

**INVESTIGATING PRIVATE SECURITY SERVICE
PROVIDERS' COMPLIANCE WITH RELEVANT
LEGISLATIONS IN SELECTED DRINKING
ESTABLISHMENTS IN PIETERMARITZBURG,
SOUTH AFRICA**

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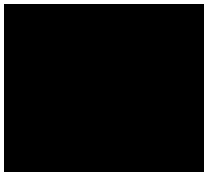
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School of Applied Human Sciences in
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree
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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis as presented for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Criminology and Forensic Studies in the School of Applied Human Sciences, College of Humanities, University of KwaZulu-Natal in Durban (South Africa), is my own work and has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in any previous application for a degree at any other institution. The references used and cited have been acknowledged.



Signature of candidate

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my entire Mbhele and Mbense family, my late grandmother Agnes Mbhele and my late best friend, Mfundo Radebe.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

PSIRA	Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority
PSIR Act	Private Security Industry Regulation Act
SAPS	South African Police Service
PSI	Private Security Industry
PSC	Private Security Company
PMC	Private Military Company
PMSI	Private Military Security Industry
WHO	World Health organisation
VIP	Very Important Person
CCTV	Closed Circuit television
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
NSCDC	Nigerian Security and Civil Defence Corps
PGC	Private Guards Company
SANDF	South African National Defence Force
SIA	Security Industry Authority
UN	United Nations
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
PMSC	Private Military Security Company
DFAE	Swiss Federal Department of Foreign Affairs
ANC	African National Congress
NKPA	National Key Point Act
SOA	Security Officers Act
UK	United Kingdom
NHMRC	National Health and Medical Research Council
CIS	Crime Information System
ASB	Anti-Social Behaviour
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal

ABSTRACT

One of the major driving forces in the evolution of policing has been the growth and expansion of the security sector. In the global context, the private security sector employs more security personnel than are employed by most governments. South Africa and the United States in particular depend heavily on private security companies for the safety of their citizenry, and the regulation of the private security sector is therefore crucial to ensure compliance with the law. However, although they have authority over substantial portions of metropolitan territory, the private security field receives less attention than the formal police force in terms of legal requirements and regulations. Moreover, there is a new field of employment within the private security industry for people who are commonly referred to as ‘bouncers’ who work predominantly in bars and clubs. Unfortunately, the unauthorized or unregulated employment of bouncers who work in the security industry is a problem that occurs everywhere. In the South African context, very limited research has been conducted on the non-compliance of bouncers with legal requirements, and this study endeavoured to fill this gap. The study used a mixed methods approach to achieve its objectives; hence both qualitative and quantitative methodologies were employed. It was decided to utilize a triangulated mixed methods design as it would be inappropriate to prioritize or give more weight to one approach over the other. The result was a fully mixed approach giving contemporaneous and equal status to the two approaches. Four key components, namely the study objectives, type of data and operation, type of analysis, and type of inference, were therefore given equal attention in terms of qualitative and quantitative data analysis. A desired sample was targeted and recruited using the non-probability sampling strategy. Two Private Security Industry Regulation Authority (PSiRA) employees who worked in law enforcement and compliance departments were included in the sample, while 46 bouncers, 40 customers from various selected drinking establishments, and 8 management members from the selected drinking businesses were also included.

The findings revealed that the majority of establishments that employed these bouncers did not comply with the rules and regulations of PSiRA as they were neither in possession of a PSiRA accredited certificate nor registered with this oversight body. This means that the drinking establishments hired and managed bouncers based on their internal criteria regardless of the legal requirement to be registered as a private security service provider. The study further discovered that the managers of these establishments were not aware of the requirement to be registered with PSiRA as the regulator of private security service providers. However, the patrons of the establishments under study generally felt safe in these drinking establishments and it was also found that violence and aggression were not common in these spaces. Three theories were used to analyse the data, find correlations, and understand how bouncers, customers, and bar and club managers behaved and why they behaved the way they did. The findings may therefore be used to forecast future tendencies and trends in this industry and to offer recommendations for improvement. The victim precipitation theory, which contends that victims may unwittingly or intentionally contribute to their victimization, the social disorganization theory, which contends that the presence of appropriate regulation and enforcement can have an impact on behaviour but that their absence will cause the collapse and disarray of society (as is evidenced by the current state of anomie), and the frustration aggression theory, which contends that failure to achieve a goal is frustrating and, if it continues, will escalate into aggressiveness, were the theories that were selected.

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CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The problem of private security officers¹ who operate illegitimately in drinking establishments is a global phenomenon (Faull, 2013). Mbhele (2017) found that the non-compliance of bouncers who worked in drinking establishments in South Africa was understudied in this country. This point is highlighted as a severe oversight as, in South Africa, force that is lethally, deadly, and excessively used is not only associated with South African Police Service (SAPS) officers, but with private security personnel who are often guilty of exercising excessive force (Schneider & Minnaar, 2015). The eruption of violence and aggression is highly likely in drinking establishments due to a number of reasons, including the incompetence of bouncers, the characteristics and behaviour of patrons, the effect of alcohol and drugs on consumers, and the characteristics of the environment in which the establishment is located (Graham, Bernards, Osgood & Wells, 2006). According to Faull (2013), World Health Organisation (WHO) reports highlight a link between alcohol consumption and violence. Therefore, as part of this study's investigation into the extent of violence in drinking establishments in a selected study area and the role of bouncers in these spaces, the experiences and behaviour of bouncers, patrons, and managers of drinking establishments were explored.

In 2016, the Deputy Minister of Police, Ms. Makhotso Maggie Sotyu, stated that the Private Security Industry Regulation Authority (PSiRA) was not effective in monitoring the work of bouncers who were generally armed and regularly engaged in violent and aggressive acts in most of the establishments where they were employed (Sotyu, 2016). She further emphasised that the private security industry was not monitored and that PSiRA needed to “bite harder” and fight relentlessly against bouncers' non-compliance with the legal framework (Sotyu, 2016). For instance, the Private Security Industry Regulation Act (PSiRA) No. 51 of 2001 states that the private security industry is not to employ security officers who are not qualified for the post (South Africa. PSiRA, 2001). Schneider and Minnaar (2015) affirm the need to train private security staff as they argue that such training is of paramount importance in the maintenance of law and order. The training programme should include the management of

¹ Note that the terms ‘bouncer/s’ and ‘private security staff/officer/s’ are used interchangeably in this thesis.

adrenal response so that personnel are able to perform rationally and effectively under extreme threat and attack situations. In light of these observations, the current study sought to investigate if bouncers were compliant with relevant legislations such as the PSIR Act of 2001, the Criminal Procedure Act, and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. More specifically, the study tried to determine if current bouncers had undergone the necessary training at PSIRA accredited colleges and obtained the relevant qualification as private security personnel. In addition, it was necessary to determine if bouncers were employed by establishments that were registered with PSiRA (PSIRA, 2001), as was recommended by Mbhele (2017) and other researchers (Theletsane, 2015; Kole, 2009).

Regulation in the private security industry is paramount if these businesses are to operate within the law and comply with all legislative provisions and regulations. However, less attention is paid to private security institutions than to formal law enforcement structures in terms of legal requirements and regulations even though such enterprises have obtained jurisdiction over large tracts of urban space (Shearing, 2006). In South Africa, the private security sector is governed by PSiRA, which is a statutory agency that issues licenses and regulates the training of security employees. The primary responsibilities of PSiRA are outlined in the PSIRA Act No. 56 of 2001 (South Africa. Department of Safety and Security, 2002)², and this Act clarifies that its main goal is to efficiently regulate the private security sector (Schneider, 2013). Considering this mandate, one objective of this study was to explore the efficiency of PSiRA and to determine if it effectively regulated bouncers in drinking establishments in the Pietermaritzburg area in KZN. It is in the public and national interest that PSiRA is mandated to engage in effective oversight over security service providers, and it must fulfil this obligation under the Act in order to ensure a legitimate private security sector, and it is for this reason that there is a set of standards that these businesses must adhere to. Moreover, when there is a tendency to operate outside the law, it is necessary that private security service providers offer solutions that will benefit patrons and the general populace (Shearing, 2006).

² This Act is consistently referred to and will only be cited once.

According to Prenzler and Sarre (2008:23), the unprecedented growth of the security industry has heralded a key turning point in the evolution of policing. It has been determined that, internationally, the private security industry employs more people than are employed as formal police officers. It is particularly in the US and South Africa where there is a marked reliance on private security providers, whereas this reliance is less prevalent in European countries (Prenzler & Sarre, 2008:23).

According to Theletsane (2015), the security industry has grown exponentially in South Africa, which is most likely due to the fact that South Africa is highly affected by crime in all spheres, and there is sufficient evidence that businesses and the economy have been negatively affected by high levels of crime. For instance, in 2014 alone, there were approximately 487 058 registered private security officers in South Africa (Theletsane, 2015), while the industry has experienced a growth rate of 30% per annum since the 1970s with an estimated 25 000 to 30 000 security officers being newly trained and qualified annually (Theletsane, 2015). In the 2017/2018 financial year, the total number of registered and active security officers increased from 498 435 to 516 287 (Theletsane, 2015). Moreover, according to the 2017/2018 PSiRA report, 40 692 compliance inspections were conducted in that financial year across the country (Theletsane, 2015). This escalating number of security service providers undoubtedly calls for the efficient regulation of the industry, which is a notion that is strongly supported by Shearing (2006) who stresses that the lack of a proper and formal monitoring oversight body that functions effectively will impact the country negatively. This statement was later supported by the former Deputy Minister of police, Maggie Sotyu, who stated in 2016 that PSiRA was not doing enough to ensure compliance in the bouncer industry that functioned primarily in drinking establishments (Sotyu, 2016).

Some effort has been made to address the challenges that are faced by security service providers in South Africa through the establishment of policy measures (Thompson, 2014). For example, PSiRA introduced the Private Security Industry Regulatory Amendment Bill to amend the Act with the purpose of addressing the issues stemming from the changes and growth in the industry (Thompson, 2014). In addition, law enforcement and the prosecution of those who are noncompliant within the law have been introduced as proactive measures to punish security service providers who deliberately evade statutory requirements (Thompson, 2014). In the 2017/2018 financial year, 1 705 cases were finalised by PSiRA's Legal Service Division

(Private Security Industry Regulation Authority, 2017/2018). However, it remains a matter of concern that, regardless of these and other measures to enforce the statutory obligations among security service providers, minimal inspections are conducted to determine compliance with the law in drinking establishments in the study area. It is this researcher's contention that law enforcement and inspection in all drinking establishments where security service providers are visible are important to ensure that patrons', bouncers' and managers' behaviour and conduct are within the tenets of the PSIR Act.

