authorities of the Ghana Police Service may benefit from the results of the study in the sense that the results will bring to light the specific areas that police officers need counselling support. The authorities can thus put in appropriate measures to provide effective counselling to their officers.

Secondly, the Ghana Police Service may be able to use the results to set-up a functioning Counselling Unit within the Police Service. In addition, the results may be of benefit to counsellors in the police service who specialise in offering counselling services at the workplace. They would be enlightened as to what kind of support and assistance they can provide to police officers. This can ultimately make life easier for police officers.

Further, the findings of the study would be significant to police officers. Specifically, the results will highlight the areas of their lives that they need support and the forms of support available to them. This can help to make life more comfortable for police officers.

Finally, the results may be a source of reference for future researchers. The study will thus contribute to literature on the counselling needs of police officers in Ghana.

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Delimitations

The study was delimited to cover some specific areas of counselling needs. It covered the operational, organisational and personal-social counselling needs. These were seen in the literature to be the common areas where police officers have issues. The study covered the forms of support available to police officers. The difference in counselling needs on the basis of gender and age were also examined. In terms of the participants of the study, the study focused only on the police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis.

Limitations

First off, the findings' ability to be generalized may be constrained by the study's exclusive focus on Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis police personnel. Secondly, the use of the quantitative approach may affect the study in terms of the lack of in-depth data obtained. Another limitation of the study had to do with the fact that there was lack of literature on the counselling needs of police officers in Ghana. Also, a limitation of the study was that since the research design was descriptive and cross-sectional, it is possible that the information or data obtained would not be the same in the future. Thus, at some point the counselling needs of the police officers may change.

Definition of Terms

The key terms as used within the context of this work are defined below:

Counselling: Is a series of personal interactions where an individual police officer seeks help from a professional counsellor in addressing in any issue that the individual police officer may have.

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Need: A persistent sense of lacking in certain areas of the life of a police officer that causes uneasy tension.

Operational counselling needs: This is used in the study to refer to the counselling needs of Sekondi-Takoradi police officers relating to their daily work and operations such as how they balance work and family as well as the stress from the difficulties on the job.

Organisational counselling needs: This is used to refer to the counselling needs of Sekondi-Takoradi police officers regarding the structure of the police institution, leadership system, rules and regulations and the staffing system within the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis.

Personal-social counselling needs: This is used to refer to the counselling needs of Sekondi-Takoradi police officers concerning their personal and social lives.

Organisation of the Study

This study is organised into five chapters. The introduction to the study is explored in the first chapter. This includes the study's background, problem statement, purpose, research questions, and hypotheses. Significance, delimitation and limitations, and definition of terms are also covered in this chapter. The theoretical framework, conceptual review and empirical review are the components of chapter two. The research design, study area, population, sampling procedures, data collection instrument and procedures, and analysis of data are considered in chapter three. The presentation of the results and discussion of data are in chapter 4. Chapter 5 deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendations. Suggestions for further research and counselling implications are also in the last chapter.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This research set out to assess the counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. The theoretical framework, conceptual review, and empirical review are all included in this review of the literature.

Theoretical Framework

The theories related to the study are reviewed in this section. The main theories reviewed are Maslow's Theory of Need, McClelland's Theory of Needs and the General Strains Theory. These theories are reviewed in detail below:

Maslow's Theory of Need

Maslow's Theory of Need was propounded by Maslow (1943). Maslow posited a hierarchy of human needs as a basis of behaviour motivation. In his theory of need, Maslow categorized the needs of individuals into a five hierarchical model. Maslow (1943) argued that needs are arranged in a hierarchy. This indicates that these needs are triggered in a particular order, going from the lowest to the highest, so that the lowest order demands must be satisfied before the process may move on to the next order. According to Maslow, it is crucial to understand a person's position in the hierarchical pyramid in order to meet that person's needs and inspire them (Robbins in Kaur, 2013).

The needs identified by Maslow (1943) were physiological, safety or security, love or belongingness, self-esteem and self-actualization. These needs are what motivate individuals in their behaviours. The needs are

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organized in an order of their relative pre-potency. Therefore, in Maslow's hierarchy of requirements, satisfaction of wants is just as important as deprivation because gratification is how higher demands become prepotent (Okyere, 2017). Higher requirements become the main drivers of behaviour as soon as the basic needs are satisfied. Even while a pre-potent need may dominate behaviour, other wants may still have an impact on the person. However, some needs stand out as the main driving forces behind human behaviour (Maslow, 1943). The hierarchy of needs of Maslow is shown in Figure 1.
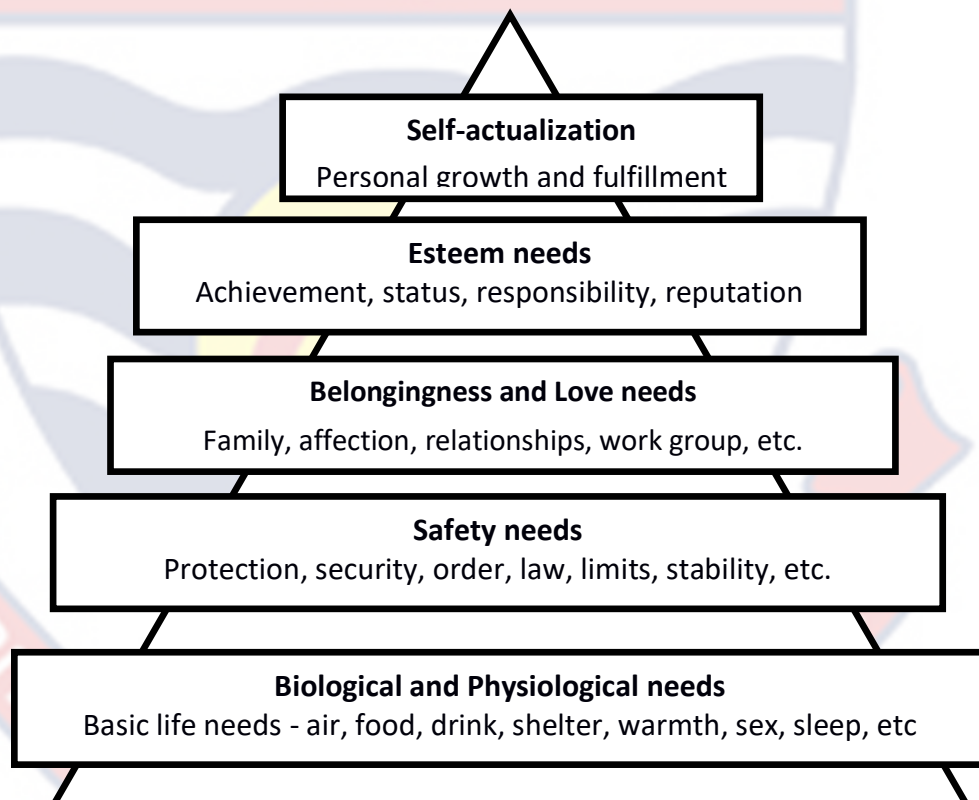
Figure 1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Adapted from Alan, 2001).

The five needs identified by Maslow are discussed below:

The physiological needs

The body has fundamental demands known as physiological needs. Food, water, sleep, oxygen, sex, freedom of movement, and a comfortable

temperature are among them. These are regarded as the most fundamental driving forces behind human behaviour. We experience the painful tension of hunger, thirst, exhaustion, shortness of breath, sexual frustration, suffocation, or the discomfort of being too hot or cold when any of these requirements are not addressed (Yakubu, 2017). According to Maslow, the desire for survival is the first and most fundamental need that all humans have, and if any of these physiological requirements are not met, people are driven above all else to fill the void (Martin & Joomis, 2007).

Safety needs

Security becomes a behaviour incentive once one's physiological and fundamental requirements have been met. Physical safety, financial security, safety from injury, and having access to enough resources for survival are all considered safety needs in the hierarchy of Maslow (Yakubu, 2017). When security is under risk, a person becomes solely focused on preventing harm and immediately reestablishing safety. In essence, people constantly want to make sure they are protected. However, once safety needs are consistently met, safety seeking no longer serves as the primary behavioural drive (Maslow cited in Reid-Cunningham, 2008).

Love needs

After the physical and safety requirements are met, the desires for love or belongingness take over. People want to love and be loved at this level. Additionally, they seek a sense of group identity. Thus, according to Maslow (1943), the need for love is higher than the biological drive to reproduce since it reflects a deeper human want for emotional connection than sexual desire. This covers issues such as social bonding, partnerships and group affiliations.

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The fundamental point to note is that individuals seek meaning and connection. Maslow (1979) however argued that this need has not generated much interest and attention and that people rarely saw this need to be important. Intimate relationships with others can satiate the need to give and receive love.

Maslow asserted that one of the main causes of emotional maladjustment is the inability to satisfy one's need for love (Schultz & Schultz, 2005). This is due to the potential harm that can be done to a person's psychosocial functioning when their needs for love and belonging are violated or gravely endangered. Depending on the person, the situation, and the environment, the deprivation of future love-seeking behaviours might either increase or decrease them (Reid-Cunningham, 2008).

Self-esteem needs

The need for people to view a person favorably is one of the esteem needs, along with the desire for a high and accurate self-estimate. Being judged by others is regarded as a higher level of human need than plain human touch (Reid-Cunningham, 2008). The need for self-esteem is more than just the desire to feel good about oneself; it requires a solid foundation in order to be fully satisfied.

The need for people to view a person favorably is one of the esteem needs, along with the desire for a high and accurate self-estimate. In Maslow's view, respect for others is distinguished from love or close social ties. According to his thesis, a greater level of human need than mere human touch is the perceptions of others about oneself. The other crucial element of esteem needs is self-esteem. Self-esteem is a need that goes beyond simply wanting to

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feel good about oneself; in order to be properly satisfied, it must be firmly rooted in one's actual abilities (Maslow, 1943).

Self-actualisation

Maslow defined the need for self-actualization as the need to continually improve on who one already is and to realize one's full potential (Yakubu, 2017). Depending on the person, self-actualization can take many different shapes. The pursuit of knowledge, understanding, tranquility, self-fulfillment, life's purpose, or beauty are a few examples of these variances. Self-actualization requirements take precedence over physiological, safety, love, and esteem needs when those needs are at least somewhat met. Hoffman (1988) cites Maslow's theory that each person self-actualizes in a unique and endemic manner that is appropriate for his or her personality, circumstances, culture, and other factors. Each person is enabled to realize his or her full potential in a society that meets the basic requirements of every member, so enhancing society with innovation, creativity, productivity, beauty, and greatness.

Relevance of Maslow's Theory to this Study

To summarise, Maslow (1943) believed that after one had satisfied one's basic needs in terms of physical well-being as well as feelings of safety and love and respect, they no longer function as motivating factors. These primary needs if they are met by an individual, he feels satisfied, but an individual will be anxious if these needs are not met. Higher needs may be distinguished from deficient needs, according to Maslow, according to Reid-Cunningham (2008), since they continue to drive behaviour even when they are met. Maslow claimed that it is unlikely for people to operate as healthy,

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well-adjusted persons if they are raised in an environment where their needs are not addressed (Kaur, 2013).

From the forgoing, it can be seen that when the needs of people are not satisfied their overall functioning and wellbeing will be affected negatively. In the context of the current study, officers in the Ghana Police Service have some needs such as sleep (physiological needs), job and financial security and safety (safety needs), bonding and having good interpersonal relationships (love needs), feeling proud of their jobs (self-esteem needs) and achieving progression in their jobs (self-actualisation needs).

All of the needs highlighted by Maslow can be seen as part of the three main categorisations of needs used in this study (operational, organizational and personal-social). When these are not satisfied, there is the likelihood that the lives of police officers as well as their work in general will be affected negatively. In this sense, reviewing Maslow's theory in the current study is considered appropriate. It exposes how satisfaction of the needs of police officers are important in their work and their lives as a whole.

McClelland's Theory of Needs

This theory was propounded by McClelland (1987). McClelland said that a person's unique requirements are developed through time and are molded by their experiences, according to Pamela (2000). These demands have an impact on a person's motivation and efficiency in some work duties. Achievement, affinity, and power are these wants. Everyone is more strongly driven by some wants than others, according to McClelland (1987). All three of these motivations exist in everyone, albeit to varying degrees. Pamela (2000) reported that McClelland stated that these three needs motivate an

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individual regardless of our gender, culture or age and that one of these will be a dominant motivating driver.

Achievement

McClelland believed that those with a strong demand for success strive for excellence and, as a result, prefer to stay away from low-risk and high-risk circumstances, according to Pamela (2000). Achievers believe that luck, rather than one's own work, determines the outcome. Achievers also require regular feedback in order to track their progress toward their goals.

The implication here is that high achievers should be given challenging projects with reachable goals. According to Raeisi, Hadadi, Faraji, and Salehian (2012), those who are driven by a desire for success perform most effectively and productively. A person who feels this urge will try tirelessly to fulfill it and will be willing to take on some level of danger in the process. The concentration on achievement itself rather than the benefits of accomplishment is another sign of someone who is driven to succeed. High accomplishment motivation leads to greater performance than others in entrepreneurial and creative ventures, according to Peterson in Raeisi et al (2012) 's investigations.

Affiliation

According to Pamela (2000), those who have a strong desire for attachment have positive interpersonal relationships and want acceptance from others. These individuals like careers that offer substantial interpersonal involvement. These individuals have the traits of wanting to fit in and being liked, and as a result, they will do what the group dictates. They prefer cooperation to rivalry. These individuals function best in a collaborative setting. According to Raeisi et al. (2012), persons who have a need for

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affiliation prefer to build and maintain friendly relationships with other people in order to sate their want to form a personal connection.

Power

According to Pamela (2000), people with power needs can be of two types, that is personal and institutional power. Those seeking personal control strive to control others. A person seeking institutional authority aims to coordinate others' activities to further the objectives of the organisations. The characteristics of these people are that they like to win arguments, enjoy high status, recognition competition and winning. According to Raeisi et al. (2012), those who crave power want to exert control over and influence over others. They also tend to take responsibility for their actions, which necessitates communication in the end. These people should be provided with the opportunity to manage others.

Relevance of McClelland's Theory to this Study

From the theory, it is evident that all individuals can fall under any of the categories identified in the theory. High connection motivations contribute to good communication and relations, whereas high power motivations result in effective leadership and organizational management techniques. Researchers also contend that managers who exhibit these two high-level motives for success and power have greater managerial abilities. The implication is that the category that each individual falls in affects his behaviour and overall motivation life. By assessing the needs of police officers, it can be known what motivates them the most so that they can put up their best at work.

General Strain Theory (GST)

Agnew (1992) developed the General Strain Theory. In recent years, the general strain theory (GST) has emerged as the most complete strain theory (Agnew, 1992, 2001, 2006, 2013). The focus of previous strain theory of Merton (1938) and Cohen (1955) has largely been on interactions when one person is prevented from reaching goals that are positively regarded by others. Later, Agnew expanded the idea to encompass "relationships in which others present the person with toxic or adverse stimuli" (Agnew, 1992, p. 49). Agnew emphasized that the strain theory places a clear emphasis on interpersonal conflict. partnerships where the person is not treated how they would like to be treated.

A helpful theoretical framework for comprehending stress and associated coping mechanisms is the general strain theory (GST). GST describes strains as unfavorable situations or occasions (Agnew, 2006). A variety of unpleasant feelings might result from stress in one's environment (Agnew, 2013). From this perspective, strain theory has been used to explain how situations in the environment can trigger depressive emotions (Walton, Dawson-Edwards & Higgins, 2015). In this regard, Brezina (2017) made the case that feeling under pressure or stressed often leads to unpleasant feelings including resentment, rage, frustration, melancholy, and despair. It is believed that these unfavorable feelings can pressure individuals to be involved in criminal or delinquent acts.

To deal with the negative emotions so that people do not respond in harmful ways, GST advocates for effective coping mechanisms (Huck, Spraitz, Bowers & Morris, 2017). Effective coping mechanism can be

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provided through counselling service and social support. This makes the provision of counselling and other forms of social support at the workplace necessary.

Relevance of General Strain Theory to this Study

From the perspective of GST, An employee's mental and physical health may be impacted by occupational stress brought on by exposure to stresses at work. Police officers' general welfare may be impacted by the everyday psychological stress brought on by thinking about their workload and other difficulties. To help police officers deal with the strain, there is the need to assess what their needs are in relation to operational and organisational issues at work. In this sense, the General Strain Theory was considered relevant in the current study.

How the Three Theories Together are Relevant in the Study

The three theories, Maslow's Theory of Need, McClelland's Theory of Needs and the General Strains Theory reviewed in this study together are relevant in this study. This is because both Maslow's theory of need and McClelland's theory of needs speak of how individuals have some needs which have to be fulfilled before the individual can live a satisfied life and have positive health and wellbeing. The General Strain theory also speaks of how stress and difficulties at work can affect the individual in question. In the current study, the needs of police officers explored covers their work as well as their personal lives and as such the theories together sufficiently provides a good foundation for the study.

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Conceptual Review

The key concepts in the study are reviewed in this section.

The Concept of Counselling

The current study is on the counselling needs of police officers. As a result, the concept of counselling is important to be reviewed in this study. Counselling, according to the American Psychological Association (APA) (1999), focuses on typical or normal developmental concerns as well as abnormal or disordered development from the viewpoints of the person, family, group, system, and organization. Psychologists that specialize in counselling assist patients with physical, emotional, and mental illnesses in enhancing wellbeing, reducing suffering and maladjustment, and managing crises. Additionally, experts in this field offer evaluation, diagnosis, and treatment of psychopathology (APA, 1999). In this study, it can be said that counselling involves trained professionals assisting police officers in dealing with their personal issues.

When it comes to the practice of counselling, it is generally accepted that it is both an art and a science that involves two or more individuals working together to aid another person. The client (police officer) is the one who seeks help, while the counsellor is the one who provides it (Dassah, 2019). The objective of the counselling relationship is to assist clients (police officers) in overcoming difficulties, worries, or issues that result from an effort to cope with life in a more complex world (Maples, 1996). Once again, counselling may be characterized by the American Counselling Association (2007) as a theoretically-based, relatively quick procedure that aids people

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who are essentially psychologically sound in resolving situational and developmental issues.

Counselling is viewed as a process and, as such, continues throughout time. It's a continuous occurrence. Counselling as a relationship entails face-to-face communication between the counsellor and the counselee. According to Shertzer and Stone (1976), counselling is the centerpiece of the guidance program since it is more private and personal. It is distinguished by mutual respect, trust, and the complete lack of compulsion. It is client (student) initiated and takes place in a more lax, friendly, and welcoming setting.

Counselling is a structured intervention between the client and counsellor/helper to help the individual change, better, or resolve his or her current behaviour, problem, or discomforts, according to UNICEF (2003). It is a process of assisting the kid in learning about the coping strategies that he or she has previously found effective, how to apply or modify those coping mechanisms for the current circumstance, and how to create new coping mechanisms.

Mcleod (2003) identified the following as the aims of counselling as espoused either explicitly or implicitly by counsellors:

1. **Relating with others**. Improving one's capacity to create and sustain satisfying connections with others, such as those found in the family or at work

2. **Self-awareness**. Acquiring a more accurate sense of one's own perception or being more conscious of ideas and sensations that had been suppressed or repressed

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3. **Self-acceptance**. The emergence of a positive self-perception characterized by the capacity to accept aspects of one's experience that had previously been the target of rejection and self-criticism

4. **Self-actualization or individuation**. Achieving the integration of previously incompatible pieces of oneself or moving in the direction of potential fulfillment.

5. **Problem-solving**. Locating a solution to a particular issue that the customer had been unable to handle on their own. gaining a broad understanding of problem-solving skills.

6. **Acquisition of social skills**. Locating a solution to a particular issue that the customer had been unable to handle on their own. gaining a broad understanding of problem-solving skills.

7. **Cognitive and behaviour change**. The replacement or change of erroneous ideas or unhelpful mental processes linked to damaging behaviour. Additionally, there is the replacement or adjustment of unhelpful or detrimental behavioural patterns.

The above listed aims of counselling are all important for police officers. For instance, in the work of police officers, they relate with a lot of people and need self-awareness along with social skills and self-acceptance. All of these can be acquired through the counselling process. The goals on this list are unlikely to be attempted by a single counsellor or in a single counselling session. Any effective counselling strategy, however, must be adaptable enough to allow the client to use the therapeutic alliance as a space for addressing whichever aspect of life is now having the most impact on their wellbeing.

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Types of Counselling

Two main types of counselling exist. They are individual counselling and group counselling.

Individual Counselling

This refers to one-on-one counselling which takes place between the client and the professionally trained counsellor. It has the objective to assist the client in coming to terms with himself and in organizing and focusing his thoughts in order to reach a wise conclusion. The procedure makes it possible to solve clients' difficulties. According to Krumboltz and Thoresen who were mentioned in Ojo (2005), the primary goals of individual counselling are to help clients change their own behaviour, acquire better decision-making skills, or avoid difficulties altogether. In this study, this type of counselling involves a situation where one police officer sits and interacts with one professional counsellor in order to address the issues that the police officer has.

Group Counselling

It is a counselling session between a group of individuals and a professionally trained therapist. For a coherent group and a productive, tightly supervised counselling session, there should be at least 10 people in the group. The group's participants are customers or counselees whose activities or issues have comparable dimensions or a common pattern intended for resolution. An atmosphere of free speech and expression is often promoted in group therapy sessions. As counselling proceeds, clients are allowed to express themselves on their own terms so that issues that need to be handled can be brought to everyone's attention and used to everyone's advantage. The counsellor's job is to use his professional expertise and experience to help the client discuss the

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issue. As a result, the counselor serves as more than simply a group participant; he also oversees group activities and interactions.

In the context of the current study, group counselling involves a situation where a number of police officers are given assistance by a trained and professional counsellor. In this situation, the group of police officers should have similar issues or challenges to be able to be assisted by the counsellor as a group.

Concept of Need

Needs are drives which impel people to act. Need is also used to refer to a particular category of goal which is believed to be universal (Doyal & Gough, 1991). A need is the absence of anything that, if present, would improve the organism's wellbeing (Oladele, 1987). Need has been seen in different forms by various authors. A need is a circumstance where action is required, according to the 2004 edition of the Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners. Needs are described as fundamental to human life because all people have needs.

Needs signify a feeling of deprivation and are typically considered to be very required for survival. Therefore, if a need is not addressed, it may result in the incapacity to contribute to society effectively and efficiently. The needs of individuals need to be assessed so that measures can be taken to address the needs. The evaluation process of acquiring and analyzing information regarding the demand for programs and services is known as needs assessment (Gupta, Sleezer, & Russ-Eft, 2007).

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Areas of Counselling Needs of Police Officers

Through the literature, some key areas were identified as areas where police officers may need counselling. These are operational, organizational and personal-social counselling needs.

Operational Counselling Needs: Operational counselling needs arise out of the operational stressors that police officers encounter in the course of carrying out their responsibilities. According to Edwards, Eaton-Stull and Kuehn (2021), operational stresses are mostly things that occur in the field, such answering aid requests and reacting to officer-involved shootings, etc. Other operational counselling needs are given by Yinger (2019) include handling difficult situations swiftly and how this could be taken for granted; the workload (including personnel, resources and public perceptions) and working hours (long hours at work, always on duty and short notice for calls).

The evidence remains clear that operational counselling needs generally are connected to the daily stress of police officers. Conflicts between work and family demands also reinforce the general tension experienced and this affects the general wellbeing of the police officer (Martinussen, Richardsen & Burke, 2007).

Generally, operational counselling needs can be considered acute (traumatic) or routine (chronic) (Edwards et al., 2021). This has been demonstrated in some previous writings. For instance, Violanti and Aron (1994) examined some 60 stress items among police officers and indicated that acute, traumatic events such as: "Killing someone in the line of duty" and "Fellow officer killed" (p. 825) ranked as the most common. Also, physical

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and psychological threats made stress experiences worse for police officers (White, Scott, Biggerstaff & Grubb, 1985).

Even though, the fear of bodily or psychological harm might be distressing in the moment, but it can also be common and cause anxiety over the long term. Over half of the top 20 stressors identified by Violanti and Aron (1994) were operational in nature, and more than half of them were both frequent and dangerous: "Physical attack"; "Battered child"; "High-speed chases"; "Use of force"; "Accident in patrol car"; "Aggressive crowds"; "Felony in progress"; "Plea bargaining"; "Death notifications"; "Family disputes"; and "Negative press coverage" (p. 825).

In recent times, Ma et al. (2015) discovered that while police officers working certain shifts reported greater incidents of organizational stress, they also met more dangerous physical and psychological incidents. They pointed out that little can be done to lessen the prevalence of physical/psychological threats in the police profession because they are an intrinsic element of police job.

Another operational area of concern for is public opinion. The opinion of the public about the police is usually a strain on the police officers. For instance, Stress was shown to be related to unfavorable media about police, according to Storch and Panzarella (1996). Compared to research that was conducted a few years later, this was to a far smaller extent (Brooks & Piquero, 1998; Scott, 2004). Additionally, McCarty, Aldirawi, Dewald and Palacios (2019) discovered that the depersonalization aspect of burnout, which describes the employees as being cut off from people they serve, was associated to the officers' unfavorable impressions of community sentiment.

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Overall, operational counselling needs include things like shift work, paperwork, unpleasant experiences, and the possibility of getting hurt at work.

Organisational Counselling Needs: According to Edwards, Eaton-Stull and Kuehn (2021), organisational stresses include things like work schedules, tools and resources, etc. that are subject to management discretion and decision-making. However, the categorization of these things and the areas of emphasis have differed across scholars. Some of the most common issues include issues with governance systems (Standfest, 1996), not being involved in decisions that affect daily tasks (Brown & Campbell, 1994), lack of administrative support and disciplinary discrepancies (Violanti & Aron, 1995), poor work conditions and interpersonal relationships (Storch & Panzarella, 1996).

Overall, organisational counselling needs cover organizational stress issues such as managing coworkers, red tape in the workplace, a lack of resources, and inconsistent leadership. More than trauma symptoms, organizational stresses have a negative impact on police and firefighter work satisfaction (Brough, 2004). From the forgoing, the level of job satisfaction decreases as a result of continuing workplace stress (Stinchcomb, 2004). Police officers who are just beginning their careers may suffer the same impact, according to long-term research (Huddleston, Stephens & Paton, 2007).

Personal-Social Counselling Needs: This is counselling related to personal and interpersonal issues of police officers. In terms of personal needs, this type of counselling provide assistance to solve the problems related to physical health, weaknesses, disorders, complexities, sensitiveness, deficiencies and home-based problems like poor communication (McCarty et al., 2019).

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Personal-social counselling services help the individual to know and understand himself, accept his superior and limited features and develop himself, trust himself, develop effective interpersonal relationships, become a personally and socially balanced and harmonious individual (Yesilyaprak, 2001). This type of counselling also aims to prevent, adjust and better the adaptation, development and other personal problems of the individual in educational or other environments (Ozbay, 2004). Police officers who receive this type of counselling are equipped with social skills, problem-solving skills, decision-making skills; anger management skills (Bas, 2007), dealing with peer pressure and developing healthy relationships with the opposite sex (Canel, 2007).