The above notion is supported by Geldenhuys (2018), who argues that the prevention and reduction of crime cannot be executed with success if security officers are ill-equipped and poorly trained. Section 23(1)(c) of the PSIR Act of 2001 mandates security service providers to be registered and to ensure that all employees successfully complete their training as required by law. This is particularly applicable to drinking establishments that are spaces where large numbers of patrons congregate and where many engage in binge drinking and poor behaviour (Kole, 2009). Glassey, Gut, Feiner, Cathieni, Hofner and Mangin (2012) argue that the key factor that provokes violence between nightclub securities and patrons is the abuse of alcohol. A number of international studies have shown a link between alcohol abuse and violence (Casswell, Zhang & Wyllie, 1993; Single & Wortley, 1993; Curran, Harford & Methen, 1996; Hobbs, Hadfield, Lister & Winlow, 2002; Lindsay, 2006; Hobbs, O'Brien & Westmarland, 2007; Hadfield, 2008). Graham (2009) concurs, stating that approximately 50% of violent crimes is due to aggression that is alcohol related and that the abuse of alcohol is widely prevalent and a social and health problem. Inappropriate behaviour is often caused by excessive intoxication due to altered perception and judgement and the inadequate assessment of dangerous situations (Lindsay, 2006). The eruption of chaos due to ill behaviour is inevitable in drinking establishments, hence the presence of trained, professional, and well-equipped security service providers is of the utmost importance in these spaces.

Unlike violence that is perpetrated by members of the South Africa Police Service (SAPS), violence that is perpetrated by private security officers goes unreported in most instances (Hadfield, 2009). The police culture of brutality has not been eradicated, and police officers' excessive use of force even when unnecessary is usually reported in the media that makes such incidences known to the public, because excessive force and brutality have dire consequences such as serious bodily harm and even the death of a victim (Hadfield, 2009). Some instances

can be cited as a case in point, such as the killing of Andries Tatane in 2011 and the Marikana shooting in 2012 (News24, 2021; The guardian, 2015).

1.2 Elucidation of Key Concepts

1.2.1 The private security industry

De Waard (1999:151) defines the private security industry as "... firms [that] are undertakings that perform activities on a professional basis for third parties. Their objectives include the preservation of the security of persons and property and the maintenance of public law and order, using mainly manpower for that purpose". Private security enterprises perform multiple protection services and various private security companies are registered and authorised to provide these services that include the supervision and protection of movable and immovable property, guarding of property, surveillance on public highways, the transportation of cash and valuables, the protection of persons (VIP protection), the management/administration of central alarm monitoring stations, in-house and store security, in-house detecting, access control, attendance at large events, taking custody of detainees or prisoners, key-holding, security of car parks, supervision of apartments blocks, messenger and courier services, reception and hall porter services, handling and monitoring alarms and alarm systems, CCTV monitoring, emergency response duties, routine traffic control, and security consultation (Suchi, 2017:145).

1.2.2 Private security officers

Such officers are employees of private security companies and they engage in the maintenance of law and order by regulating social behaviour, maintaining order, preventing crime, responding to crime, and restoring order within a social milieu (Suchi, 2017:147). Private security officers are deployed in various areas of operation and their tasks are based on their level of training and experience. They are ideally issued with a training certificate that should state the level of the duties that can be assigned to them. The main role of security officers, or bouncers, in drinking establishments and other similar spaces is to search patrons, control the crowd, and protect and guard property. This means that they are required to be in possession of a grade D and E grading as security officers.

1.2.3 Private security companies

A private security company is an organisation that provides protection services to the public and various businesses and companies where the police do not operate daily. They are therefore not the same as public law enforcement agencies such as the police and municipal law enforcers. The former companies are primarily engaged in the prevention of crime, loss, or harm to specific individuals, organisations, and facilities. They provide a wide range of services such as guarding, patrolling, security consulting, training, and capacity development (Suchi, 2017:147). Private security companies employ security officers on a private basis and these officers operate wholly apart from the formal SAPS. According to PSiRA, any private security company must be registered if it wishes to offer its services to the public. All their employees, including the directors, must also be registered as private security officers. The legal framework presupposes that drinking establishments hire the professional services of legally registered and qualified private security company personnel and that these companies will deploy suitable candidates to work in these establishments.

1.2.4 Drinking establishments

A drinking establishment can be a nightclub, tavern, shebeen,³ or bar that is open from early evening until early morning, especially during weekends. These establishments typically provide facilities such as an open bar and disco music or live entertainment. Carlini, Andreoni, Martins, Benjamin, Sanudo and Sanchez (2014:13) define a nightclub as “an entertainment venue that sells alcoholic beverages and has a dance floor, and patrons gain entry through payment of an entrance fee at the door”. Drinking establishments usually require the assistance of private security officers because violence and aggression often erupt due to some patrons’ high levels of intoxication. Unfortunately, many drinking establishments make the mistake of hiring their own private security personnel, or bouncers, to search patrons and guard their properties. In most instances, these bouncers are untrained and unqualified.

³ A ‘shebeen’ is a drinking establishment that is typically located in a township or informal settlement.

1.2.5 Bouncers

A bouncer is a person who is employed by a nightclub or similar establishment to prevent troublemakers and other unwanted people from entering, or to eject them from the premises if their behaviour has become untenable (Moore, 2008). Bouncers in nightclubs are required to inform nightclub patrons of the rules of discipline and the protocols of the nightclub and to evict them if they break these rules (Hobbs *et al.*, 2002). Bouncers are usually untrained and unqualified, and many are aggressive and violent and use their muscular appearance to intimidate patrons. Bouncers who are utilised as private security officers are supposed to be regulated by PSiRA.

1.2.6 Patrons

A customer (male or female) who visits a drinking establishment is there to utilise the services that are offered, such as consuming various types of alcoholic beverages and food, listening to music, and to socialize (Mbhele, 2017). However, most patrons attend such drinking establishments with the primary intention of consuming alcohol. Drinking establishments can unofficially be categorised based on their location, status, and the prices of the products they sell. Many patrons do not know their limits and high intoxication levels result in aggressive and violent outbursts. Fights in drinking establishments occur regularly, particularly in those that attract patrons of relatively low social and economic standing whose primary goal is to become intoxicated.

1.2.7 Regulation

Regulation within drinking establishments requires the presence of formal, direct mechanisms of control that will prevent or reduce injustice, corruption, negligence, and incompetence (Diphorn, 2016:163). The implementation of legislation to ensure that an industry operates within legal parameters is the most common form of regulation, and such legal parameters are underpinned by specific labour laws and training requirements. Regulation thus ensures professionalism and increased accountability (Diphorn, 2016:163).

1.2.8 Violence

Violence is behaviour that involves physical force with the intention to hurt, damage, or kill someone. It is formally defined as: "...the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation" (Krug, Mercy, Dahlberg & Zwi, 2002). Violence in drinking establishments is a highly prevalent phenomenon and various studies have indicated an association between violence and intoxication (Single & Wortley, 1993; Sogaard, 1994). It is therefore not surprising that drinking spaces are notorious for the eruption of violence and disorder.

1.2.9 Aggression

Aggression is associated with feelings of anger or antipathy and results in hostile, violent behaviour and readiness to attack or confront. It is defined as behaviour that is "...directed toward another individual [and] carried out with the proximate (immediate) intent to cause harm (Anderson & Huesmann, 2003). Many patrons who frequent drinking establishments are characterised by their aggressive nature. Although aggression is not as lethal as violence in action, it could lead to violent behaviour if it is not quickly resolved.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Winlow, Hobbs, Lister and Hadfield (2001) and Hadfield (2008) conducted ethnographic studies to understand the culture of violence in drinking establishments. Hobbs *et al.* (2002) also contributed to the field by providing insights into the work practices, occupational culture, regulation, and training of bouncers in Britain. In South Africa, minimal research has been conducted to address the issues concerning the private security industry that operates in drinking establishments, and it is paramount that this gap is filled due to unfavourable trends in the culture of private securities, particularly those that operate in drinking establishments. According to Hobbs *et al.* (2002), similar patterns characterise private securities who adopt their own informal and pragmatic methods of keeping 'harmful' situations under control. These measures are employed as they conform to the demands of the business and its culture, but they are often not legally justified. Winlow *et al.* (2001) strongly believed that violent action was

entrenched in night life spaces, hence they engaged in ethnographic research on bouncers and doormen to explore this culture which they argued was deeply rooted in violence. The current study sought to gather information on the work of bouncers in general. It engaged bouncers, patrons, and drinking establishment managers as well as experts who regulated the work of private securities. As stipulated by various legislations, it is important that the field of bouncing adheres to the Constitution of this country and other legislations that regulate all levels of their profession, including respect for the fundamental rights of patrons.

Victimization in drinking establishments is a serious and prevalent issue across the globe (Zhang & Wyllie, 1993; Curran, Harford & Methen, 1996). Violence and aggression in drinking establishments affect all patrons as well as the nightclub staff such as bar tenders, waitresses, and even bouncers themselves. There is a high possibility that anyone who frequents a drinking establishment can become a victim of the violent or aggressive behaviour of any person in the drinking establishment. For example, Glassey *et al.* (2012) draw attention to victimization habits within drinking establishments in Switzerland from the perspective of private securities as the perpetrators. Their study also focused on adults as the victims of interpersonal violence occurring at home, in the workplace, and in the wider community. They refer to a forensic consultation service that is offered by the Violence Medical Unit of the University Centre of Legal Medicine at Lausanne University Hospital Centre in Switzerland, and state that what stood out in the centre was the increasing number of patients who had experienced community violence, specifically the violence they had experienced by nightclub securities. The authors contributed to the field by providing a forensic approach that details the nature of and provides information about assault in nightclubs and the resultant injuries. The study indicated that 93% of the victims of nightclub security were men whose median age was 26 years. The study also found that assault occurred on weekends and that the number of assaults increased steadily from midnight to the early hours of the morning. Furthermore, Glassey *et al.* (2012) found that all the private security officers who had perpetrated violence against patrons were men.

The above studies and others inspired this researcher to engage in an investigation into the conduct of private security officers in drinking establishments. Graham (2009) points out that aggression is not only a result of high intoxication as other factors, but such also as the characteristics of the drinker and the context or environment where the drinking establishment exists, have a profound effect on the eruption of violence in such spaces. Therefore, to prevent any dangerous and inappropriate behaviour resulting from intoxication, one needs to look beyond the abuse of alcohol and consider all other relevant factors and their probable mechanisms of influence. Until such evidence becomes common information, violence and aggression in drinking establishments will persist and private securities will remain in a position to exercise force indiscriminately (Graham, 2009).