Support Seeking among Police Officers: If an individual is struggling to deal with a difficult situation, they are not in unique situation. Police officers may require help coping or dealing with the obstacles they face while on the job. Lack of social and emotional support (friends, family, coworkers, and supervisors' trust) and character flaws make police personnel more vulnerable to mental illness or disorders (Loriol, 2016). Organizational cultures and stigmatization fears are also important factors in officers' mental health (Bell & Eski, 2016; Garbarino et al., 2013). A fear of being recognized as a person who has been compromised by stress makes investigating wellbeing issues among police personnel extremely difficult (Garbarino et al., 2013).

Therefore, to avoid being viewed as incompetent, police are encouraged to demonstrate both physical and emotional fortitude (Garbarino et al., 2013). This means that police personnel may struggle expressing their challenges and difficulties (Bell & Eski, 2016). As a result, it may be difficult for police

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officers to openly disclose their mental health issues which ultimately prevent them from receiving help (Bell & Eski, 2016; Berg, Hem, Lau & Ekeberg, 2006). The term "career damaging" has been used to describe the effects of being open about having mental health concerns (Bell & Eski, 2016). People's ability to communicate about mental health issues and get the care they need is hindered by cynicism, indifference, and machismo.

Throughout the literature, it has been indicated that police officers have some identity about themselves that prevent them from seeking support in dealing with their issues. Miller (1995, p. 596), puts it as this:

"... *tough guys [cops] fear being 'shrunk,' having a notion of the psychotherapy experience as akin to brain-washing, a humiliating, infantilizing experience in which they lie on a couch and sob about their toilet training... the idea of needing "mental help" implies weakness, cowardice, and lack of ability to do the job.*"

Police officers, on the other hand, bear the brunt of society's expectations that men should be tough, self-sufficient, and independent (Papazoglou & Tuttle, 2018). As a result, officers' mental and physical health may be adversely affected by stress or trauma-related challenges if help-seeking behaviours in the form of mental health support are thought to be at odds with the conventional policing ethic (Addis & Mahalik, 2003; Lindinger-Sternart, 2015). Issues relating to gender roles mostly prevent males from seeking help since receiving mental health support is usually seen as non-masculine among police personnel (Addis & Mahalik, 2003; Wester, Arndt, Sedivy & Arndt, 2010). Generally, research on how police officers' mental health affects their ability to carry out their duties is lacking, despite the need

for the research particularly in the Ghanaian context (Boakye, 2005; Gyamfi, 2014).

Empirical Review

This section reviews prior empirical studies that are relevant to the current investigation. Sub-headings related to the study's goals guide the review process.

Operational Counselling Needs of Police Officers: The operational counselling needs of police officers have been explored in several research studies. This section reviews a few of these studies. In the study of Edwards, Eaton-Stull, and Kuehn (2021), police personnel stress levels, coping strategies, and perspectives on police-community interactions, as well as their perceived requirements for aid from the department, were all investigated. The research comprised 128 police officers from diverse North Eastern American counties with varying populations. Data were gathered using both quantitative and qualitative methods; analytical techniques included theme thematic analysis and statistical correlations and regression. The results showed that the participants' perspectives of their needs included both operational and organisational needs. Operationally, the participants indicated that they needed help with regards to the amount of time used at the workplace, balancing home and work activities, fatigue from work and staying in good physical condition.

Garber (2020) examined the counselling and psychological needs of first responders, as a special population with special needs. It was shown that these first responders need counselling in terms of dealing with the nature of their operations such as the chronic exposure to critical incidents and vicarious trauma. Garber also revealed that first responders need a lot of counselling in

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terms of their own mental wellbeing issues as well as improving their overall wellness.

In addition, Basińska and Wiciak (2013) evaluated the effects of police and fireman work on their wellbeing in several domains of life. The study specifically looks at the connections between the type of job and the factors that contribute to wellbeing, the beneficial effects of work on many aspects of life, and the association between service duration and the influence of work on health. The quality of life has been considered to follow a hedonistic paradigm. The research covered 499 operational Polish personnel, including 195 police officers and 304 firemen. For cognitive applications, a modified scale of satisfaction with various aspects of life, and a calculated potential positivity rate for work in the field of life, were used for the assessment of subjective well-being in relation to work. The findings demonstrated that the type of the work had a bearing on how well-being in the social, economic, and health realms as well as how self-esteem were affected. Firefighters were more optimistic about the effects of employment on their personal lives and general well-being than police officers. Police officers believed that their jobs had a damaging effect on their health, free time, and financial well-being. From this point of view, the police officers need more counselling for their self-esteem as well as for their social, economic, and physical well-being.

Further research was conducted by Chikwem (2017) to see if police officers' physical activity may mitigate the harmful effects of job strain on their performance. In all, 200 police officers from two American metropolitan police agencies participated in an online survey and the data was then analysed using a hierarchical regression technique. The findings revealed a negative

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correlation between the strain from the work of police personnel and their level of performance (p.001). The results showed that police officers' effectiveness on the job was favorably correlated with their physical activity. According to the findings, it was advised that the police department leadership emphasize the value of exercising to reduce occupational stress as a way to enhance employees' performance.

Police officer welfare was a major concern for Tuttle, Blumberg, and Papazoglou (2019) and this formed the basis of their study. It was realized in their study that police personnel are confronted with particular threats to their health and well-being. Organizational, operational, community-related, and personal strains were all faced by officers, including shift work and critical event response as well as pressures from the general public. Officers were more susceptible to developing compassion fatigue, moral hurts, and burnout as a result of being exposed to police strain. Caregiving-related exhaustion known as compassion fatigue was linked to emotions including rage, anxiety, guilt, hopelessness, and helplessness. In addition, moral harm happens when police see or participate in morally repugnant behaviour, which has an impact on their psychological and spiritual health. From the review, Tuttle et al. revealed that police officers needed counselling in terms of post-trauma intervention and peer support so as to deal with stress, anxiety, guilt, hopelessness, and powerlessness.

In Ghana, some studies have been conducted in this area. Braimah and Mbowura (2014) focused on Ghana and the Ghana Police Service while examining crime prevention in Developing Economies in Africa. The researchers found that the Ghana Police Service's reputation has had a

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detrimental impact on the public's perception of its professionalism and the institutionalization of police in Ghanaian communities. Public trust in the police to combat armed robbery and prevent crime in general in Ghana has not entirely diminished despite these views and bastardizations. Indeed, there are several accounts of how the police have successfully reduced crime in Ghana, and in some circles, these victories are still fresh in people's minds. Overall, the researchers concluded that the negative perceptions of the public about the police service affected police officers in their work.

Osei-Adubofour (2017) also investigated the perceptions of the public about the police. The study, which used data from a survey of 584 individuals in Ghana, West Africa, concluded that the public's lack of trust in the police is correlated with Ghanaians' perceptions of the police as lacking political neutrality. These were then connected to negative evaluations of police legitimacy. The study also discovered that Ghanaians' willingness to assist the police, despite these unfavorable opinions, might be ascribed to their attitude of dull compulsion. All of these negative perceptions were significant challenges to the police service. The researcher ended with recommendations for policy changes to bring police behaviour into line with democratic policing ideals and procedural justice, as well as a revision of the Ghanaian Constitution to increase the police's political independence from the country's executive branch.

Empirical evidence from the Ghana Police Service was used by Gyamfi (2014) to examine the impact of work stress on job satisfaction among police personnel in Ghana. A random sample of 200 officers from the Division's 335 personnel was chosen at random and subjected to a prospective

investigation. The researcher studied how the officers' job satisfaction was affected by their physical surroundings, role ambiguity, duty overload, aid from their superiors, and support from their colleagues (social support). Role ambiguity and the physical environment were both adversely and insignificantly linked to work satisfaction. Also, a statistically significant correlation was identified between job satisfaction and the assistance provided by coworkers. A positive association was identified between work satisfaction and supervisor support. Additionally, there was a substantial link between job happiness and the support of colleagues. Because of the difficult nature of their work, Gyamfi noted that police personnel needed help and that police officers' job satisfaction may be improved by focusing on the psychological and physical needs of their staff.

From the forgoing literature, it has been established that police personnel are exposed to several incidents and conditions in their daily operations. These present significant needs and challenges that require counselling to assist police officers.

Organisational Counselling Needs of Police Officers: Organisational counselling needs which have been defined as relating to organisational and leadership structure as well as culture within the police service have gained some amount of research interest. Some of the studies that have examined this area of need are reviewed in this section. For instance, Demou, Hale and Hunt (2020) were interested in learning more about the Police Service of Scotland's mental health issues and risk factors for poor mental health. The researchers sampled 30 superintendents and eight stakeholders for in-person and phone interviews. The top sources of stress cited were long work hours, heavy

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workloads, company culture, and shifts in leadership. The participants indicated that they would need more counselling support in these areas.

According to the study of Edwards, Eaton-Stull, and Kuehn (2021), officers' perceived requirements for departmental support, their levels of stress, coping strategies, and attitudes on police-community interactions were also investigated. In terms of organisational needs, the participants needed help in terms of staff shortage, bureaucratic red tape, inconsistent leadership style, dealing with co-workers and dealing with the court system).

The Organizational Police Stress Questionnaire was translated into Portuguese by Queirós et al. (2020) in order to measure operational and organizational needs and the means of coping among police officers. In a cross-sectional research, 1131 police officers completed online surveys. From what was shown in the study, 88.4 percent of police officers were experiencing high operational needs and 87.2 percent were experiencing high organisational needs. The researchers determined that police personnel were in need of counselling on organisational concerns.

A qualitative case study was undertaken by Yinger (2019) to examine the methods used by a small number of Central Pennsylvanian police officers who had received Crisis Intervention Team (CIT) training. Police officers from a rural department who have received CIT training and have responded to calls about mental health were studied. The main findings demonstrated that the structure and nature of how things are done in the police service affect and create a lot of stress for police officers. This puts the officers in situations where they need a great deal of counselling and support.

From the studies reviewed in this section, it can be realized that structure of the police institution, culture and the leadership system are a source of significant stress and challenge. Counselling support is therefore needed in this area of need for police officers. In the current study, the organisational counselling needs of police officers would be explored.

Personal-Social Counselling Needs of Police Officers: Psychosocial counselling for police personnel has been studied in some depth. Sections on a few of these research have already been covered. In the Greater Accra Region, Ghana, Quarshie, Odame and Annor (2020) investigated police officers' suicide rates and factors influencing their decisions to take their own lives. The researchers utilized the Suicide Behaviour Questionnaire-Revised to collect data from 268 police officers about their suicidal ideas, plans, threats, and attempts. In spite of the fact that 28 percent of participating police officers reported having suicidal thoughts at some point in their lives, no officer claimed to have actually attempted suicide. There was a consensus among the participants that greater psychological support was required to deal with any challenges they could face regarding suicidal ideation.

Police officers and their wives participated in a needs assessment conducted by Karaffa, Openshaw, Koch, Clark, Harr, and Stewart (2015) to identify the sorts of marital issues that were present. According to the findings of their study, police officers and their wives usually agreed on causes of stress and coping mechanisms. Despite expressing joy in being married to a cop, spouses also mentioned financial worries, work-family conflicts, and pressures unique to the legal profession, such as disapproving public

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perceptions of police. Officers and wives said they turned to their friends and family for comfort more often than they did professionals.

In India, Lambert, Qureshi, Frank, Keena and Hogan (2017) investigated the linkage between job stress and the various aspects of work-family conflict among Indian police personnel. The participants were from Indian districts of Sonipat and Rohtak in the state of Haryana. From the study, there was a significant link between three of four work-family conflict traits and stress in multivariate analysis. When it comes to strain-based conflict, behaviour-based conflict and family-based conflict, there was a high association.

Moreover, the disparities in stress, coping, burnout, and moral reasoning among Tamil Nadu police personnel were studied by Xavier and Prabhakar (2016). They discovered using the T test that stress levels for male and female cops are equal. Male and female police officers exhibited the same degrees of moral thinking. Burnout and coping mechanisms utilized by male and female police varied. The study demonstrated how male and female police personnel handled stressful situations differently and thus suffered from burnout in various ways.

From the studies discussed, it appears that police officers in different contexts experience different personal-social counselling needs. More research would help establish these counselling needs as essential in the literature.

Support For Police Officers: In this section, support available to police officers and their willingness to seek support to deal with their challenges and needs have been explored. Some of the studies in this area have been reviewed. For instance, Kirschman, Kamena and Fay (2014) explored the

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relationship between cops and the counsellors who provide them with support. They indicated that culturally competent intervention strategies for posttraumatic stress injuries are needed for cops. Also, they revealed that issues such as substance abuse, depression and suicidality, somatization, and panic attacks are some of the major issues which demand the support of counsellors.

Stinchcomb (2004) has intimated that police personnel are routinely subjected to the demands of organisational structures and policies. This results in chronic organizational strain and anxiety. He posited that management has to be more participative, use tactics like team-building, employee empowerment, improved leadership and employee communication, and alter stressful organizational rules and practices in order to combat organizational stress.

Sharp et al. (2015) conducted a comprehensive literature review on the possible obstacles to receiving mental health help among security personnel. They noted that 60 percent of military personnel with mental health concerns did not seek treatment. Also, they indicated that police officers resist the need for psychological assistance from mental health workers due to the stigma attached to it. When it comes to seeking mental help, police officers are more reluctant than the general population since it is viewed as stigmatizing in the field (Hansson & Markstrom, 2014; Royle, Keenan & Farrell, 2009).

Sharma (2019) evaluated earlier publications that discussed the coping mechanisms police personnel used to deal with the stress of their jobs. It was stated that counselling might offer insightful information on police officer stress and welfare as well as employee-employer relations in the police

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service. Sharma concluded from the analysis that stress was a common part of police officers' workdays. The health and welfare of police officers were negatively impacted by the stress and trauma they endured while on duty. In order to assist officers uphold their mental well-being and carry out their jobs more effectively, psychological support and counselling were essential. As a result, most police officers need counselling to deal with stress that comes with their jobs. The study came to the conclusion that police agencies should think about mandating periodic counselling for all officers as a procedural measure that would take care of the need for counselling while also addressing the root cause of officer stress.