In South Africa, legislations have been established to control both state and private securities from exerting undue force on citizens. For example, the Criminal Procedure Act No. 51 of 1977 (South Africa. Criminal Procedure Act, 1977) emphasises that, when a suspect is arrested:

“...the arrestor may use force that is reasonably necessary and proportional in the circumstance to affect the arrest.” [Section (2a) of this Act further states that the arrestor] “... may use deadly force only if the suspect poses a threat of serious violence to the arrestor or any other person, or (s2b) if the suspect is suspected on reasonable grounds of having committed a crime involving the infliction or threatened infliction of serious bodily harm and there are no other reasonable means of effecting the arrest, whether at the time or later”.

In addition to the Criminal Procedure Act, the Private Security Industry Regulation Act No. 56 of 2001 provides a code of conduct for private security industries. Chapter 2 section 4 stipulates that a security service provider may only use force “...when the use of force as well as the nature and extent thereof is reasonably necessary in the circumstances and is permitted in terms of law”.

The Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA) was established in terms of the Private Security Industry Regulation Act No. 56 of 2001 to monitor, regulate, and have full control over the private security industry. Moreover, PSIRA is also mandated to ensure that security service providers comply with the provisions of the Act. It also has to keep a database of all security service providers, determine wages for security officials, issue certification, ensure that the code of conduct is adhered to, and penalise service providers that do not adhere

to the Act (Kole, 2010). However, Kole (2010) discovered that PSiRA representatives did not attend the workplaces of private security companies to oversee and monitor the work of their members. The latter author also reported that private security industries were aware that PSiRA existed and what its functions were, but they had never had any encounter with this body (Kole, 2010). This suggests that PSiRA is unaware and ignorant of any irregularities and misconduct that occur in the bouncing industry, and it was against this backdrop that the current researcher resolved to gather insights from PSiRA staff about its role as an oversight body in the enforcement of the policies that regulate the bouncing industry.

In the 2017/2018 PSiRA annual report, the main goal of this oversight body is emphasised as compliance, which means that the security industry needs to aspire to ensure that its personnel are aware of and take the necessary steps to comply with the relevant rules and regulations that govern the functioning of security service providers (PSiRA, 2017/2018). This research thus gathered information on how many bouncers who worked in the selected drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg were in possession of a relevant qualification that was endorsed by PSiRA. In this investigation, cognisance was taken of Kole's (2010) assertion that PSiRA faces various challenges regarding its regulatory role and compliance in the security industry. Some of the challenges are that companies are not registered and that people are employed as security officers without having been trained and registered with PSiRA. It was deemed paramount to study safety and security in drinking establishments for several reasons, but the most important was that, as Hadfield (2008) states, nightclub security is a niche with partial and incomplete knowledge of criminological issues.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the compliance of private securities with the law in selected drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg, South Africa. Complying with the law implies that bouncers who are employed in drinking establishments should meet the requirements that regulate the training and qualifications a person needs to serve as a private security officer, and that they should be registered with the oversight body. Compliance also means that private security companies that recruit bouncers should be registered as private security service providers, as obligated by PSiRA. The study further sought to understand the role and effectiveness of PSiRA as the regulator of private security service providers and the

enforcer of compliance. PSiRA has two specialist departments, namely the compliance and enforcement departments, and representatives of both departments were interrogated about their role in improving compliance by drinking establishment managers. Moreover, the views of patrons frequenting drinking establishments were an integral part of this study as they had gained important experiences and possessed vital perceptions concerning bouncers and the manner in which they performed their duties. The researcher thus gathered information from patrons about bouncers based on their previous engagements and experiences.

1.5 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to understand the conduct of private security service providers who operated in drinking establishments and to determine if PSiRA, as the oversight body, was effective in its mandate to regulate this industry in the study area.

To achieve this aim, the following objectives had to be achieved:

1. To investigate whether private security service providers complied with the law in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg.

This objective sought to determine if private security companies complied with PSIRA No. 56 of 2001 by obtaining registration as mandated by this Act. This objective was based on the premise that only a company that is registered with PSIRA may provide private security services in South Africa. To this end, a set of principles is stipulated in the Act that governs all private security service providers.

2. To investigate the PSIRA requirements that all private security personnel working in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg must meet.

This objective sought to determine if the management of the establishments under study complied with the PRIS Act No. 56 of 2001 when they employed bouncers. The Act mandates all security personnel, bouncers included, to attend a security training college and obtain a security qualification to hold the position of security officer. In addition, the objective sought

to uncover if the bouncers were registered with PSiRA as stipulated in Chapter 3 of the PSIR Act No. 56 of 2001.

3. To explore the manner in which the management of selected drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg recruit their private security service providers.

This objective sought to determine the criteria that drinking establishment managers adopted when they recruited and hired the services of private security companies/staff. This objective was premised on the understanding that some drinking establishment managers prefer not to seek the services of registered private security service providers, but to hire private security officers/bouncers that will fall under their direct authority. This objective would uncover the qualities and characteristics that managers looked for when hiring bouncers.

4. To explore patrons' sense of safety and the nature of their behaviour when they visited drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg.

This objective sought to discover how safe patrons felt in the drinking establishments under study. Such establishments are notoriously dangerous spaces where numerous patrons are assaulted and where some are even murdered each year. Such incidences are caused by a number of factors that include the provocative behaviour of patrons. It was therefore important to understand the behaviour and perceptions of patrons who frequented the drinking establishments under study.

5. To explore PSiRA's efforts to uphold its mandate as the regulator of private security companies, particularly those that function in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg.

PSiRA is mandated to enforce compliance with the law by private security service providers in South Africa. This objective sought to uncover whether PSiRA put in any effort to ensure that bouncers who functioned in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg complied with the regulations and were performing their tasks legitimately. Members from both the compliance and enforcement departments within PSiRA were interviewed to achieve this objective.

1.6 Key Research Questions

The following research questions that were aligned to the objectives were addressed:

1. Do private security providers in Pietermaritzburg drinking establishments comply with relevant legislations?
2. Which PSIRA requirements do private security service providers in Pietermaritzburg drinking establishments meet?
3. How do drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg recruit private security service providers?
4. How do patrons behave and how safe are they in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg?
5. Does PSIRA efficiently regulate, oversee, and control private security service providers in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg?

1.7 Significance of the Study

The importance of the study is highlighted by the contributions it will make to the Criminology field, particularly as it offers an original contribution to society at PhD level. According to Cray (2014), the finest Doctoral theses focus on a specific topic rather than overstating their uniqueness or level of competence. Cray (2014: para.5) states:

“Little gaps in areas of saturating research yield the substantial original contribution as new applications or interpretations of established concepts. The researcher can achieve this in a variety of ways, such as by producing a synthesis, offering a single novel technique, or conducting an original test of existing information.”

This study will therefore contribute to future research in the Criminology field due to its sound theoretical applications, methodological investigation, and findings that have practical implications. A plethora of studies that were conducted on South African private security service providers is readily available, but the security industry is one of the biggest and fastest-growing industries in South Africa and requires ongoing scholarly investigation. This industry is characterised by a variety of services and it serves different purposes for different clients. However, limited research has been conducted on bouncers (or the bouncing industry) that also

fall under the private security industry and the regulatory body known as PSiRA. This means that knowledge and understandings of the scope of the bouncing industry are still understudied, and it is therefore important to investigate and understand the nature and scope of the work of bouncers. One cannot deny the need to study this industry through an academic lens, as only then will the field be understood in depth. Therefore, the bouncing industry is one leg of the private security service provider industry that requires academic research and attention due to the scarcity of academic studies that explain the nature and complexity of the work of bouncers. The current study focused on bouncers in selected establishments in Pietermaritzburg, which is an area that had not been studied sufficiently by the time this study commenced. This gap is thus filled by a new body of knowledge in academic literature that will contribute to a better understanding of this industry. Moreover, the study provides theoretical clarity concerning the bouncing industry and its operations in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg, South Africa. It is acknowledged that the findings may not be generalised to the entire private security and bouncing industry, but they may be sufficiently luminous to enhance understanding of this arm of the industry and to drive future investigations in this field.

The study utilised multiple methods to investigate the culture of private security companies that operate in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg. The mixed methods approach that was adopted to study the phenomenon facilitated triangulation and resulted in a deep, immersive understanding of the case being investigated. To this end, neither study method that was used was prioritised or deemed more important than the other, which means that the qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed equally. The convergent and parallel mixed methods design facilitated the use of both methods concurrently so that the data could be analysed to generate deep and meaningful results.

As all the objectives of this study were achieved, the findings contribute to an in-depth understanding of the strengths and shortcomings of managing a service that is known to be driven by aggression and violence. Moreover, the results illuminate the role that management plays in selecting the bouncers that are employed and the nature of the service they provide in this industry. By engaging with the areas that were explored and by elucidating the findings, it was possible to offer recommendations to related government and government institutions, and to PSiRA in particular. These findings should assist this oversight body to better address the challenges posed by violence and aggression as well as the non-compliance with the law in

drinking establishments. Furthermore, drinking establishments will also benefit as they are guided in addressing the security loopholes that contribute to violence, aggression, and noncompliance with the regulatory framework.

It was vital to gain insight into the phenomenon under study by engaging with expert members of the compliance and enforcement departments of PSIRA and to understand their insights concerning the services provided by the private security industry to drinking establishments. This was a particularly important component of the study as compliance with the law and the enforcement of regulations in the security industry have been questioned by various researchers (Kole, 2009; Mbhele, 2017; Theletsane, 2015). As this objective was achieved, the study will assist both PSIRA and drinking establishment managers as it offers recommendations on how they can enforce compliance and ethical behaviour in these spaces.