Similar to this, Papazoglou and Tuttle (2018) investigated doable strategies for meeting police personnel' psychological needs. In the course of their investigation, the researchers discovered that the stress and trauma that police officers endure while doing their duties might have a detrimental effect on the health and wellbeing of the personnel. Therefore, in order to preserve their psychological health and to carry out their jobs effectively, police officers needed psychological care. However, police personnel were frequently hesitant and lacked the trust to seek counselling. Different factors contribute to this distrust. Particularly, police personnel held the view that mental health practitioners were ignorant of how the police operate. Particularly, police personnel can think that doctors are ignorant of how the police operate. Also, there was the view that personnel who sought for mental health care would have their life experiences brought to bear and thus feel stigmatised.

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Burns and Buchanan (2020) looked at the elements that influence whether a police population choose to seek out psychological services. Qualitative interviews were conducted with police personnel in the lower mainland of Canada, specifically British Columbia. From what was realized, it could be said that the system-based elements, availability of relevant information, good interpersonal relations, personal attributes and institutional procedures will have an influence on the possibility of police personnel seeking psychological help and treatments.

Marin (2012) examined issues relating to the work of the Ontario Provincial Police (OPP) in terms of their readiness for mental health assistance. After conducting a series of interviews, Marin's research made clear that despite several preventative and awareness initiatives, stigma associated with psychiatric illness was still deeply ingrained and persistent throughout OPP ranks. People who had psychological injuries frequently felt "weak, inferior, damaged, and occasionally dangerous" due to misconceptions about mental illness (p. 80).

Marin (2012) went on to say that these views may be further amplified in a police philosophy where importance is put on being stronger and in control. The general membership seems to distinguish between those who suffer physical workplace injuries that necessitate time off and others who get chronic stress-related illnesses. Marin claimed that cops still operated in a setting that encourages them to "suck it up and go on" (p. 83). Officers who were obviously struggling did not ask for assistance for the dread of being relocated, being rendered weaponless, or losing out on advancement possibilities, in addition to the dread of seeming weak to their fellow officers.

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Marin argued that only a fundamental shift in societal attitudes on psychological traumas could bring about systemic change.

Heffren and Hausdorf (2016) examined the exposure, perception, and early help-seeking behaviours of police officers dealing with severe stress. Using a sample of 421 online questionnaires sent in Southwestern Ontario, Canada, these researchers found that officer disclosure depended on how comfortable they were with disclosing their personal issues and the level of support at the workplace. More often than not, people turned to trusted sources like family and friends instead than counselors. The researchers posited that changing the way mental health treatments are presented—as consultations, coaching, and workshops—might reduce the stigma associated with seeking help. Additionally, they emphasized the possibility for basic stress management training early in an officer's career.

Karaffa and Koch (2016) looked at the views of police personnel numbering 248 from Oklahoma and Texas regarding obtaining treatment for mental health issues. Data were gathered using online survey. The researchers discovered that the officers' decisions to receive mental health care were influenced by the prevalence of self-stigma and public stigma. They found that individuals with lower self-stigma levels had high probability to have sought help for mental health issues before. People who believed that the general population had a bad attitude toward mental health issues had greater levels of self-stigma. Because of this, they had low probability of seeking treatment.

Generally, officers in the police service have been found in the literature to be less willing to seek help when they have psychological challenges. These have been confirmed in the literature even in more advanced

countries. This study seeks to bring to bear the forms of support available to police officers and their willingness to seek the support.

Gender and Counselling Needs of Police Officers: Gender has been examined as to how it is connected to the counselling needs of police officers. A research was conducted by Tsai, Nolasco and Vaughn (2016) utilizing data from the "Work and Family Services for Law Enforcement Personnel in the United States, 1995". By sampling 594 personnel from the police in New York City, the study was carried out. According to structural equation modeling, gender, race, education, and tenure had no effect on total workplace stress, but they did have an effect on the frequency of family talks with coworkers and the availability of counselling services, as well as the presence of an unhealthy work environment. There was also a clear correlation between rank and stress, a hazardous work environment, and workplace discussions concerning family. Police officers' well-being was also significantly affected by the combination of poor work conditions and counselling services.

Alwajud (2021) investigated counselling needs in Imo State, Nigeria. The study was descriptive and data were gathered using questionnaire. The findings showed that there was no significant difference in their counselling needs based on age and gender.

Kamunyu, Ndungo and Wango (2020) examined the gender preference of seeking therapeutic help. The study applied descriptive survey research design using quantitative and qualitative data. Data was gathered using in-depth interview schedules, questionnaires and Focus Group Discussions. The results showed that there was gender discrepancy in seeking counselling where more females than males sought counselling services.

Additionally, Abubakar (2020) investigated the counselling needs of young people in the Wa Municipality. The researcher used a descriptive survey design with a quantitative approach and gathered data using a questionnaire. The results showed that the needs for counselling services differed based on gender, age, marital status and programme pursued.

From the literature reviewed, it is clear that most of the studies found gender differences in counselling needs. This implies that in most of the studies males and females did not have similar counselling needs.

Age and Counselling Needs of Police Officers: Gender has been examined as to how it is connected to the counselling needs of police officers. The study of Edwards et al. (2021) of the perceived stress-related needs of police officers in the US also highlighted some findings in terms of demographic characteristics. They found that neither operational nor organizational needs of police officers differed by position, rank, or city size. However, operational and organizational needs varied in terms of age and years in law enforcement.

Quarshie et al. (2020) also looked at demographic features in their study on the frequency and correlates of suicide behaviours among police personnel in Greater Accra Region, Ghana. While the biggest statistically significant link between 12-month suicidal ideation and having a second job was found by the researchers, age, marital status, and work satisfaction were all shown to be significant predictors of suicidal ideation. Thus, overall, having other occupations, age, marital status, and work satisfaction were shown to be important in police officers counselling needs.

The study of Queirós et al. (2020) also revealed that the needs of police officers varied in terms of gender, age and job experience. Further, the study

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of Abubakar, Gyeyir and Adangabe (2022) was on the counselling needs of young adults in the Wa Municipality. The findings revealed that, there were significant differences in age concerning the need for guidance and counselling in services. Dankyi (2019) also examined counselling needs in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The descriptive survey design was used and data were gathered using questionnaire. The results showed that counselling needs differed on the basis of age.

From the studies reviewed, it is clear that a difference exists in terms of age. Thus, older and young individuals may not have the same counselling needs.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, Maslow's Theory of Need, McClelland's Theory of Needs and the General Strains Theory were the three theories considered. There was also an examination of concepts related to counselling needs. In addition, empirical studies were examined. Generally, it was observed through the literature that police officers have several challenges and needs in relation to their operations and their organisational system. In spite of this, police officers rarely sought for help or support in dealing with their issues and challenges.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

This study assessed the counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. This chapter discusses how to conduct the research. This chapter will make use of the following subheadings: research design, study area, population, sampling procedure, data collecting instrument, and procedure, and data processing and analysis.

Research Paradigm

The positivist paradigm was chosen for the study. According to Fadhel (2002), positivist paradigm is the paradigm which tries to interpret observations in terms of facts or measurable entities. A positivist researcher has an idea or notion that the universe or world conforms to permanent and unchanging laws and rules of causation and happenings and with emphasis on impartiality, measurement, objectivity and repeatability (Olesen, 2004; Ryan & Julia, 2007).

In relation to the current study, the positivist paradigm is appropriate because it provides an objective measurement of the counselling needs of police officers. Overall, the positivist paradigm was chosen for the study because the study focused on describing in numerical or quantitative terms the facts regarding the counselling needs of police officers.

Research Approach

The quantitative approach was adopted for the study. In the view of Bhandari (2020), quantitative approach in research is the process of collecting and analyzing numerical data. It can be used to find patterns and averages, make predictions, test causal relationships, and generalize results to wider

populations. Babbie (2010) stressed that quantitative methods emphasize objective measurements and the statistical, mathematical, or numerical analysis of data collected through questionnaires using computational techniques. In the current study, the quantitative approach helped to gather data using questionnaire and objective techniques in arriving at conclusions.

Quantitative research focuses on gathering numerical data and generalising it across groups of people or to explain a particular phenomenon. Thus, in relation to the current study, the approach was useful since the study focused on gathering data from police officers to describe their counselling needs in numerical form and generalise across the population of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis.

Research Design

The study adopted quantitative approach for the cross-sectional survey. The descriptive cross-sectional survey research design was employed. The choice of this design was chosen because it helped to describe the present state of the population at the time the study (Polit & Beck, 2007). In this current study, the choice of the descriptive cross-sectional survey design was helpful in obtaining data from the large group of police officers so as to describe their counselling needs.

Additionally, the descriptive survey was thought to be very appropriate method for carrying out this study because it deals with the existing state of things, thus, in the current study, counselling needs (Creswell, 2003). Thus, the design helped to ascertain the counselling needs of the police officers at the time of the study. By using the descriptive survey design, the researcher clearly found out and documented the existing counselling needs of the police

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officers who were involved in the study. This is what made the descriptive survey design appropriate in assessing the counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis.

The descriptive survey design is disadvantaged particularly when investigating private issues where individuals may be hesitant to open up and thus there is a chance of getting unreliable answers and it might be challenging to judge the clarity and accuracy of the questions that stimulate the required answers (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). In relation to the current study, it can be said that there was the possibility that the police officers would not be completely open about their counselling needs for fear in relation to their jobs. However, the researcher explained to them their responses could not be traced to them and that the study was mainly for academic reasons. This made them open in giving their views in the study. Overall, the use of the descriptive survey design was necessary in providing information on the current status of a phenomenon (counselling needs of police officers) by gathering data from the police officers.

Study Area

The Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis (STM), in Ghana's Western Region, served as the study's setting. Sekondi serves as the administrative center of the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis, which has a total land area of 219 km2. Ahanta West District, Mpohor Wassa East District, Shama District, and the Gulf of Guinea form the western, northern, eastern, and southern borders of STM, respectively. STM is located in Ghana's southwest, some 242 kilometers west of Accra, the nation's capital. The border of La Cote d'voire is likewise around 280 kilometers away (Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), 2014).

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According to the 2021 Population and Housing Census, Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis has 245,382 residents making up 11.9% of the Western Region (Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), 2021b). Females make up 48.6% while men make up 51.4%. According to the GSS (2021, p. 3), the metropolis has a household population of 233,790 with a total number of 73,965 households. Accident, violence, homicide and suicide are common in the metropolis usually accounting for more than 10% of all recorded deaths (Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), 2014). This information is relevant because the police officers are in charge of handling all manner of crimes and these can affect them, particularly in terms of their operational counselling needs. The map of the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis is shown in Figure 2.
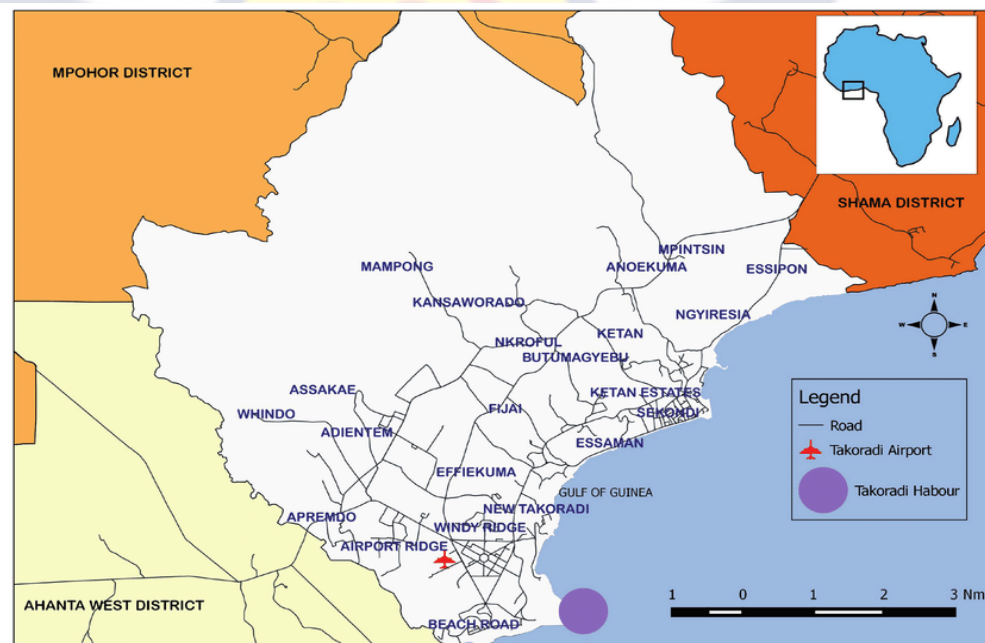
Figure 2: Map of Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis

Population

All police personnel in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis made up the study's population. The population was 969. This comprised 23 senior officers and 946 junior officers.

Sampling Procedure

The sample for the study was 278 police officers. This sample size was based on computations and table of Gill, Johnson, and Clark (2010). According to the sample determination table of Gill et al. a sample of 274 is appropriate for a population of 950 people, whereas a sample of 278 is appropriate for a population of 1000 people. As the population for this study was 969, a sample of 278 was selected as the population was closest to 1000.

The study used the stratified random sampling procedure. In using this procedure, the population was put into sub-groups and then sampling was done randomly from each sub-group. In putting the population into sub-groups, the researcher considered their ranks and their gender. Thus, respondents were put into sub-groups of their ranks and gender.

After putting the respondents into sub-groups of their ranks and gender, respondents were selected randomly from each sub-group. This was to ensure that each sub-group was adequately represented and that each respondent had an equal chance of being selected. This was the justification for using stratified random sampling. In this sense, police officers with both junior and senior rank were represented in the study.