1.8 Methodological Approach

The research adopted the interpretive research paradigm which is the opposite of the positivism paradigm that argues that human nature is rational and logical. Therefore, to generate knowledge that would elicit understanding of the studied phenomenon, both quantitative and qualitative research methods were applied to understand individuals' experiences and the meanings they attached to these experiences. By adopting an interpretive paradigm, the researcher sought to understand human beings in relation to their own views of reality (Kekeya, 2019). The study adopted a mixed methods approach in which both qualitative and quantitative methodologies were combined to generate and analyse the data. Neither approach was prioritised or deemed more important than the other, and triangulation was used effectively to illuminate the findings. This convergent parallel mixed methods design required the concurrent collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data to address the research questions, and the different results were merged to allow for comparison and contrast (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). In addition, a fully mixed concurrent equal status design was adopted. The emphasis of this design is on giving qualitative and quantitative data equal status in a single research study but within one or more of the following components: the objectives; the type of data; operation; and the type of analysis and inference (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). A purposive non-probability sampling method was applied to target and recruit the required sample. The sample included two staff members from PSIRA who worked in the enforcement

and compliance departments respectively, eight management representatives of the selected drinking establishments, forty-six bouncers, and forty patrons who frequented the selected drinking establishments.

1.9 Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the University KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN). The Research Ethics Policy was strictly adhered to by obtaining the informed consent of all the questionnaire respondents and interview participants. Participation in the study was voluntary and the ethical principles of anonymity and confidentiality were ensured. The researcher ensured that no harm (physical or emotional) was caused to the participants. The researcher did not mislead, deliberately misrepresented the facts, or withheld information from the participants, and they were unambiguously informed that participation would involve no financial compensation. The researcher as the principal investigator ensured that the research assistant, who helped with the field work, was well qualified, skilled, and had reasonable years of experience in research and data collection. The research assistant was a UKZN registered Master's student with a history of working in a research organisation as a research fellow.

1.10 Structure of the Thesis

Chapter one: Introduction and Background. This chapter introduced the research topic by briefly highlighting the scope and nature of the literature and focusing on matters of compliance within the private security service sector, with special attention to drinking establishments. According to some studies that were cited in this chapter, drinking establishments are characterised by violence and aggression and bouncers are non-compliant with the rule of law. However, most of these issues are driven by factors such as the characteristics of patrons, the environment in which a drinking establishment is located, and the issue of non-compliance with the legal requirements that govern the employment of bouncers. In addition, a brief background was provided to explain the growth of the private security industry in South Africa and how this has impacted the enforcement of legislation to better regulate it. The literature that underscored the main purpose of the study was highlighted, with specific focus on the noncompliance by private security companies and drinking establishment managers with the legal requirements that govern their operations. The five key objectives and research questions

that gave impetus to the study were listed, while the role of the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA) was emphasised. In conclusion, the significance of the study and its contribution to scholarly understanding of the role of bouncers were discussed, and this chapter was concluded with a brief outline of the methodological approach that the study adopted and the ethical considerations that were adhered to.

Chapter two: Literature Review. A review of multiple sources of literature was conducted to seek answers to the key research questions in the literature prior to the study. This section discusses the private security industry in general and then proceeds to discuss this industry in Kenya, Nigeria, and South Africa to elicit understanding of the similarities and differences in how the industry has grown, how it functions, and how it is regulated in these three countries. In addition, the private security industry in the Netherlands, England and Wales, and Russia is also discussed. The chapter further discusses international and domestic policy frameworks that regulate the private security industry and looks at what these policies state and how they have changed over time to accommodate the massive growth in the private security industry. The domestic policy framework that is explored in this chapter starts with the National Key Point Act of 1980 (South Africa. National Key Point Act, 1980), as this was the first Act that recognised the private security industry as a key role player in maintaining safety and security. The current policy framework that regulates the private security industry is the Private Security Industry Regulation Act No. 56 of 2001, which is also discussed in some depth. The chapter then narrows down the private security industry to discuss the drinking establishment phenomenon. The nature of drinking establishments in different parts of the world is discussed, while the role that bouncers play in these establishments to keep order and peace is illuminated.

Chapter three: Theoretical Framework. This chapter discusses and explains the three theoretical frameworks that underpinned the study. First, the concept ‘theoretical framework’ is broken down and defined. Selecting and adopting a theoretical framework that guides data collection and analysis is a crucial exercise when writing a thesis as such a theoretical framework guides the researcher on how to approach the interpretation of the data. The three theories that were adopted explain human behaviour in relation to the research topic under investigation. The first is the victim precipitation theory, which looks at patrons who frequent drinking establishments and who then get involved in fights. The second is the social disorganisation theory that describes drinking establishments as an environment that exists in

a state of anomie, or normlessness. The third is the frustration-aggression theory that elucidates how frustration will lead to aggression and that this is applicable to bouncers who enforce the rules but, if patrons become rowdy and uncontrollable, they react by becoming frustrated and aggressive. Various literature sources are also used to support the discussions and offer explanations of the chosen theories.

Chapter four: Research Methodology. This chapter highlights the methodological approach that was adopted to answer the key research questions. The tools that researchers use to gather data are described as these techniques make it possible for researchers to obtain information on social reality from people, groups, artefacts, and texts using various media. In controlled investigations and experiments, researchers employ an organised and systematic scientific approach to effectively solve theoretical and practical problems and produce discoveries and/or scientific breakthroughs (Welman, Kruger, Mitchell, 2006). The mixed methods research approach was adopted and this choice is explained in some depth, particularly as the research methods that were applied had to relate to the research topic, aim, and objectives. This chapter also covers other important research aspects such as the sampling methods, the compilation of the sample groups, and the strategy that was adopted to sample these groups. The data analysis methods are also discussed and the requirements to achieve trustworthiness are presented. The ethical considerations that were adhered to are also discussed in more detail than in Chapter one.

Chapter five: Data presentation and discussion. In this chapter, the data are presented and the findings are discussed. The findings are presented under the themes that emerged during the data analyses stage. The quantitative data findings are presented in tables while the qualitative findings are presented in narrated format. Information from the literature and theories are used to support the findings. Moreover, in the discussion on the findings, the objectives and research questions are considered in order not to deviate from the main aim of the study; hence the findings are consistently aligned to the research objectives. The data that are presented in this chapter were obtained from a total of 95 participants and were collected from interview transcripts (qualitative data) and questionnaires (quantitative data). The participants had been selected from different groups and social contexts.

Chapter six: Recommendations and conclusion. This is the last chapter of the thesis. It provides general conclusions related to the findings that are linked to the study's objectives. Recommendations that were derived from the findings are also offered. These recommendations focus on the key stake holders involved in the study, namely private security personnel/bouncers, managers of drinking establishments, and the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA). A few final pertinent remarks conclude this thesis.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter provided the background to the study by focusing on the need to investigate drinking spaces, with particular focus on safety and security, because of the proclivity in these spaces for violence and aggression. Violence is clearly associated with drinking spaces in the literature, which will be discussed in more depth in the following chapter. The problem statement clearly articulates that it is paramount to fill the gap of minimal South African literature on the vulnerability of drinking establishments and the role and culture of private securities who have a mandate to maintain safety and order in these spaces. The importance of regulation was highlighted as the literature suggests that the regulatory body, PSIRA, is lacking in its obligation to properly regulate bouncers and drinking establishments. The unprecedented growth of the private security industry in South Africa and across the world has put pressure on governments to quickly devise an effective framework for the regulation of drinking establishments and their staff.

The main purpose of the study was to look at how private security service providers conducted themselves in drinking spaces, and this chapter presented the five objectives and aligned research questions that guided the research and the outcome of the findings to ensure that the study would produce the results that it intended to produce. In a nutshell, the objectives of the study addressed compliance among private security service providers that operated in the selected drinking establishments, the behaviour of patrons, the role of managers or owners of the drinking establishments who needed to ensure patrons' and staff members' safety, and the role of PSIRA as the regulatory body of private security service providers in drinking spaces. The following chapter will present the findings based on the literature that was reviewed, while the subsequent chapter (Chapter three) will illuminate the theoretical principles that underpinned this research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses pertinent literature on the private security industry (PSI). Several scholars (Gumedze, 2007; Kinsey, 2007; Bearpark & Schulz, 2007; Suchi, 2017; Bosch & Maritz, 2011) have researched and published extensively on the PSI over the years. The PSI is considered one of the largest industries in the world today (Diphooorn, 2016). This chapter commences with a discussion on how the PSI became one of the most prevalent and important industries in the world, and how its small beginnings led to the creation and growth of ever more private security/military companies. In addition, this chapter will discuss the bouncing industry as a relatively new field within the PSI, and how functional it is in drinking establishments. It is argued that the bouncing industry in South Africa does not comply with relevant legislations due to poor regulatory practices by the government (Mbhele, 2017). This chapter further highlights all the relevant legislations that private security companies that operate in drinking establishments are subjected to. The key legislation that is currently relevant to bouncers is the Private Security Industry Regulation Act (PSIRA Act) of 2001. This Act mandates PSIRA to monitor and enforce compliance by all private security companies, including bouncers (Schneider, 2013).

Drinking establishments are arguably spaces that widely ignore the law regardless of high levels of alcohol intoxication among patrons (Demant, 2013). This chapter therefore contextualises the nature of drinking establishments and the environments in which they exist, and discusses how they contribute to patrons' poor behaviour. As drinking establishments are notorious for disorganisation and normlessness (Demant, 2013), the role of bouncers has become really important as they are the individuals who are supposed to maintain stability, peace, and security in these establishments. It is therefore important to analyse the role of bouncers in drinking spaces as they are known to adhere to a culture of violence and aggression. It is thus necessary to understand how their nature, demeanour, physical form, and the environment affect their role as security officers and their relationship with patrons.

2.2 Background of the Private Security Industry (PSI)

The private security industry (PSI), which is divided into private security companies (PSCs) and private military companies (PMCs), first emerged on the international stage during the 1960s (Kinsey, 2007). The industry became prominent after the Cold War, which is an indication that the private security industry dominates coercive statutory military structures on the international stage (Kinsey, 2007). The end of the Cold War saw the unprecedented rise in the outsourcing of military and security functions and, as a result, numerous states began to depend heavily on the services of private security/military companies (Bosch & Maritz, 2011). The private security industry became the fastest growing industry in the world because its services were in high demand. Consequently, the growth of the industry led to enormous stocks of weapons that were left in the hands of private people and enterprises (Gumedze, 2008). The men and women who were attracted to this industry were known as ‘mercenaries’, ‘soldiers of fortune’, or ‘dogs of war’, that are terms that symbolise the violent character of the industry. Even when this was the case, the stigma attached to the industry did not inhibit the demand for the services of private securities and their role continuously expanded around the globe (Gumedze, 2008).