The sample for the various strata was computed on the basis of their proportion in the main population. The computation is shown for each sub-group.

n / N x S=s

where

n= population of specific group

N=Total population

S=Sample Size

s=sample for specific group.

The sample calculation on the basis of ranks is shown below.

Sample for junior officers= 946÷969 x 278=271

Sample for senior officers= 23÷969 x 278=7

After, computing for ranks alone, computation was done for gender in each rank as follows:

Sample for male junior officers= 668÷946 x 271=191

Sample for female junior officers= 278÷946 x 271=80

Sample for male senior officers= 22÷23x 7=6

Sample for female senior officers= 1÷23x 7=1

The distribution of the sample is shown in Table 1.

Table 1- Sample Distribution

Rank	Population			Sample		
	Male	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
Junior Off.	668	278	946	191	80	271
Senior Off.	22	1	23	6	1	7
Total	690	279	969	197	81	278

Source: Researcher's Calculation

Data Collection Instrument

Questionnaire was used for data gathering. The type of questionnaire was a close-ended and adapted questionnaire. Since the study was quantitative and the design was descriptive survey, using questionnaire was appropriate in obtaining data that was numerical to describe the counselling needs of police officers. Also, the use of questionnaire was justified because it provided data that sufficiently answered the research questions as well as hypotheses. This is because data that is numerical is what is suitable in testing hypotheses.

The questionnaire was adapted from the instrument of McCreary and Thompson (2006) titled "Operational and Organisational Police Needs Questionnaire". This tool comprised 30 items using a 7-point scale (1=no stress to 7=a lot of stress). The instrument of McCreary and Thompson was validated through establishing content validity. Also, McCreary and Thompson obtained Cronbach alpha co-efficient of 0.85 as the reliability co-efficient of the original instrument.

The section of the questionnaire, focusing on the support available for police officers was adapted from Heffren and Hausdorf's (2016) instrument titled "Police Officer Stress" on how police officers cope with stress. The original instrument of Heffren and Hausdorf was content validated and had a reliability co-efficient of 0.812. The original instrument of Heffren and Hausdorf was scored as "Strongly agree = 4; Agree = 3; Disagree = 2; and Strongly disagree =1".

The instruments of McCreary and Thompson (2006) and Heffren and Hausdorf (2016) were put together as one instrument for the current study. In adapting them, the major change made was in the scoring. The final

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instrument for the study was on five-point Likert type scale comprising "Strongly agree = 5; Agree = 4; Neutral=3; Disagree = 2; and Strongly disagree =1". This means that in adapting the two instruments and putting them together as one, the main change had to do with the scoring of the instrument. The original instrument of McCreary and Thompson (2006) was on a 7-point scale (1=no stress to 7=a lot of stress) while the instrument of Heffren and Hausdorf (2016) was on a four-point scale. The adapted instrument changed this scoring to a five-point scale to ensure uniformity in the scoring. Also, the change was made because original scale of McCreary and Thompson was on stress but the current study was about counselling needs.

Overall, the questionnaire comprised five sections. Section A was focused on the background data of the participants comprising four items while Section B dealt with the operational counselling needs of the respondents comprising 17 items. Section C covered the organisational counselling needs of the respondents made up of 17 items while the Section D sought for information on the personal-social counselling needs of the respondents and was composed of 10 items. The final section (E) covered the support available to the respondents with only one question asked. In all, the questionnaire had 49 items.

Validity

The extent to which an instrument sufficiently measures what it was designed to measure is referred to as validity. My supervisor and two other lecturers at the Department of Guidance and Counselling in the University of Cape Coast evaluated the instrument's content validity since they are experts

in guidance and counselling and research to affirm that the instrument covers the intended content and is therefore valid for use. In establishing validity, it is appropriate that the views of experts be considered. This is how the content validity of the instrument was established.

Reliability

The reliability of the instrument was determined. Reliability indicates the stability and constancy with which the instrument measures its intended content. The reliability was obtained by assessing the internal consistency. This was computed using the Cronbach Alpha Co-efficient. A Cronbach alpha co-efficient of 0.79 was realized which gave the indication that the questionnaire was reliable.

The reliability for the various sections were also established. The Section B on the Operational Counselling Needs had a reliability of 0.801 while the section C on the Organisational Counselling Needs had a reliability of 0.804. Section D on the Personal-Social Counselling Needs had a reliability coefficient of 0.792 while the final section on the Support to Police Officers had a reliability of 0.795.

Pilot Testing

The instrument was pilot-tested in the Cape Coast Metropolis to ascertain its dependability. The Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis was passed up in favor of the Cape Coast Metropolis because of its shared qualities. Cape Coast Metropolis and Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis are similar in terms of the geography because they are both surrounded by the sea and so the residents mostly do similar jobs and are prone to similar kinds of crime. This makes the police work in the two metropolitan areas similar.

In all, 50 police personnel in the Cape Coast Metropolis received the questionnaire during the piloting. The researcher had the chance to adjust the instrument for the main study and assess the instrument's internal consistency during the pilot test. This means that after the pilot test, the reliability of the instrument was established. Aside the reliability, some changes were possible after the pilot test. For example, prior to the pilot test, the questionnaire had only single and married options for the marital status. This was changed after the pilot test to include widowed and divorced. Also, prior to the pilot test, the questionnaire did not have pastors as part of the support available. This was added because most of the participants in the pilot test wrote pastors as their form of support.

Data Collection Procedure

The Institutional Review Board at the University of Cape Coast gave its approval for the data collection once it had received ethical clearance. After that, the Department of Guidance and Counselling sent an introduction letter. Through this, the police chief in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis was given the go-ahead to allow data collection from the cops. The data was gathered during a two-week period. A 100% return rate was realized after the data collection.

Ethical Considerations

Consideration was given to ethical issues like consent, anonymity, confidentiality and autonomy. The consent of the respondents was sought before the study is carried out. Again, the researcher ensured that the identities of the respondents are kept private. This was to ensure that no one can trace a specific response to a specific participant. The researcher also ensured that the

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data gathered from the participants are kept confidential for academic use only and not exposed to third parties without the consent of the participant. In ensuring autonomy of the participants, the participants were given the freedom to choose whether to be a part of the study or not. They were also given the freedom to quit the study at any time if they wanted to.

Data Processing and Analysis

The Statistical Product for Service Solutions (SPSS) version 22 was used as the software to aid the processing and analysis of the data. The demographic data was analysed using frequency and percentages. Data for research questions 1, 2, 3 and 4 were analysed using mean and standard deviation. These research questions are on the operational, organizational and personal-social counselling needs, and the common counselling needs. Data for research question 5 was analysed using frequencies and percentages.

In testing hypothesis 1, independent samples t-test was used. This is because the focus of the hypothesis was to compare counselling needs on the basis of gender (two groups). One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was employed for hypothesis 2. This hypothesis focused on finding the difference in counselling needs on the basis of age (more than two groups).

Chapter Summary

This chapter covered the research techniques used to conduct the study. The design adopted was descriptive survey. From a population of 969 police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis, a sample of 278 officers was chosen using stratified random sampling. Utilizing modified questionnaires, information was gathered. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were utilised in the data analyses.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This study sought to assess the counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. In this chapter, the results of the study together with the discussion are presented.

Demographic Characteristics

The demographic data of the participants are shown in Table 2. They include the gender, age, marital status and ranking of the respondents.

Table 2- Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographics	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	197	70.9
Female	81	29.1
Total	278	100.0
Age (in years)		
25 and below	37	13.3
26-40	113	40.7
41-60	128	46.0
Total	278	100.0

Source: Field survey (2022)

It is shown in Table 2 that majority of the participants were males (197, 70.9%) while 81 respondents corresponding to 29.1% were females. This means that there were more males in the study compared to females. Among the police service in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis, there are more males than females and so what is noticed in the current study was not surprising. Also, it can be seen in Table 2 that most of the respondents were

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either aged between 41 and 60 years (46%) or between 26 and 40 years (40.7%). Only 13.3% of the respondents were aged 25 years and below.

Main Results

The data were scored on a scale of: 1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2= Disagree (D), 3=Neutral (N), 4= Agree (A) and 5=Strongly Agree (SA). The data were analysed using means and standard deviations. Since the questionnaire was scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale, the threshold for the interpretation was that mean scores above 3.0 were deemed to be high while mean scores below 3.0 were deemed to be low. Higher mean scores imply that the respondents agreed to the specific statements while lower mean scores imply that the respondents disagreed to the specific statements.

Research Question 1: What are the common operational counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

This research question sought to find out the common operational counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. The results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3 shows that the respondents had operational counselling needs because of negative comments from the public regarding their work (M=3.81, SD=1.49). This means that the respondents were affected in terms of how the public perceived them negatively. In the same vein, the respondents noted that their families and friends as the respondents indicated that their families and friends felt the effects of stigma related to my job (M=3.40, SD=1.64). These could be connected to the respondents indicating that they have counselling needs concerning upholding a "higher image" in public (M=3.41, SD=1.49).

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Table 3- Mean Analysis of Common Operational Counselling Needs

Statement	Mean	Std. Dev.
I need counselling because of…		
Shift work	3.63	1.73
Working alone in the night	2.82	1.66
Over-time demands	3.20	1.63
Risk of getting injured during work	3.14	1.75
Work-related activities when not on duty	3.35	1.63
Traumatic events (e.g. death, injury)	3.09	1.62
Management of social life out of the workplace	3.21	1.61
Not spending enough time with family and friends	3.15	1.52
Too much paperwork	2.72	1.59
My eating habit at work	2.79	1.47
Finding time to be in good physical shape	3.05	1.65
Fatigue	3.42	1.64
Job-related health problems (e.g. back pain)	3.59	1.53
Lack of understanding from family and friends about my work	3.34	1.51
Upholding a "higher image" in public	3.41	1.49
Negative comments from the public	3.81	1.49
Family and friends affected by stigma related to my job	3.40	1.64
Mean of means	3.24	1.59

Source: Field survey (2022)

Also, Table 3 shows that the respondents expressed counselling needs in relation to their shift work (M=3.63, SD=1.73), job-related health problems (e.g. back pain) (M=3.59, SD=1.53) and fatigue (M=3.42, SD=1.64). Aside these, the respondents had counselling needs because of work related activities when not on duty (e.g. court, community events) (M=3.35, SD=1.63) and lack of understanding from family and friends about their work (M=3.34,

SD=1.51). The mean of means of 3.24 is greater than 3.0 and as such shows that generally, the participants agreed to most of the statements.

From the results, it is realised that the common operational counselling needs of the respondents had to do with the negative perceptions associated with their work, how these perceptions affected their families and friends, and the need to uphold "higher image" in the public. Others include how to deal with the shift-nature of their work, occupational-related health issues, fatigue, not spending time with families and friends, overtime demands, risks of injuries, and traumatic events or experiences.

Research Question 2: What are the common organisational counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

This research question aimed to bring out the common organisational counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. The results are presented in Table 4.

From Table 4, it is evident that the respondents had a lot of organisational counselling needs. Specifically, the respondents indicated that they needed counselling because of the struggles with inadequacy of equipment or tools for work (M=3.94, SD=1.45). The respondents also revealed that they needed counselling because of the nature of internal investigations (M=3.84, SD=1.35) and inconsistency in style of leadership (M=3.75, SD=1.54).

Other organisational counselling needs in Table 4 include the burden for accountability (M=3.68, SD=1.53), lack of resources (M=3.67, SD=1.51), dealing with supervisors (M=3.65, SD=1.44), the burden of having to prove themselves (M=3.63, SD=1.30), and unequal or uneven sharing of work

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responsibilities (M=3.54, SD=1.60). These were the most common organisational counselling needs as indicated by the respondents. The mean of means which was 3.44 shows that generally the respondents agreed to most of the statements concerning their organisational counselling needs.

Table 4- Mean Analysis of Common Organisational Counselling Needs

Statement	Mean	Std. Dev.
I need counselling because of…		
The stress of dealing with co-workers	3.25	1.62
The feeling that different rules apply to different people	3.23	1.57
Feeling of having to always prove myself	3.63	1.30
Excessive administrative tasks	3.34	1.62
Regular changes in policies and rules	3.31	1.55
Inadequate staff	3.49	1.45
Bureaucratic red tape issues	2.90	1.58
A lot of computer work	2.68	1.53
Lack of training on how to use new machinery	3.38	1.51
Perceived pressure to do extra hours of work	3.28	1.42
Dealing with supervisors	3.65	1.44
Inconsistency in the style of leadership	3.75	1.54
Lack of resources	3.67	1.51
Uneven sharing of responsibilities at the workplace	3.54	1.60
Nature of internal investigations	3.84	1.35
The need for accountability at work	3.68	1.53
Inadequate tools for work	3.94	1.45
Mean of means	3.44	1.50

Source: Field survey (2022)

From the results in Table 4, it is clear that inadequacy of equipment and resources, nature of internal investigations, inconsistency of leadership, unequal sharing of work responsibilities, burden of accountability and having

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to prove themselves, and dealing with supervisors. These organisational issues were deemed burdensome for the respondents.

Research Question 3: What are the common personal-social counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

The aim of this research question was to identify the common personal-social counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5- Mean Analysis of Common Personal-Social Counselling Needs

Statement	Mean	Std. Dev.
I need counselling because…		
I need to understand more about myself.	3.49	1.55
I have difficulty relating well with other staff members.	3.01	1.55
I need to know how to solve interpersonal conflicts.	3.66	1.35
I have problem making new friends.	3.11	1.56
I have problem dealing with disappointment.	3.16	1.58
I have problem with relationship and marriage issues.	3.29	1.55
I lack freedom at work and home.	3.07	1.63
I have problem meeting family demands.	3.41	1.56
I have medical problems.	3.06	1.72
I have a problem relating well with my superiors.	2.93	1.63
Mean of Means	3.22	1.57

Source: Field survey (2022)

Table 5 shows that the respondents needed counselling in solving interpersonal conflicts (M=3.66, SD=1.35). This was the counselling need with the highest mean score. Also, the respondents noted that they needed counselling to understand more about themselves (M=3.49, SD=1.55) and meeting family demands (M=3.41, SD=1.56).