2.3 The Private Security Industry in Some Parts of Africa

Although there are countries and regions on the African continent that are stable, Africa is often a turbulent and violent environment that experiences ongoing armed conflicts (Gumedze, 2007). The private security industry flourishes in both stable and unstable environments, but it is imperative that the challenges that exists due to the presence of PSCs/PMCs be addressed by understanding the growth of the industry and the environment in which it operates (Gumedze 2007:3). Understanding the specific historical and socio-economic contexts in which PSCs first emerged in African countries is vital in order to develop useful and relevant policy recommendations for PSCs in Africa (Bearpark & Schulz, 2007). The development of PSCs is associated with a long-term historical background as they did not emerge overnight. The most compelling factors that provoked the emergence of private security forces were weakening state capacity and the accompanying presence of a private security vacuum in large parts of Africa (Bearpark & Schulz, 2007).

2.3.1 The Private Security Industry in Kenya

Just like South Africa, Kenya is known for its high crime rates (Diphorn, 2016). Nairobi is particularly notorious as a city with high crime rates and it has been referred to by the United Nations as one of the most dangerous capital cities in the world, hence it received the nickname 'Nairobi robbery' (Diphorn, 2016). The private security industry in Kenya began its operations in the 1960s, and it has witnessed enormous expansion in the last two decades. It is estimated that there are over two thousand private security companies in Kenya, but only nine hundred are registered (Diphorn, 2016). In Kenya, private security officers are not allowed to be armed; however, companies that operate in the cash in transit and alarm response sectors have started to demand the right to arm their security personnel.

Kenya faces many challenges in regulating the operations of the private security industry. The first is the tight competition among companies for acquiring new clients and contracts, hence the marketing strategies employed by these companies, the manner of communication between owners of private security company and clients, and the way these companies operate have been affected (Diphorn, 2016). The second factor is that Kenya has many unregistered and illegally operating security companies that are usually referred to as 'fly by nights' in South Africa and as 'briefcase companies' in Kenya. These companies commonly operate in the guarding sector in spaces such as drinking establishments, shops, and restaurants (Diphorn, 2016). The third concern associated with this industry is the nature of the labour force and the poor conditions of their occupational environment, such as underpayment, long working hours, and poor training (Bearpark & Schulz, 2007). The biggest issue with domestic regulation is the dispute over the enforcement of the minimum wage and other labour laws for unarmed security guards. The issue of underpayment is associated with the fourth factor, which is that private security officers are the first to be suspected when a crime such as theft occurred (Diphorn, 2016). Moreover, the low wages they earn reportedly make them highly susceptible to bribery and corruption (Diphorn, 2016; Bearpark & Schulz, 2007).

Kenya does not formally regulate the private security industry (Diphoom, 2016). In 2004, a private Bill was drafted to establish a regulatory system that would be similar to that of South Africa (Diphoom, 2016; Bearpark & Schulz, 2007). The regulation Bill was initially to be incorporated into the new Constitution of 2010, but no real action has been taken to date to ensure that the Bill is passed even though others, such as the Independent Police Oversight Authority Act, have been passed (Diphoom, 2016). Although the industry lacks state regulation, all businesses in Kenya are registered under the Companies Act of Kenya and fall under the Ministry of Trade and Industry. This means that any person can register and establish a security company as all private security companies are registered as businesses and are governed by general business laws that apply to all companies. In addition, there are no standards to control the quality of any security product or service (Diphoom, 2016).

2.3.2 The Private Security Industry in Nigeria

This industry emerged in Nigeria in the early 1970s and has experienced phenomenal growth since then (Bamidele, Akinbolade & Nuhu, 2016). Only three companies were present during the early 1970s, but now there are between 1 500 and 2 000 private security companies that employ around 100 000 people (Bamidele, Akinbolade & Nuhu, 2016). Industrial organisations such as banks, oil companies, and some government agencies heavily rely on the private security industry for their services. However, there are several incompetent firms that do not have an operational license (Suchi, 2017). To try and curb this practice, the Nigerian Security and Civil Defence Corps (NSCDC) conducts inspections occasionally to compel private security companies to renew their licenses annually. Unlike Kenya, Nigeria has the Private Guard Companies Act which regulates the operations of all private security companies. The Act further provides for licensing of private guard companies by the Minister of Internal affairs, and this Minister also controls their registration and administration (Suchi, 2017; Bamidele, Akinbolade & Nuhu, 2016).

The primary regulator of the private security industry in Nigeria, just like in many other countries, is the State. The Private Guards Company (PGC) Act No. 23 of 1986 is the regulatory policy adopted by the state (Suchi, 2017). Chapter 30 of the PGC Act, entitled Law of Federation of Nigeria of 2004, is the main law that guides the licensing and control of PSCs in Nigeria. The Act also provides for the establishment of a regulatory authority for PSCs in the country. Laws that supplement the PGC Act include labour laws, the Nigerian Penal Code, the Criminal Code, and the Firearm (special provisions) Act (Suchi, 2017). Part of the Act conceptualizes the role of PSCs such as watching, guarding, patrolling, or carrying of money for the purpose of providing protection against crime. It further obligates any company that seeks to perform such duties to not only be registered as a private security company, but to obtain a license from the Minister of the Interior in compliance with the provisions of the Act. The character, competence, and integrity of the Directors or other persons involved in the operations of such a company are examined before a license is issued to operate as a private security company (Suchi, 2017).

The industry has played an important role in assisting the public police; however, the private security industry in Nigeria is considered to be weak and lacking in numerous areas as the majority of these companies are unable to provide essential services and cater for the security needs of their clients because of limitations in their capacities (Bamidele *et al.*, 2016). The one most noticeable area that demonstrates the inefficiency of and limitations in the security industry in Nigeria is the lack of practical cooperation between the public-private sector where security is required. It is said that the idea that there is cooperation between the public and the private security sector is theoretical (Suchi, 2017). Similarly, as in Kenya, the possession and use of firearms by private security officers is prohibited. This is perceived as a barrier for private security companies who wish to function efficiently to combat crime. In most cases, private security officers are expected to be merely gatemen who are limited to searching individuals who enter the premises they 'guard' (Bamidele *et al.*, 2016).

2.3.3 The Private Security Industry in South Africa

South Africa has the largest private security industry on the African continent and it regulates it reasonably well compared to a number of other African states, most notably Uganda and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) (Gumedze, 2008:18). The Gauteng province in South Africa has the largest number of PSCs because of its size, high industrial and urban nature, and the high prevalence of violent crimes in this region. Overall, the country's most significant provinces in terms of commercial activities, namely Gauteng, the Western Cape, and KwaZuluNatal experience a concentration in the scale and scope of the activities of PSCs (Taljaard, 2008). PSCs are strictly obligated to register with the Private Security Industry Regulatory

Authority (PSIRA) under the provisions of the Private Security Industry Regulation Act No. 56 of 2001. Individuals who seek to apply for registration with PSIRA are required to submit a clearance certificate if they are former members of an official military, security police, or intelligence force or service in South Africa or anywhere else (Frye, 2005).

There are numerous private military companies (PMCs) and private security companies (PSCs) that have operated outside of South Africa. Some of these are Meteoric Tactical Solutions, Executive Outcomes, Erinys International, and Omega Risk Solutions (Bosch & Maritz, 2011). Some of these companies have operated successfully in Sierra Leone, the DRC, Iraq, Afghanistan, Sudan, Ivory Coast, and other volatile destinations. While PSCs are mandated to adhere to the PSIR Act of 2001 and register with PSIRA, some have a license that mandates them to operate in adherence with the export licensing regime in relation to foreign military assistance, which falls under the provision of the Prohibition of Mercenaries Activities and Regulation of Certain Activities in Country of Armed Conflict Act of 2006 (Bosch & Maritz, 2011).

The Security Industry Alliance (SIA) is the largest umbrella body for PSCs and is highly active and effective compared to its counterparts. It is suggested that there are between six and nine PSC employer organisations in South Africa (Diphorn, 2016). Well-known large PSCs such as Securicor, ADT, Elvey Group, Fidelity Group, and Chubb are all members of SIA. There are also unions that represent PSCs, but it is argued that they are not effective in lobbying for the interests of their members. An example of this is the challenges that were experienced during

the strike that took place in 2006 regarding wage negotiations for PSCs. At the time of the 2006 strike, there were 15 representative trade unions, but the effectiveness of unionisation was minimal for PSC employees (Gumedze, 2008). During these wage negotiations, the unions tried to break the deadlock which saw strike action crippling security at various venues. This demonstrated the significant strength and impact of the sector (Gumedze, 2008).

The PSC and PMC sectors in South Africa developed due to two casual factors that occurred in different phases. When South Africa transitioned to a democracy in the early 1990s, the Interim Government initiated a demobilization and reintegration effort to bind the former homeland forces with the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) to ensure a defence force that would be of manageable size and that would cope with the country's needs (Taljaard, 2008). This move led to many experienced SANDF soldiers taking voluntary retrenchment packages, which happened to be an insufficient source of income for many. These soldiers played a pivotal role in the formation of the PMC and PSC industry as they had the experience, training, and competency levels that were required. The second factor that assisted the growth of the PSC sector has been, and still is, the inadequate protection and fighting capacity of state organs to curb crime (Taljaard, 2008). The need for the PSC industry to intervene and assist the state in preventing and controlling the increasing crime rate was inevitable. Many people and organisations have subsequently resorted to the services of the PSCs for protection because curbing crime remains a high priority issue in this country (Taljaard, 2008). PSC members are currently deployed to protect homes, airports, harbours, banks, industries, and other critical areas and it has gained the status of a highly important industry, even to the extent that South Africans will not be able to survive unharmed by crime without it (Taljaard, 2008).

2.4 An International Perspective on the Private Security Industry

2.4.1 The Netherlands

The first private security services that operated at night were set up at the beginning of 1642 in the Netherlands, and they may be regarded as the forerunners of today's private security organisations (de Waard, 1999). They were mainly tasked by small businesses and pensioners to check the locks of various premises at night. The Nederlandse Veiligheidsdienst (Netherlands Security Services) was founded in 1911 as a night watchmen company and is one

of the largest private security companies in the Netherlands at present (de Waard, 1999). In the 1920s, the first in-house security services were set up, the biggest being the State Mines Security Services company (de Waard, 1999).

Effective regulation has been essential because of the rapid expansion of the private security industry in the Netherlands (van Steden & Nalla, 2010; Terpstra, 2016). Previous laws that regulated that sector, such as the 1936 Law on Military Organisations, were inadequate in covering the private security industry, and a number of amendments were therefore implemented (de Waard, 1999). For instance, the Law on Private Security Organisations and Private Investigation Agencies came into force on 24 October 1977 (de Waard, 1999), and this law addresses the regulation of key points in the private security industry. It highlights, among other things, that private security companies should submit applications to the Minister of Justice if they want to operate. Authorization to do so is granted for a period of five years, and approval is granted based on operational conditions (de Waard, 1999). Operational conditions entail requirements such being in possession of sufficient working capital and the appointment of suitably qualified personnel. Staff members are required to receive appropriate training and a Basic Diploma for Security Employees must be obtained by security officers within 12 months of taking up a post (de Waard, 1999). Additionally, the law emphasises other major aspects such as the right equipment for use by security staff, uniforms, central alarm monitoring stations, and vehicles for transporting cash and valuables. It is mandatory for all employees to wear a uniform (de Waard, 1999). Surprisingly, staff are prohibited from carrying weapons due to the nature of their duties, but identification cards are compulsory when on duty. If certain conditions are met, dogs may be used to exercise some security duties (de Waard, 1999). Security employees are given the same rights as other citizens and have no policing powers, such as the power of arrest or the right to carry a firearm (de Waard, 1999).

2.4.2 England and Wales

In England and Wales, the Private Security Industry Act was passed in 2001 after three decades of campaigning. This legislation was instrumental in the establishment of a new non departmental public body called the Security Industry Authority (SIA) (Button, 2007). The most important function of the SIA relates to licensing of individuals who operate in various sectors in the private security industry and it is subject to regulation. There are of course also

numerous other functions such as door supervisors, vehicle immobilizers, security officers, key holders, private investigators, and security consultants (Button, 2007). The Police Reform Act was passed a year after the establishment of the SIA with the aim to accredit community safety schemes and provide them with special powers. However, it is unclear to what extent the police and private security companies have made use of these provisions (Button, 2007).

In England and Wales, licenses are based on an identity check, a criminal record check, and a competency requirement (Button, 2007). These standards vary for the different types of licensing. In these designated sectors, licenses are required for all employees, from the most junior to the most senior. Secondary legislation is used in the industry by the power vested in the Home Secretary through legislation to extend the coverage of legislation to other sectors of the private security industry (Button, 2007). The compulsory licensing of private security companies has not yet been introduced by legislation, but a voluntary scheme is in place. However, there is some scope to make it compulsory under secondary legislation which means that the SIA provides the Home Secretary and the Board with a great deal of discretion in creating the actual standards (Button, 2007).

2.4.3 Russia

Russian law permits licensing for three types of security agencies and their personnel. The first is private detective agencies, private (company) security services, and private protection companies (Volkov, 2000). Private detective agencies have a narrow and very specific role which is mostly requested by private individuals to address private matters. Because these private detective agencies are few, their services are expensive (Nalla, Gurinskaya & Rafailova, 2017). All enterprises are permitted to establish a private security service company regardless of the nature of its operation, size, or form of ownership. As a result, special security enterprises have been established in a large number of private and state enterprises and financial institutions for physical and economic protection, information gathering, and data analysis. Former high-ranking state security officers infiltrated large banks and companies, especially those that deal with state financial assets or strategic resources (Volkov, 2000). In comparison to the private security services, private protection companies are autonomous from their clients and act as independent market agents that supply services on a contractual basis. Many

members of private protection companies started as private guards or informal security personnel for concrete business projects (Volkov, 2000; Nalla, Gurinskaya & Rafailova, 2017). By the end of 1999, there were 11 652 private security companies which included 6 775 private protective companies and 4 612 private security services companies (van Steden & Sarre, 2007). The adoption of the law on private security in Russia saw new businesses expand at unprecedented rates, particularly in Moscow and St. Petersburg (Nalla et al. 2017). In 1998, the city of Moscow had a total of 3 125 private security companies and St. Petersburg had 816 private security companies (Volkov, 2000; van Steden & Sarre, 2017). One factor that encouraged the growth of this industry in Russia after 1996 was the reshuffling of state security, which resulted in a number of specialists being jobless and able to enter the industry (van Steden & Sarre, 2017). Another factor that led to the growth of the industry was the demand by the initial market for protection services (Volkov, 2000). A third factor was that, after 1995, control and inspection measures were tightened, and this led to the closing down of more than 600 companies each year for violating regulations (Volkov, 2000). However, de Waard (1999) states that potential victims turned to private security companies because Russia was an extreme example of a lawless country at the time. Currently, there are more than ten times the number of private securities than state police officers in Russia.

2.5 International-based Regulations that Guide the Private Security Industry

International legislations are often introduced to regulate the military in the event of wars or conflicts that pose a threat to human rights around the world (Shearing, 2006). The presence of the private security industry surprisingly exacerbates violations of human rights during wars as their members often behave like mercenaries or vigilantes in such conflicts. Kinsey (2007) argues that debates on the roles and responsibilities of private security and military actors in times of war and at international level are very old and often contentious. ‘Soldiers for hire’ or ‘mercenary’ are terms that are familiar within the United Nations (UN) system as they have been used since the mid-1960s. Issues relating to the peculiar activities of private security companies have been considered by governments across the world, and governments have been engaging in discussions on this issue for some time. Consequently, according to Kinsey (2007), the private security sector has moved towards a more direct consideration of more modern and private security services.

Imposing strict legislations to regulate this industry has played a significant role in many countries. For instance, some international legislations attempt to regulate the PSMI that engages in armed conflicts. For example, international humanitarian law seeks to prevent the PSI from engaging in activities that violate human rights, particularly during armed conflicts (Frye, 2004), and international humanitarian law (IHL) is therefore applicable during both international and non-international armed conflicts. The core rules and principles of IHL are found in the four Geneva Conventions of 1949 and their Additional Protocols of 1977, which are specifically intended to solve humanitarian problems arising from international or non-international armed conflicts (Frye, 2004).

It must be reiterated that the current research did not aim to study armed conflicts, wars, or the PSMI. However, this topic is raised to provide context and discuss the background of the PSI, which will lead to an understanding of the nature of the contemporary industry, particularly as it has an important leg that operates in modern-day drinking establishments.

2.5.1 The Montreux Document

The Montreux Document was endorsed on 17 September 2008 by 17 states. These states include the United States, the United Kingdom, China, France, Iraq, Afghanistan, Sierra Leone, and South Africa, to name a few (Cockayne, 2008). The Montreux Document was drafted to ensure that states that utilise private military and security companies during armed conflicts subscribe to legal obligations and good practices (Cockayne, 2008). The massacre that occurred in Nisoor Square in Baghdad in September 2007, which saw 17 civilians killed by the personnel of a private military and security company, is one of many instances that prompted the adoption of the Montreux Document. This document serves as the foundation for more effective regulations and improved accountability for security companies (Cockayne, 2008). In full, the document is titled *Montreux Document on Pertinent International Legal Obligations and Good Practices for States related to Operations of Private Military and Security Companies during Armed Conflict*. Consultation initiated by the Swiss Federal Department of Foreign Affairs occurred in late 2005 and these negotiations involved multiple governments with the cooperation of the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) (Schneider & Minnaar, 2015). The process that led to the completion of the document took almost three years and

involved extensive consultation with industry and civil society actors, five intergovernmental meetings, and four expert meetings (Cockayne, 2008).

The Montreux Document sets out various restrictions on PMSCs and a set of directives that steers operations internationally and that guides governments on how to legislate those that operate in their country, how they are run, and how they should be operationalised. South Africa was part of the meetings that steered the development of this document (Schneider & Minnaar, 2015). According to the latter authors, four principles are entrenched in this document:

1. International law should govern relations among governments. PMSCs already have a number of well-established rules that are applicable to their operations, especially in the event of an armed conflict, with particular focus on international humanitarian law and human rights law.
2. Compliance with international humanitarian law and human rights law during armed conflict should be promoted with emphasis on existing good practices.
3. Good practices and obligations referred to above should also be applicable to post-conflict events and other similar situations.
4. Hopes of “co-operation, information sharing and assistance between states” are highlighted in this document. To achieve full respect for international humanitarian law and human rights law, PMSCs’ commensuration with each state’s capacity is needed. This should occur by means of cooperative implementation and in collaboration with and support by PMSCs themselves.

According to the Montreux Document, PMSCs are defined as “private business entities that provide military and/or security services, irrespective of how they describe themselves” (Schneider & Minnaar, 2015:131). The document further elaborates on the nature of the services that PMSCs should provide in terms of armed guarding, the protection of persons and objects (such as convoys, buildings and other places), and the maintenance of forces and security personnel (International Committee of the Red Cross [ICRC], cited in Schneider & Minnaar, 2015).

According to Diphorn (2016), the obligation is placed on states to exercise vigilance in managing PMCSs that operate internationally as they are generally contracted in by governments. This is done to ensure that international humanitarian law violations do not occur. PMSCs are furthermore not authorised to perform duties or exercise powers that are assigned to the agents or agencies of the state in respect of international humanitarian law (Diphorn, 2016; Cockayne, 2009). Schneider and Minnaar (2015) also highlight that contracting states have an obligation to ensure that PMSC personnel are trained accordingly and are aware of all their obligations under international law. If violations occur, lawful measures are to be taken by the contracting state that are within the state's own legislative framework to sanction wrongdoings that are in contravention of both domestic legislation and international law.

2.5.2 The International Code of Conduct for Private Security Service Providers

This international Code of Conduct originated in a report that was drafted by the Swiss Government and a Swiss Federal Council in 2005. This report recommends that private military and security companies should engage in dialogue regarding their actions in certain areas (Gumedze, 2007). As a result, the Swiss Federal Department of Foreign Affairs (DFAE), in conjunction with the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), held a series of four meetings which involved experts from governments, the private security service industry, and civil society (Gumedze, 2007). The objective was to clarify the roles of states with respect to private security operations in the event of an armed conflict. The discussions led to the adoption of the Montreux Document in September 2008 (Gumedze, 2007; Schneider & Minnaar, 2015). The Code of Conduct emphasises the non-use of force as it states that PMSCs must advise their personnel to avoid using force (Gumedze, 2007). If it happens that force is used, it shall be in a manner that is consistent with the law. Moreover, the use of force should not exceed what is strictly necessary and should be proportionate to the threat and appropriate to the situation (Swiss Confederation, cited in Schneider & Minnaar, 2015). The Criminal Procedure Act of 1977 clearly endorses these principles in its provisions in section 49. Furthermore, the international Code of Conduct states that security officers are not obligated to use firearms against anyone, unless in situations of self-defence or in defence of others against perpetrators that threaten to cause the death of victims or serious injury. However, security officers who have access to a firearm must have successfully completed appropriate firearm training (Kinsey, 2007). According to a report by Security Beyond Borders (2011, cited in Schneider &

Minnaar, 2015), reasonable, minimum, and proportionate force is not excessive and is appropriate in terms of protecting oneself or one's property. Force must be used in a manner that permits a police or security officer to subdue a perpetrator while maintaining safety for him-/herself. According to the United States Department of Defence (2005, cited in Schneider & Minnaar, 2015), minimum action means that such action needs to be sufficient to bring a situation under control, even when the use of a firearm is involved. When the perpetrator complies with instructions and ceases aggressive behaviour, all action must cease immediately. Using a firearm is thus the last resort. To determine reasonable force, the Denver Police Department (Martin, cited in Schneider & Minnaar, 2015) highlights four factors that need to be considered to avoid deadly consequences. These factors are also applicable to the private security industry and are posed in the form of pertinent questions:

1. How imminent is the threat to officers or others?
2. How actively is the suspect resisting?
3. How tense, uncertain, and rapidly evolving is the situation? and
4. How severe is the crime the suspect has just committed?