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In addition, the respondents were of the view that they needed counselling because of problems relating to relationships and marriages (M=3.29, SD=1.55) and dealing with disappointments (M=3.16, SD=1.58). The mean of means of 3.22 which is above the 3.0 cut-off shows that the respondents agreed to most of the statements on their personal-social counselling needs. From the results in Table 5, it can be clearly seen that the common personal-social counselling needs of the respondents were solving interpersonal conflicts, understanding themselves, meeting family demands, solving marriage and relationship issues, and dealing with disappointments.

Research Question 4: What are the common counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

In this research question, the common counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis were assessed. Specifically, this research question was to find out the common needs among the three main categories of counselling needs. Using mean and standard deviation for the analysis, the results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6- Common Counselling Needs

Counselling Needs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank
Operational	3.23	0.99	2nd
Organisational	3.45	0.92	1st
Personal-social	3.22	1.07	3rd
Overall Counselling Needs	3.30	0.99	

Source: Field Survey (2022)

It is evident from Table 6 that the common counselling need was organisational counselling needs (M=58.59, SD=15.72). This was followed by operational counselling needs (M=54.86, SD=16.93) and personal-social

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counselling needs (M=32.20, SD=10.07). From the results, it was shown that the respondents commonly had organisational counselling needs and fewer personal-social counselling needs. This means that the respondents had more counselling needs related to how the police organisation worked and how that affected them.

Research Question 5: What support is available to police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

This research question aimed to identify the support available to police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. The respondents were provided with a list of forms of support from which they had to choose. The respondents could choose more than one form of support at the same time. The data were analysed using frequencies and percentages. The results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7- Frequency Responses on Available Forms of Support

Forms of Support	Frequency	Percentage
Counsellors	122	43.9
Family members	177	63.7
Friends	162	58.3
Superiors	142	51.1
Pastors	130	46.8

Source: Field survey (2022)

Table 7 shows 177 (63.7%) responses for family member support available. Next to this was 162 (58.3%) responses for friends support available. Aside the above, there was 142 (51.1%) responses for superiors support available. It was however shown that, only 122 (43.9%) responses for counsellors support available. From Table 7, it can be said that family, friends

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and superiors are the main support available for the police officers while counsellors support was the least available for police officers.

Hypothesis One

H_01:   There is no statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of male and female police officers.

H_11:   There is a statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of male and female police officers.

This hypothesis sought to find out the significant difference in the counselling needs of male and female police officers. The data was analyzed using an independent samples t-test with a significance level of 0.05. The counselling needs were in three categories (operational, organisational and personal-social). Male and female police officers were compared on these three categories of needs along with the total counselling needs.

The Levene's test for homogeneity of variance was the first to be used to assess the equality of variances. Table 8 summarizes the findings.

Table 8- Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

Counselling needs	F	Sig
Operational counselling needs		
Equal variances assumed	1.643	.201
Equal variances not assumed		
Organisational counselling needs		
Equal variances assumed	2.212	.138
Equal variances not assumed		
Personal-social counselling needs		
Equal variances assumed	0.424	.515
Equal variances not assumed		
Overall counselling needs		
Equal variances assumed	2.377	.124
Equal variances not assumed		

Source: Field Survey (2022)

It can be observed in Table 8 that the significant values for all the categories of counselling needs are greater than .05. For operational counselling needs, the significant value obtained was .201 while for organisational counselling needs, the significant value obtained was .138. Personal-social counselling needs also recorded a significant value of .515 while the total or overall counselling needs recorded a significant value of .124. From the results, it can be realized that equality of variance can be assumed for all the different categories of counselling needs.

The results of the independent samples t-test are presented in Table 9.

Table 9- T-Test on Differences in Counselling Needs of Male and Female Police Officers

	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-value	Sig (2-tailed)
Operational						
Male	197	55.09	17.27	276	.350	.727
Female	81	54.31	16.16			
Organisational						
Male	197	58.54	16.15	276	-.092	.927
Female	81	58.73	14.72			
Personal-social						
Male	197	31.85	10.19	276	-.900	.369
Female	81	33.05	9.79			
Overall						
Male	197	145.48	35.23	276	-.134	.894
Female	81	146.09	31.48			

Source: Field survey (2022)   Not Significant, p>.05

The results of the independent samples t-test are shown in Table 9. For operational counselling needs, there was no statistically significant difference between male and female police officers [t (276) = .350, p>.05]. Similarly, no

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statistically significant difference was observed between male and female police officers in terms of organisational counselling needs [t (276) = -.092, p>.05]. Also, regarding personal-social counselling needs, no statistically significant difference was observed between male and female police officers [t (276) = -.900, p>.05]. Finally, there was no statistically significant difference between male and female police officers in their overall counselling needs [t (276) = -.134, p>.05].

It can be stated that there were no significant differences in the significant values of the major categories of counselling requirements between male and female police officers. This led to the retention of the null hypothesis, which claimed that there is no discernible difference in the counselling requirements of male and female police officers.

Hypothesis Two

$H_0 2$:   There is no statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of police officers on the basis of age.

$H_1 2$:   There is a statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of police officers on the basis of age.

The hypothesis sought to find out if there was a statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of police officers on the bases of their ages. The One-Way ANOVA was used to analyze the data at the 0.05 level of significance since there were three different age groups involved in the study. In using One-Way ANOVA, there was the need to assess the homogeneity of variance among the groups. The results of the Levene's test for homogeneity are shown in Table 10.

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Table 10- Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Counselling needs	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Operational	.178	2	275	.837
Organisational	1.095	2	275	.336
Personal-social	3.292	2	275	.139
Overall	7.505	2	275	.101

Source: Field survey (2022)

It is shown in Table 10 that operational counselling needs recorded a significant value of .837 while organisational counselling needs recorded a significant value of .336. Personal-social counselling needs recorded a significant value of .139 while overall counselling needs recorded a significant value of .101. From the results, it is clear that equality of variances can be assumed for all the categories of counselling needs.

The descriptive statistics for the various age groups are presented in Table 11.

Table 11- Descriptive Results for Different Age Groups

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Operational Counselling Needs			
25 years and below	37	58.08	16.82
26-40 years	113	54.04	16.71
41-60 years	128	54.66	17.17
Total	278	54.86	16.93
Organisational Counselling Needs			
25 years and below	37	59.65	15.30
26-40 years	113	60.07	14.23
41-60 years	128	56.98	17.01
Total	278	58.59	15.72
Personal-social Counselling Needs			
25 years and below	37	33.05	11.21
26-40 years	113	30.27	8.55
41-60 years	128	33.66	10.74
Total	278	32.20	10.07
Overall Counselling Needs			
25 years and below	37	150.78	34.99
26-40 years	113	144.39	27.96
41-60 years	128	145.29	38.65
Total	278	145.66	34.12

Source: Field survey (2022)

The mean and standard deviations of the different age groups across the various counselling needs are shown in Table 11. Under operational counselling needs, it is shown that respondents aged 25 years and below recorded the highest mean score of 58.08 and a standard deviation of 16.82. This means that group had more operational counselling needs compared to the other groups. On the other hand, respondents within the age group of 26 to 40 years recorded the lowest mean score indicating that they had the least operational counselling needs.

Regarding organisational counselling needs, it was shown that respondents in the 26 to 40 years age group had the highest mean score of 60.07 and a standard deviation of 14.23. However, the respondents between the ages of 41 and 60 years recorded the lowest mean score of 56.98 and a standard deviation of 17.01. The implication of the results is that respondents between 26 to 40 years of age have more organisational counselling needs than the other age groups.

Further, respondents aged 41 to 60 years had the highest mean score in relation to personal-social counselling needs (M=33.66, SD=10.74) while respondents aged 26 to 40 years had the lowest mean score of 30.27 and a standard deviation of 8.55. From the results, it is clear that the respondents between the ages of 41 and 60 years had more personal-social counselling needs. Finally, in terms of the overall counselling needs, it is shown that the respondents aged 25 years and below had the highest mean score of 150.78 implying that they had more overall counselling needs than the other age groups.

Table 12 shows the results of the ANOVA test used to determine the significance in the differences between the age groups.

Table 12- ANOVA on Differences in Counselling Needs on the Basis of Age

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Operational					
Between Groups	464.395	2	232.198	.809	.446
Within Groups	78886.411	275	286.860		
Total	79350.806	277			
Organisational					
Between Groups	619.234	2	309.617	1.255	.287
Within Groups	67845.835	275	246.712		
Total	68465.068	277			
Personal-social					
Between Groups	717.457	2	358.728	3.604*	.028
Within Groups	27369.262	275	99.525		
Total	28086.719	277			
Overall					
Between Groups	1170.680	2	585.340	.501	.607
Within Groups	321375.856	275	1168.639		
Total	322546.536	277			

Source: Field survey (2022)   *Significant, p<.05

From Table 12, it is shown that there is no statistically significant difference in the operational counselling needs of the respondents on the basis of age [F (2, 275) =.809, p>.05]. In a similar vein, there is no statistically significant difference in the organisational counselling needs of the respondents on the basis of age [F (2, 275) =1.255, p>.05]. However, concerning personal-social counselling needs, it can be seen that there is a statistically significant difference on the basis of ages [F (2, 275) = 3.604,

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p<.05]. The probability value (p-value) of 0.028 was less than the .05 significant level. This implies that the personal-social counselling needs of the respondents varied on the basis of age. Concerning the overall counselling needs, no significant difference was found on the basis of age [F (2, 275) =.501, p>.05].

From the results in Table 12, it is clear that significant difference on the basis of age was only observed in terms of personal-social counselling needs. Since a significant difference was found, there was the need for a post-hoc test in order to determine which of the three age groups caused the significant difference obtained in the ANOVA results. Tukey's Post-Hoc test was used for the post-hoc analysis. Tukey's test helps to find out which groups in a specific sample differ from each other. The results of the post-hoc test are presented in Table 13.

Table 13- Post-hoc Results of Differences in Counselling Needs on the basis of Age

(I) A3	(J) A3	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
25 and below	26-40	2.77972	1.88960	.306	-1.6731	7.2325
	41-60	-.60220	1.86209	.944	-4.9902	3.7858
26-40	25 and below	-.277972	1.88960	.306	-7.2325	1.6731
	41-60	-3.38191*	1.28774	.025	-6.4165	-.3474
41-60	25 and below	.60220	1.86209	.944	-3.7858	4.9902
	26-40	3.38191*	1.28774	.025	.3474	6.4165

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Source: Field survey (2022)

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Table 13 shows results of the post-hoc test. It can be seen that there is a significant difference in the personal-social counselling needs of respondents in the age groups of 26 to 40 years and 41 to 60 years (p=0.025). This difference was responsible for the significant difference observed in the personal-social counselling needs of the police officers.

The Tukey homogeneous subsets for the age groups are presented in Table 14.

Table 14- Tukey HSD[a,b]

		Subset for alpha = 0.05
Age	N	1
26-40 Years	113	30.2743
25 Years and below	37	33.0541
41-60 Years	128	33.6563
Sig.		.117

Source: Field survey (2022)

From Table 14, it can be seen that respondents in the age group 41 to 60 years recorded the highest mean score of 33.66. This means that they had the most personal-social counselling needs while respondents aged 26 to 40 years (M=30.27) had the fewest personal-social counselling needs.

Discussion

Common Operational Counselling Needs

The study sought to identify the specific operational counselling needs which were the most common among police officers. From the results, it was seen that the common operational counselling needs of the respondents had to do with the negative perceptions associated with their work, how these perceptions affected their families and friends, and the need to uphold "higher image" in the public. Other operational counselling needs identified include

how to deal with the shift-nature of their work, occupational-related health issues, fatigue, activities during days off, lack of understanding from families and friends, not spending time with families and friends, overtime demands, risks of injuries, and traumatic events or experiences.

Operational counselling needs are usually those needs relating to the daily work and operations of police officers such as how they balance work and family as well as the stress of the usual difficulties on the job. In the work of police officers, they are likely to encounter several issues. For instance, in Ghana, there are several negative perceptions about the work of police officers. The image that Ghanaians have concerning the operations of the police service is not good and this can be a significant source of concern for police officers.

Also, the nature of the work of police officers can bring injuries and traumatic events. These together with the negative perceptions can make families and friends uncomfortable. Police officers therefore need counselling to navigate all these issues. The findings in the current study are therefore understandable.

The results in this current study are in consonance with the findings of Edwards et al. (2021) in the North Eastern United States that police officers, operationally, needed help in terms of the amount of time spent at work, balancing home and work activities, fatigue from work and staying in good physical condition. In a similar vein, Garber (2020) revealed that first responders need counselling in terms of dealing with the nature of their operations such as the chronic exposure to critical incidents and vicarious

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trauma. This was supported in the current study as one of the common operational counselling needs of the respondents.

Moreover, the findings of the current study that negative image about police service confirm several previous Ghanaian studies. For instance, Braimah and Mbowura (2014) studied crime prevention in Developing Economies in Africa with a particular focus on Ghana and the Ghana Police Service and came to the conclusion that police officers' performance was impacted by the public's negative opinions of the police service. The impressions of people of the Ghanaian police service were also examined by Osei-Adubofour (2017), who found that the lack of perceived political neutrality among Ghanaians is associated with poor public confidence in the police. These were then connected to negative evaluations of police legitimacy.