2.5.3 Regulating the private security industry in South Africa

The regulation of the private security industry began a while back, but the need for stricter regulation has increased over the years as the industry has experienced immense growth (Diphorn, 2016). Regulation is defined as the “presence of formal, direct mechanisms of control established with the stated intention of preventing or reducing injustice, corruption, negligence, and incompetence” (Diphorn, 2016). Regulation includes implementing legislation to ensure that an industry operates within legal parameters, and it often needs adherence to specific labour laws and training requirements. This is particularly true regarding international efforts, of which the establishment of the 2008 Montreux Document is merely one example. The Montreux Document encourages states to implement tighter regulations regarding the training and monitoring of private military and security companies who operate in armed conflict zones. According to Diphorn (2016), scholars have generally analysed the regulation of the private security industry within a governance framework and have regarded it as a formalised means of ensuring that particular standards are met and that the industry operates legitimately (Diphorn, 2016).

Scholars and researchers are increasingly convinced that the PSI does not operate in a complete regulatory void as it is guided by and subjected to a complex web of international and domestic legal norms, contractual obligations, market pressures, and self-regulatory measures (Gumedze, 2007; Suchia, 2017; Taljaard, 2008; Cusumano, 2009). However, there is no doubt that the PSI still suffers from persisting under regulation (Cusumano, 2009:1). For instance, the PSI in Africa is generally unregulated and this poses a security threat to Africa's peace and security (Gumedze, 2008:6). On a lighter note, it has been argued that the cheese industry is more regulated than the PSI. Regulatory frameworks exist to regulate issues pertaining to the PSI in areas such as arms control, human trafficking, transparency and accountability, labour conditions, employee training, and operational standards (Messner, 2008:146). It has been argued that limited attention is paid to private security institutions regarding matters of legal requirements and regulation even though they have obtained jurisdiction over large tracts of urban space (Shearing, 2006). Therefore, as the barriers seem to be blurred in some instances, the employment of best practices through the regulation of private security companies' activities is a matter of debate due to their involvement in policing activities. This is because these companies, although private, are involved in policing activities and yet are not subjected to the same regulations as the state police (Theletsane, 2015).

Hadfield (2008) maintains that private security companies more often than not deploy their daily activities in defence of privileged groups' social and economic interests. Shearing (2006) affirms that private security institutions may only conduct their businesses under the auspices of the government's provisions in relevant legal frameworks. He maintains that private institutions are governed by terms that are entrenched in the Constitution as much as they are providers of governance on behalf of state agencies. Schneider (2013) utilises a model of regulatory classification in the private security industry and applies it to a specific sub-sector of the PSI. Each industry can be considered regulated by basically identifying two key components an industry should possess using this approach. These two key components are: training as part of the regulatory structure, and adherence to a regulatory/licensing authority. A training regulatory structure sets standards and ensures that private securities receive proper, effective training, while a regulatory/licensing authority makes sure that security firms and security officers comply with best practices and legal frameworks (Schneider, 2013).

According to Schneider (2013), regulatory options are divided into three categories, and each category has a criterion that defines it. First, a ‘regulated’ private security industry comprises of minimum competency standards that are accepted, supervised, and regulated by an oversight body. Members of the industry must therefore regularly reregister and also retrain their security staff to demonstrate competency and compliance with the regulatory body within a given period, such as once every three years. Secondly, ‘partially regulated’ industries are those that are not endorsed by a licensing or regulatory body. Most South African industries that provide security services, specifically in nightclubs, fall under the ‘partially regulated’ category due to a lack of enforcement and monitoring as these requirements are not effectively applied by an oversight body (Schneider, 2013). Thirdly, a ‘non-regulated’ private security industry means that the industry has training and industry standards that are not observed by players in the industry and thus a licensing or regulatory body is virtually absent. Arguably, many private security personnel and companies in South African that operate in drinking establishments fall under this category as they operate with impunity and are not obliged to follow the industry’s code of conduct as mandated by legislation (Schneider, 2013).

2.6 Key South African Legislations and the Private Security Industry

2.6.1 The National Key Point Act of 1980

In the historical past, there was a desperate demand in South Africa for additional security staff to deal with political unrest and strategic attacks by African National Congress (ANC) forces and dissidents (Diphorn, 2013). These attacks were launched at key installations (such as the attack on a fuel plant outside Johannesburg) at times when state forces could not be utilised for their defence (Shearing & Berg, 2006 cited in Diphorn, 2013). Tasks that had previously been the responsibility of the formal police were later handed over to the private sector through various legislative amendments. The establishment of the National Key Point Act [NKPA] No. 102 of 1980 was critical in these legislative changes. This Act highlighted that the responsibility for security provision at strategic sites, which were regarded as very important for national security, should be vested in these sites' management or owners (Diphorn, 2013). The state still held authority and control over these sites even though private individuals were assigned

with the task of protecting them. This Act is a pertinent example of how the state handed some of its security duties over to the private sector (Diphoom, 2013).

2.6.2 The Security Officers Act No. 92 of 1987

The promulgation of the Security Officers Act (SOA) of 1987 strengthened the collaborative relationship between the private security industry and the apartheid state. This Act was an extension framework of a state-corporate partnership policing network that was shared with civil society (Brogden & Shearing, 1993, cited in Diphoom, 2013). There was a growing need for formal regulation during the 1980s when the industry started to grow exponentially. This formal regulation was particularly intended for monitoring and controlling security officers who were mostly black males. Due to a number of political problems at the time (e.g., some of these security officers would serve as spies for the ANC), company owners used their contacts within the South Africa Police to initiate an informal screening system through which potential employees were assessed to prove their viability for employment by a private security company (Diphoom, 2013). The informal screening system was later formalised by the then Minister of Law and Order through the SOA (Diphoom, 2013). The Act emphasised registration with the Board of the SOA and established rules about disqualification and withdrawal of registration. Currently, the regulation of the private security industry is implemented and enforced by PSIRA, as discussed earlier. However, the SOA was the first step towards state regulation of the industry when there was collaboration between the public and private sectors and a unified effort was launched to attain the same goal (Diphoom, 2013). Currently, the Security Officers Act (SOA) No. 92 of 1987 (South Africa. Security Officers Act, 1987) endorses and strengthens the standards that regulate the supervision of the PSI by an oversight body. The sector is therefore mandated to reregister and train its security staff until they can demonstrate competency and adherence to the regulatory body's requirements within a given period, such as once every three years.

The original Security Officers Act achieved only marginal success. A number of issues were identified, which ultimately led to the establishment of the Security Officers Amendment Acts of 1992, 1996, and 1997, as well as a brand-new Act in 2001 (Berg, 2003). Because the guarding industry is its primary focus, the Security Officers Act's primary flaw is that it excludes some components of the private security sector. Berg (2003) specifically points out that there is no mention of internal security. According to section 1, "a service given by an employee on behalf of his employer" is not considered a security service as that term is used in the Act. The Act's requirement that the Security Officers' Board should include six individuals from the sector it is meant to regulate is another issue (Diphorn, 2016). This was and still is viewed as problematic as the Security Officers' Board's ability to effectively regulate itself may be hampered by the vested interests of the private security representatives. The inclusion of the South African Police Service in the Security Officers' Board and the broad discretion given to the police to choose the private security representatives were both issues with the Act that were highlighted as early as 1989. The Minister of Law and Order could choose Security Officer Board members based on a list compiled by the Commissioner of Police (Berg, 2003).

2.6.3 Security Officers Amendment Acts No. 199 of 1992 and No. 64 of 1996

The Security Officers Act was first updated in 1992 to allow for changes in the representation of the Security Officers' Board, and this ultimately led to the abolition of the Board's police representation. As a result of this modification, the Security Officers' Board was given increased autonomy and authority, including the ability to issue regulations (Berg, 2003). The Security Officers Amendment Act of 1992 (South Africa. The Security Officers Amendment Act, 1992) and the Security Officers Act were both amended to update some terminology as required by the Amendment Act of 1996. These amendments are mostly related to transitional changes in South Africa. For instance, by referring to the South African Police Service rather than the South African Police, the Security Officers Amendment Act of 1996 (South Africa. The Security Amendment Act, 1996) proposes a new definition of what a security service is (Berg, 2003).

2.6.4 Security Officers Amendment Act No. 104 of 1997

The 1994 establishment of a security forum, which led to the formation of three task groups to examine the evolution of the private security industry, was the catalyst for the third modification to the original Security Officers Act (Berg, 2003; Taljaard, 2008). The Security Officers' Board was reorganised, in-house security was added to the Act, and other changes were the main outcomes of these task groups. The Security Officers Amendment Act was passed in 1997 (South Africa. The Security Amendment Act, 1997) after these focal points had been completed in 1996. The Security Officers' Interim Board would take over the Security Officers' Board's responsibilities as controller, promoter, and guardian of the security industry "until a new permanent Security Officers' Board has been constituted" according to the preamble of this Act (Berg, 2003). The 1997 Amendment Act also mandates the Interim Board to provide the Minister of Safety and Security with periodical updates on the supervision of the security sector (Taljaard, 2008).

Additionally, the 1997 Amendment Act required that the Minister prepared a new Bill within 18 months of the Act's enactment in order for the Interim Board to play a role in the establishment of the future permanent Board (that is, the enactment of the 1997 Amendment Act) (Berg, 2003; Taljaard, 2008). This did occur, as evidenced by the subsequent creation of the Private Security Industry Regulation Act of 2001. By adding members who are representative of employees who are security officers, employers of such employees, and users of security services, the 1997 Amendment Act also broadens the makeup of the Board (Berg, 2003). According to the Amendment Act, the chairperson and vice-chairperson must be independent individuals who have no connection with the private security sector. In effect, an attorney and an accountant who were both private individuals were put on the Interim Board at the time (Berg, 2003). The Amendment Act of 1997 tries to further close the gaps in the original Security Officers Act as evidenced by the inclusion of merely the guarding component, which is not particularly addressed in this Act (Taljaard, 2008). However, there is universal agreement within the private security sector that the Security Officers' Board's alleged poor management and failure to fulfil its regulatory obligations due to its limited ability to effectively enforce the law led to the creation of this new Interim Board (Berg, 2003).