In connection to the theories reviewed, the results of this study that the operational counselling needs of police officers involves how to deal with the shift-nature of their work, occupational-related health issues, fatigue, activities during days off, lack of understanding from families and friends, not spending time with families and friends, overtime demands, risks of injuries, and traumatic events or experiences are in line with the General Strain Theory. The General Strain Theory proposes that environment and the people around an individual can present significant stress to the individual (Walton, Dawson-Edwards & Higgins, 2015).

Generally, the outcomes of the current study appear to be in consonance with the findings of several previous studies. This has been demonstrated in the forgoing discussion. Therefore, it can be said that

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operational counselling needs of police officers include negative image and perceptions of the public, not spending time with families and friends, overtime demands, risks of injuries, and traumatic events or experiences.

From the forgoing, it is the personal position of the researcher that police officers have several counselling needs in relation to their operations. These counselling needs have to be addressed to ease the experiences of the police officers as they undergo their work and also in terms of their relations with families and the public.

Common Organisational Counselling Needs

The study examined the common organisational counselling needs of the police officers. It was found that inadequacy of equipment and resources, nature of internal investigations, inconsistency of leadership, burden of accountability and having to prove themselves, and dealing with supervisors were the common organisational counselling needs of the respondents. Organisational counselling needs are usually needs relating to organisational and leadership structure as well as culture within the police service.

In the Ghana police service, there are constant reports of inadequacy of equipment and resources which are affecting their work negatively. When people have to work without the needed equipment and resources, they are likely to struggle and not have an ease in working. This is why the respondents indicated it as a concern to them. Also, when leadership is inconsistent in its treatment of staff, it creates a sense of discomfort among the staff. This could explain the reason for the findings. Police officers are also constantly facing the burden of accountability and proving themselves before their superiors and

the public. All of these are common realities among the Ghana Police Service. As such, the results were not surprising.

The results of this study corroborate Demou, Hale and Hunt's (2020) assertions that police officers' organizational counselling requirements were related to workload, culture, leadership, and organizational transformation. The study's participants said they would require greater counselling support in the areas mentioned by Demou et al. Similar to this, Edwards et al. (2021) found that in terms of organizational needs, police officers required assistance in dealing with court procedures, coworkers' uneven leadership styles, and bureaucratic red tape. In addition, the results of this current study confirm the findings of Yinger (2019) that the structure and nature of how things are done in the police service affect and create a lot of stress for police officers. This puts the officers in situations where they need a great deal of counselling and support.

The results of the current study also support proposed by McClelland (1987). McClelland indicated that the needs of people usually revolve around achievement, affinity, and power. Since the organisational needs of the police officers in the study had to do with inadequacy of equipment and resources, nature of internal investigations, inconsistency of leadership, burden of accountability and having to prove themselves, and dealing with supervisors, the theory of McClelland was confirmed.

From the discussion, it is clear that structure of the police institution, culture and the leadership system are a source of significant stress and challenge. This was confirmed in the several studies discussed along with the findings of the current study. Counselling support is therefore needed in the

organisational need for police officers. The researcher therefore opines that leadership systems and institutional structure in the police service present significant counselling needs for police officers.

Common Personal-Social Counselling Needs

The study aimed to bring to light the personal-social counselling needs of the police officers. From the results, it was clearly seen that the common personal-social counselling needs of the respondents were solving interpersonal conflicts, understanding themselves, meeting family demands, solving marriage and relationship issues, and dealing with disappointments. These personal-social issues are common for police officers because they usually do not have time for themselves because of their work and as such they would experience a lot of conflicts in their relationships, friendships, families and marriages. Generally, it is evident that the personal-social lives of police officers are affected by the nature of their work and so would need counselling to be assisted in dealing with what issues they may have.

The findings support the findings of Karaffa, Openshaw, Koch, Clark, Harr and Stewart (2015) that police officers had challenges in relation to their families. Similarly, Tuttle, Blumberg and Papazoglou (2019) conducted a study on the critical challenges to police officer wellness and revealed that police officers needed counselling in terms of post-trauma intervention and peer support so as to deal with stress, anxiety, guilt, hopelessness, and powerlessness. This is because these issues affected their personal lives and family lives.

In addition, Basińska and Wiciak (2013) evaluated the benefits and drawbacks of police and fireman job on their wellbeing in several domains of

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life and revealed that police officers needed more counselling in terms of their social, economic and health lives as well as their self-esteem. The findings of the current study also give credence to the findings of Lambert, Qureshi, Frank, Keena and Hogan (2017) in India that police officers had several issues at work which created conflicts at home which affected their wellbeing and that of their families.

The General Strain Theory of Agnew (1992). Agnew emphasized that the strain theory places a clear emphasis on personal and interpersonal issues as source of strain or stress. Thus, the personal-social counselling needs of the respondents in this current study were in line with the theory. The discussion has shown clearly that police officers have several personal-social counselling needs. These needs are mostly related to interpersonal conflicts, family and marriage issues. This was confirmed in the studies discussed. The researcher therefore is of the view that interpersonal issues of police officers are significant counselling needs that demand attention.

Common Counselling Needs

The study aimed at finding out which category of counselling needs (operational, organisational and personal-social) was the most common. The study showed that the most common counselling needs of the police officers was organisational counselling needs. This was followed by operational counselling needs and personal-social counselling needs. Thus, according to the findings, the respondents required more organizational counselling than personal-social counselling. Organisational counselling needs include such needs as work schedules, equipment and resources, which are usually up to management discretion and decision-making (Edwards, Eaton-Stull & Kuehn,

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2021). Others include issues with police cultures (such as stigma, help-seeking behaviours, secrecy, "masculine" culture, "cupboarding," and bullying), job roles (such as rank, lack of position definition and evaluation, inefficient handovers), organizational structures, and transformation (Yinger, 2019).

In Ghana, police work involves a lot of organisational challenges, particularly, in terms of the scrutiny, leadership and resources for work. It thus did not appear to be surprising that organisational counselling needs were more common than other categories of needs in this study. This result is consistent with Purba and Demou's (2019) finding that police officers perceived organizational stresses and needs as the primary stressors and needs, as opposed to operational stressors and needs. The results of the current study further corroborate Brough's (2004) conclusion that organisational needs and stresses have a more negative impact on work satisfaction among police officers than other problems, and that as a result, officers view such problems as deserving of attention.

Further, the findings of the current study confirm that of Tuttle, Blumberg and Papazoglou (2019), counselling needs for police officers ranged from shift work and responding to major incidents to dealing with public demands, covering organisational, operational, community-related, and personal needs in that order. However, Queirós et al. (2020) discovered that 88.4% of police officers experienced more operational needs while 87.2 % had high organisational needs. According to Queirós et al., the police personnel primarily sought counselling for operational concerns. Contrary to what was shown in the current study, which indicated that police personnel primarily need counselling for organizational issues.

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Essentially, the current study showed that the police officers had different counselling needs. This is in line with Maslow's (1943) theory that needs of individuals included physiological, safety or security, love or belongingness, self-esteem and self-actualization. According to Maslow, it is crucial to understand a person's position in the hierarchical pyramid in order to meet that person's needs and inspire them (Robbins in Kaur, 2013). Thus, knowing which need was deemed common for the respondents was essential.

From the results discussed, it is clear that most existing studies support the claim that police officers may have organisational counselling needs more than other categories of needs. This means organisational leaderships may have a lot to do with the negative experiences that police officers have at their workplace.

Support Available to Police Officers

The study aimed at finding out the forms of support available to police officers. The study revealed that family, friends and superiors are the main forms of support for the police officers while counsellors were the forms of support that was least used by the police officers. Family remains the first point of call whenever people are in crisis situations. As a result, police officers are likely to see the family as their main support system. Also, friends are deemed important to most people because they can be easily reached. This could explain why the police officers in the study considered friends as available forms of support. In the work of the police service, as with most workplaces, there is always the need to seek support from superiors since they have worked in the institution for long and may have more experience and information.

However, most of the respondents did not receive support from counsellors. This could be because there was low awareness of counselling services in the police service or that they just did not want to receive help from counsellors.

The results of the current study corroborate those of Heffren and Hausdorf (2016), who found that police employees sought help from family and friends more frequently than from trained counselors in Southwest Ontario, Canada. Similar to this, Sharp et al. (2015) came to the conclusion that 60% of military officers with mental health issues did not seek professional assistance. Police officers are greatly deterred from seeking psychological support because of the stigma attached to receiving treatment for a mental health illness. Police officers frequently hesitate to seek professional psychiatric care (Hansson & Markstrom, 2014; Royle, Keenan, & Farrell, 2009). This is usually because of the stigma attached to seeking professional help. Police officers have been seen to be people who should be strong and as such any attempt to seek professional help may be seen as weak. This could explain why they did not seek support from counsellors.

In addition, the findings of the study corroborate those of Papazoglou and Tuttle (2018), who discovered that police officers held the view that mental health practitioners were ignorant of how the police operate. Particularly, police personnel can think that doctors are ignorant of how the police operate. Also, there was the view that personnel who sought for mental health care would have their life experiences brought to bear and thus feel stigmatised. Additionally, police personnel reportedly relied more on friends and family than on expert resources for assistance, according to Karaffa et al.

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(2015). This summarises the entirety of the discussion on the support available to police officers.

From the forgoing, it appears that police officers less willing to seek professional help to their counselling needs. These have been shown in numerous studies from numerous settings.

Gender and Counselling Needs

The results on gender difference in counselling needs indicated no significant difference. There was no statistically significant difference in operational counselling requirements between male and female police officers. In terms of organizational counselling requirements, there was again no statistically significant difference between male and female police personnel. Additionally, there was no statistically significant difference between male and female police officers in terms of their demands for personal-social counselling. Finally, there was no statistically significant difference in the total counselling requirements of male and female police officers. Therefore, the null hypothesis—according to which there was no discernible difference in the counselling requirements of male and female police officers—was retained.

From the results, it is clear that male and female police officers have similar counselling needs. The findings are in line with Tsai, Nolasco and Vaughn (2016) that sex, race, education, and tenure did not have a direct influence on the counselling needs of police officers. Similarly, Xavier and Prabhakar (2016) found among police officers in Tamil Nadu that there was no difference in the counselling and psychological needs of male and female officers. In contrast, the study of Queirós et al. (2020) revealed that the needs

of police officers varied on the basis of gender. The contradiction could be due to different measures for the needs of the police officers.

It appears from the discussion that there is still inconsistency regarding gender difference in counselling needs of police officers. This is because some researchers found gender difference while other researchers found no gender difference.

Age and Counselling Needs

According to the study, there was no statistically significant difference between the respondents' operational counselling requirements by age. In a similar vein, there was no statistically significant difference in the respondents' needs for organizational counselling based on age. However, there was a statistically significant difference based on age when it came to personal-social counselling requirements. There was no discernible variation in the total counselling requirements based on age.

From the results, therefore, a significant difference was observed on the basis of age in terms of personal-social counselling needs. Specifically, respondents in the age group 41 to 60 years had the most personal-social counselling needs while respondents aged 26 to 40 years had the fewest personal-social counselling needs. The results mean that age was a major factor of consideration in terms of personal-social counselling needs but not in terms of operational and organisational counselling needs. Police officers of different ages are likely to have similar operational and organisational needs because they are mostly related to the institution. However, personal-social worries may vary on the basis of age. This could explain the finding of the current study.

The results confirm Queirós et al. (2020) findings that the demands of police personnel vary according to age. In addition, Quarshie et al. (2020) found that age affected the psychological requirements of police officers in their investigation of the incidence and correlates of suicide behaviours among police officers in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. In the same vein, Edwards et al. (2021) revealed that police officers in the US had operational and organizational needs, which differed by age.

It has become evident that age difference can be seen in personal-social counselling needs but may not be observed in operational and organisational counselling needs. There may be inconsistencies when different studies are compared. More research may be needed on the difference in counselling needs on the basis of age.

Chapter Summary

The results and analysis of the investigation were reported in the chapter. This study provided answers to two hypotheses and five research questions in total. Generally, it was found that organisational counselling needs were the most common counselling needs among the respondents. Specifically, negative image and perception of the public, shift nature of work, injuries and traumatic events were among the specific operational counselling needs. Regarding, organisational counselling needs, leadership issues, lack of resources, nature of investigation and burden of accountability were commonly identified. Personal-social counselling needs identified were resolving interpersonal conflicts, marriage and family issues, self-understanding, and dealing with disappointments. Friends and families were also identified to be the most common forms of support available to the police

officers. Finally, gender difference was not observed in the counselling needs of the respondents but age difference was observed in the personal-social counselling needs.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

</div>

Introduction

The previous chapter focused on the results and discussion of the study. This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. Implications for counselling and suggestions for further research are also presented in this chapter.

Summary of Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. Specifically, five research questions and two hypotheses were answered.

Research Questions

1. What are the common operational counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

2. What are the common organisational counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

3. What are the common personal-social counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

4. What are the common counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

5. What support is available to police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

Hypotheses

1. $H_0 1$:   There is no statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of male and female police officers.

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$H_1 1$:   There is a statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of male and female police officers.

2. $H_0 2$:   There is no statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of police officers on the basis of age.

$H_1 2$:   There is a statistically significant difference in the counselling needs of police officers on the basis of age.

The study's supporting literature was examined. Theoretical underpinnings, conceptual analysis, and empirical analysis were all treated in the literature. This chapter reviewed the study's underlying hypotheses. Maslow's Theory of Need, McClelland's Theory of Needs, Anne Roe's Needs Theory, and the General Strains Theory were the key ideas examined. Also examined were ideas related to counselling and needs analysis. A review of earlier empirical research was done in regard to the study's goals. In general, it has been found in the literature that police officers face a variety of difficulties and requirements related to their work and organizational structure. Despite this, police personnel seldom ever sought out professional assistance or support when facing problems or difficulties.

Descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. A sample of 278 police officers was selected through stratified random sampling from a population of 969 police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis for the study. Data were collected using adapted questionnaires. Data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Major Findings

The study assessed the common operational counselling needs of the police officers. It was found that negative perceptions associated with their

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work, how these perceptions affected their families and friends, the need to uphold "higher image" in the public, and how to deal with the shift-nature of their work were the common operational counselling needs.

The study also found that inadequacy of equipment and resources, nature of internal investigations, inconsistency of leadership, burden of accountability and having to prove themselves, and dealing with supervisors were the common organisational counselling needs of the respondents.

Further, the study revealed that the common personal-social counselling needs of the respondents were solving interpersonal conflicts, understanding themselves, meeting family demands, solving marriage and relationship issues, and dealing with disappointments.

Additionally, it was shown that the common counselling need of the police officers was organisational counselling needs. This was followed by operational counselling needs and personal-social counselling needs.

Moreover, the study found that family, friends and superiors were the main support available for the police officers while counsellors were the least form of support available for the police officers.

The results on gender difference in counselling needs indicated no significant difference in operational counselling needs, organisational counselling needs, personal-social counselling needs and overall counselling needs.

Finally, the findings revealed that while there was a statistically significant difference in the respondents' personal-social counselling needs based on age but there was no statistically significant difference in their operational and organisational counselling needs.

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Conclusions

On the basis of the findings of the study, conclusions have been drawn. Police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis had operational counselling needs which most had to do with the image the public has about policing, their vulnerability to risks and injuries, and having less time for family and friends. These are operational because they are connected to the day-to-day work of the police service. The organisational counselling needs of the police officers however are connected to leadership and institutional challenges and having access to the resources and equipment for their work.

In addition, police officers had personal-social counselling needs even though not as much as operational and organisational. These personal-social counselling needs were focused on the relationship difficulties of the police officers.

Police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis need counselling in dealing mostly with organisational needs as compared to the other needs. This means that most police officers needed counselling related to organisational issues.

Moreover, it is concluded that the police officers sought for help to deal with their issues mainly from non-professional sources like family and friends. Most police officers did not seek for professional help from counsellors.

Finally, police officers, either male or female have similar counselling needs while older police officers have more personal-social counselling needs than younger police officers. However, in comparison with previous literature,

there still remains some inconsistency regarding demographic characteristics and counselling needs of police officers.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made based on the findings of the study:

1. Leadership of the Ghana Police Service should organise intermittent workshops which will focus on helping police officers handle some of the organisational challenges which they may face since organisational counselling needs were found to be the most common counselling need of the respondents.

2. Leadership of the Ghana Police Service should organise educational programmes for their staff focusing on how they can uphold a positive image of the police service in public since negative public perception was a major operational counselling need in this study.

3. Leadership of the Ghana Police Service should provide the needed resources and equipment that police officers would need to fully carry out their duties. This is because the current study found lack of resources and equipment as presenting significant organisational counselling need to the respondents.

4. Leadership of the Ghana Police Service should set-up a vibrant Counselling Unit manned with professional counsellors who would assist clients with their issues since it was found that counsellors was the least source of help for the police officers.

5. Leadership of the Ghana Police Service should pay more attention to older police officers by organising welfare and help programmes that would target older police officers and help them cope with their

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personal-social challenges. This is because the current study found that there was age difference in the personal-social counselling needs of the respondents.

Implications for Counselling

In the first place, and as already recommended, the findings imply that a vibrant Counselling Unit in the Ghana Police Service would be beneficial. Once the unit is fully functional, creation of awareness to police officers of the existence of professional counsellors in the service would be vital. This would be vital in the quest to get police officers to seek help from competent professionals. According to Mcleod (2003), professional counsellors are needed in institutions to make easier for employees to seek help from them.

Also, the findings have implications for how the Ghana Police Service treat their officers who experience difficulties in the line of duty. The leadership of the Ghana Police Service could identify police officers who have suffered injuries and trauma and collaborate with professional counsellors and mental health professionals to assist these officers overcome any post-traumatic stress disorder they may experience. Injuries and traumatic events were identified as common operational counselling needs for the respondents in this study. In the view of Maples (1996), counsellors can help people going through trauma cope better in the situation that they face.

Further, the findings have implications for how counsellors together with leadership of the Ghana Police Service can undergo education and training on proper leadership styles that can bring effective results. This is because it was found in the study that leadership challenges were common organisational counselling needs for the respondents. According to the

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American Counselling Association (2007), counselling can be useful in building proper leadership capacities in individuals.

Finally, the findings have implications for the work of "in-house" counsellors in the Ghana Police Service. These counsellors provide support to police officers dealing personal and family challenges because of their work. According to UNICEF (2003), counselling is a structured intervention between a client and counsellor to help the individual resolve his or her personal and family challenges. For those whose challenges are beyond the "in-house" counsellors, they can be referred to other mental health agencies for assistance. Personal and family challenges were commonly cited in this study as personal-social counselling needs.

Suggestions for Further Research

The following suggestions are made for further research:

1. The current study was only carried out in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. Further study can be carried out in other areas in Ghana to examine the counselling needs of police officers in those areas so that appropriate and contextualized recommendations can be made for each area.

2. In the future, a longitudinal study can be conducted to monitor the establishment and functioning of Counselling Unit in the Ghana Police Service. This can help identify whether counselling is been effectively done in the Service to address the counselling needs of the police officers.

3. Further research can examine the differences in the counselling needs of police officers on the basis of marital status and ranks of police

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officers. The current study did not examine the differences on the basis of marital status and ranks of police officers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR POLICE OFFICERS

This study is to assess the counselling needs of police officers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. Your involvement is considered significant in this study. Be assured that every data gathered will be treated with the utmost privacy. Thank you.

Direction: As and when appropriate, supply the required data or use a tick **(√)** to express your view.

Section A – Demographic Information

1. Gender: Male [   ]   Female   [   ]

2. Age: 25 years and below [   ]   26-40 years [   ]   41 – 60 years [   ]

3. Rank: …………………………….

4. Marital Status: Single [   ]   Married [   ]   Divorced [   ]

Widowed [   ]

Section B: Operational Counselling Needs of Police Officers

Please indicate the extent to which you need counselling support for the following reasons.

Use the scale: 1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2= Disagree (D), 3=Neutral (N), 4= Agree (A) and 5=Strongly Agree (SA)

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
I need counselling because of…					
1. Shift work					
2. Working alone in the night					
3. Over-time demands					
4. Risk of getting injured during work					
5. Work-related activities when not on duty					
6. Traumatic events (e.g. death, injury)					
7. Management of social life out of the workplace					
8. Not spending enough time with family and friends					
9. Too much paperwork					
10. My eating habit at work					
11. Finding time to be in good physical shape					
12. Fatigue					
13. Job-related health problems (e.g. back pain)					
14. Lack of understanding from family and friends about my work					
15. Upholding a "higher image" in public					
16. Negative comments from the public					
17. Family and friends affected by stigma related to my job					

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Section C: Organisational Counselling Needs of Police Officers

Please indicate the extent to which you need counselling support for the following reasons.

Use the scale: "1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2= Disagree (D), 3=Neutral (N), 4= Agree (A) and 5=Strongly Agree (SA)"

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
I need counselling because of…					
1. The stress of dealing with co-workers					
2. The feeling that different rules apply to different people					
3. Feeling of having to always prove myself					
4. Excessive administrative tasks					
5. Regular changes in policies and rules					
6. Inadequate staff					
7. Bureaucratic red tape issues					
8. A lot of computer work					
9. Lack of training on how to use new machinery					
10. Perceived pressure to do extra hours of work					
11. Dealing with supervisors					
12. Inconsistency in the style of leadership					
13. Lack of resources					
14. Uneven sharing of responsibilities at the workplace					
15. Nature of internal investigations					
16. The need for accountability at work					
17. Inadequate tools for work					

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Section D: Personal-Social Counselling Needs of Police Officers

Please indicate the extent to which you need counselling support for the following reasons.

Use the scale: "1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2= Disagree (D), 3=Neutral (N), 4= Agree (A) and 5=Strongly Agree (SA)"

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
I need counselling because of…					
1. I need to understand more about myself.					
2. I have difficulty relating well with other staff members.					
3. I need to know how to solve interpersonal conflicts.					
4. I have problem making new friends.					
5. I have problem dealing with disappointment.					
6. I have problem with relationship and marriage issues.					
7. I lack freedom at work and home.					
8. I have problem meeting family demands.					
9. I have medical problems.					
10. I have a problem relating well with my superiors.					

Section E: Forms of Support Available to Police Officers

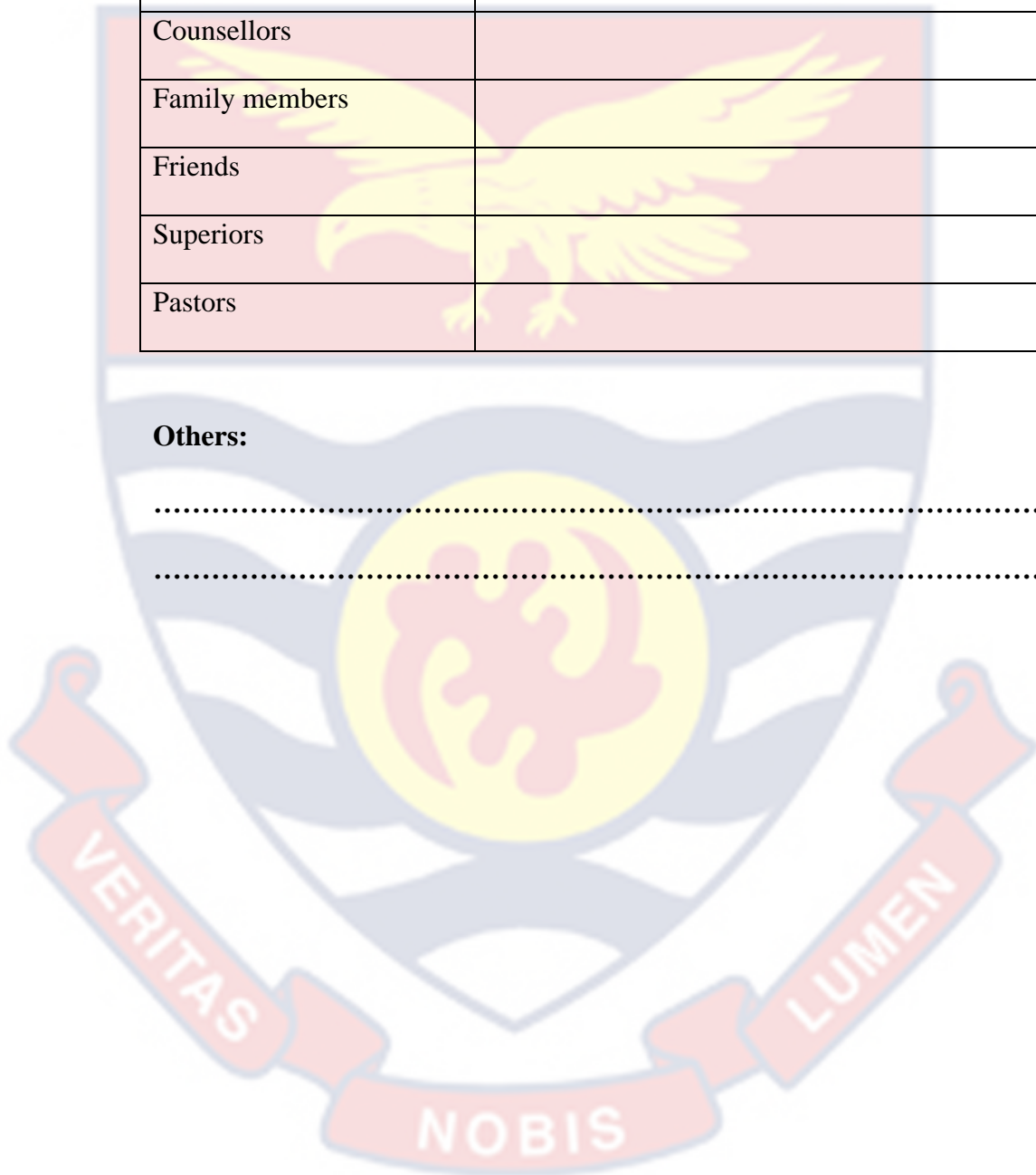Indicate which of the following people you go to for support when in crisis.

Tick as many as apply.

Helpers	Tick
Counsellors	
Family members	
Friends	
Superiors	
Pastors	

Others:

……………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………

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APPENDIX B

RELIABILITY OUTPUT

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.791	49

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APPENDIX C

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
ETHICAL REVIEW BOARD

UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

Our Ref: CES-ERB/ucc-edu/V 6/22-25

Date: 3rd March, 2022

Your Ref: ....

Dear Sir/Madam,

ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS CLEARANCE FOR RESEARCH STUDY

Chairman, CES-ERB
Prof. J. A. Omotosho
jomotosho@ucc.edu.gh
0243784739

Vice-Chairman, CES-ERB
Prof. K. Edjah
kedjah@ucc.edu.gh
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Secretary, CES-ERB
Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
lforde@ucc.edu.gh
0244786680

The bearer, Martha Mensah ,..., Reg. No. EF/GCI/20/0021 a:
M.Phil. / Ph.D. student in the Department of ... Guidance
and Counselling .... in the College of Education Studies,
University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana. He / She wishes to
undertake a research study on the topic:

Challenges facing police officers in the
Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis: Implications
for counselling ....

The Ethical Review Board (ERB) of the College of Education Studies
(CES) has assessed his/her proposal and confirm that the proposal
satisfies the College's ethical requirements for the conduct of the
study.

In view of the above, the researcher has been cleared and given approval
to commence his/her study. The ERB would be grateful if you would
give him/her the necessary assistance to facilitate the conduct of the said
research.

Thank you.
Yours faithfully,

Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
(Secretary, CES-ERB)

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