2.7 Legislations that are Currently Relevant to the Private Security Industry

2.7.1 Private Security Industry Regulation Act No. 56 of 2001

The 2001 PSIR Act seeks to close various gaps in the Security Officers Act of 1987, which renders the new Act a more comprehensive piece of legislation than the previous one (Theletsane, 2015). The Security Officers Act of 1987 was repealed by the Private Security Industry Regulation Act of 2001, but some of its provisions of the older Act are still in effect (Berg, 2003). In fact, there are several pieces of proposed legislation currently being discussed that will directly affect the private security sector (and in some cases, that will replace more antiquated laws still in place). The areas that are addressed include: renewal of registration; firearms and weapons; informational consumer outreach; service advertising; laws that are especially relevant to key cutters; order and safety in public spaces; and a code of conduct for inspectors in the industry (Berg, 2003).

By designating both officers and enterprises as security service providers, the new PSiRA of 2001 significantly broadens the scope of the law (Theletsane, 2015). For instance, there is mention of previously unmentioned security service providers such as locksmiths, private investigators, security trainers or instructors, manufacturers, importers, distributors of monitoring devices, installers of security equipment, labour brokers, people who keep an eye on electronic security equipment, and managers of businesses who manage or control the provision of security services (Theletsane, 2015).

Moreover, the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA) was established according to the Act, and a legally constituted Council oversees managing this Authority (Gumedze, 2007). Because the security industry is not represented in this regulatory system, the Council's makeup differs from that authorised by earlier legislation (Gumedze, 2007). According to Section 6 of the Act, the Council needs to be composed of a chairperson, vice chairperson, and three councillors, all of whom are appointed by the Minister of Safety and Security and who have had no "direct or indirect financial or personal interest in the private security industry" or represent in any way the interests of those working in the sector (Gumedze, 2007). The Council may appoint a committee or committees in advisory positions as the only means of communication with the private security sector. This means that the Council "is not legally compelled to adopt any suggestion made by a committee" (Gumedze,

2007; Berg, 2003). The Act also outlines a wide range of goals and duties for the Authority, whose overarching goal is to effectively regulate the industry in order to protect the interests of the general public, the national interest, and the private security sector as a whole. Other goals include fostering the sector's stability and dependability, promoting effectiveness and accountability, and maintaining a high standard of service delivery (Berg, 2003). According to Section 4 of the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority Act No. 56 of 2001, the broad functions of PSIRA are to:

- (a) Continuously conduct inspections to identify all irregularities in the security industry by all stakeholders.
- (b) Represent the authority and protect its image.
- (c) Receive and process applications for all security service providers.
- (d) Penalise or withdraw the registration status of any security service provider who contravenes the law or the Act.
- (e) Set standards to be followed by all security service providers.
- (f) Ensure that a background check is conducted for anybody applying to become a security service provider.
- (g) Protect security officers from being abused by their employers.
- (h) Ensure that suitable security training is adhered to by all stakeholders in the industry.
- (i) Conduct continuous monitoring of training centres.
- (j) Set security training standards.
- (k) Accredite qualifications in the security industry.
- (l) Verify all certificates sent to them by individuals seeking accreditation.
- (m) Ensure that their functions are performed by people who are mandated to do so by the Act.
- (n) Keep a database of all security service providers.
- (o) Ensure that there are branch offices in the country and that they represent the authority well by carrying out its functions.
- (p) Ensure that the Code of Conduct (as outlined in Chapter 4 of PSIRA Act No. 56 of 2001) is adhered to by all security service providers.
- (q) Assist with verification of all users of the services of security service in terms of their compliance with the Act.
- (r) Supply the Department of Safety and Security [renamed in 2009 as Police] with any information they might need regarding their duties.

2.7.2 Private Security Industry Regulations Act of 2002

The private security sector is also subjected to regulations that are issued by the Minister for Safety and Security regarding registration applications, training requirements, clearance certificates (e.g., allowing former members of formal policing, military, or security forces to become security service providers), the infrastructure needed to provide a security service, change of name and status, or any other relevant information about changes to security service providers, and keeping information safe (Berg, 2003). Noteworthy are sections 13(5) and (6), which prohibit security officers from using their personal firearms while working for the security firm, because it is the firm's duty to supply their employees with weapons (Berg, 2003). Previously, security personnel could use their own firearms while on duty, and therefore the requirement that security guards be provided with firearms by the corporation could lead to an issue with this new legislation because it would mean that there would be at least twice as many weapons on the streets (Berg, 2003). This would occur if a security guard continues to carry his or her personal firearm as well as the weapon issued by the private security firm where they work. The requirement that the security guard should sign in his or her weapon is not as simple either, because such a practice requires adherence to legal measures as well as practical considerations such as where the weapon needs to be stored for safekeeping (Berg, 2003).

2.7.3 Improper Conduct Enquiries Regulations of 2003

These regulations, which were put into effect on 1 March 2003, outline the steps that must be taken while looking into the behaviour of a security service provider (Berg, 2003; Bearpark & Schulz, 2007). The 2003 Code of Conduct for Security Service Providers outlines what constitutes improper behaviour. The respondent is referred to in the regulations as the "security service provider in connection with whom an enquiry is held" (Berg, 2003). According to the regulations, a security officer of any standing who works for a private security business and/or their representative, such as a director of a company, a trustee, a partner, a member of a close corporation, and so on, may be charged with a crime (Bearpark & Schulz, 2007). A charge against a security official must also be presented to the Director in the form of an affidavit, according to the regulations. The position of 'Director' in this context refers to "a staff member of the Authority" (i.e., the Security Industry Regulatory Authority) who has been designated by the Council as an Acting Director or to whom any of the Director's powers or responsibilities

have been transferred or assigned. The Director, with the council's approval, appoints presiding authorities and prosecutors (Bearpark & Schulz, 2007; Berg, 2003).

2.7.4 Code of Conduct for Security Service Providers 2003

The Private Security Industry Regulation Act of 2001 stipulates that security service providers must abide by a code of behaviour. This Code of Conduct, which came into effect on 1 March 2003, includes obligations to the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority, such as cooperating and being understanding of the Authority's requirements (Berg, 2003). In essence, the Code of Conduct aims to prevent crime, advance public and customer interests, and enhance the stability, status, and effectiveness of the sector (Berg, 2003). Certain categories of security service providers, including locksmiths, private investigators, those who offer training, and others, are also specifically addressed in the Code of Conduct. Employers are expected to follow specific rules as set out in the Code of Conduct, and sanctions for wrongdoing are listed. The Code of Conduct also stipulates additional responsibilities for the state and state security structures (Berg, 2003).

2.7.5 Security Officers' Board Training Regulations 1992

The Security Officers Act of 1976 resulted in the creation of comprehensive training regulations that are still in effect. The Security Officers' Board issues accreditation certificates, which are used to sanction training institutions that comply with specified standards (Berg, 2003). Certificates are also issued to security officers who have successfully completed training at an approved training facility. The procedures for expiration and withdrawal of accreditation certificates are outlined, along with the restrictions, fines, and offenses related to the rendering of security services by individuals who are underqualified or improperly trained (Berg, 2003).

2.7.6 The 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

The functioning of the PSI is covered by Chapter 2 sections 22 and 23 of the Constitution (Government of South Africa, 1996). Every citizen has the freedom to select their trade, occupation, or profession according to this section but, any such trade, occupation, or profession is subject to legal restrictions. Chapter 2 Section 23 on Labour Relations, which emphasises the rights of workers, is also appropriate in this case (Berg, 2003). Moreover, Chapter 11 of the Constitution gives effect to the establishment of the Republic's security services that are comprised of a single defence force, a single police force, and any intelligence services constituted in accordance with Section 199(1) of the Constitution. Section 199(3) states that "other than the security services established in terms of the Constitution, armed organisations or services may be established only in terms of national legislation." Paragraph (4) further notes that "the security services must be structured and regulated by national legislation", while paragraph (5) encourages security services "to act, and must teach and require their members to act, in accordance with the Constitution and the law, including customary international law and international agreements binding on the Republic" (Government of South Africa, 1996).

2.7.7 The Criminal Procedure Act No. 51 of 1977

This Act is especially relevant to the private security sector because it gives employees the authority they need to conduct their duties without having to rely on the specific arrest, search, and seizure privileges granted to public police officers (Berg, 2003). This Act also allows the private security sector to operate within the boundaries of the law rather than being strictly regulated. According to Section 42(3) for this Act, "the owner, lawful occupier, or person in charge of (l), therefore a customer, only needs to give permission for the private security business to legally assume responsibility for the property in order for security agents to be able to detain those who are breaking the law on that specific property (Berg, 2003).

The majority of the laws governing the private security sector were summarised above. The Companies Act, the Close Corporations Act, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, and other relevant Acts that haven't been covered above apply to all enterprises, not simply private security firms (in particular Sectoral Determination), and their employees may detain a suspect who has allegedly committed or is allegedly committing a crime (Berg, 2003).

2.8 SASSETA and Security Training Quality Assurance

Concerns about the general lack of professionalization and specialisation in the larger private security sector have been voiced repeatedly over the past years, particularly as private security businesses in South Africa have expanded at a rapid rate (Pillay, 2007). Furthermore, legitimate concerns have been expressed by a number of role players and industry commentators about the lack of quality control and standardisation with regard to the provision of various training courses (many of which are of short duration and of suspect quality) by unregulated or nonaccredited training centres. It has been argued that many of these are of the fly-by-night variety, and/or that they use unqualified trainers (Pillay, 2007). The Security Officers' Board, the industry's governing authority at the time, created regular training programs in the late 1980s, but these were solely directed towards security guards (levels E-A) (Pillay, 2007)

Under section 32(d) of the Security Officers Act No. 32 of 1987, regulations were established to regulate the training requirements for security officers at accredited training facilities by accredited instructors (PSIRA, 2007). According to these regulations, security employees who were paid had to complete appropriate training. Setting minimal requirements for security officers to register with the Security Officers' Board was the primary goal of the regulations governing security officer training (SOB) initiative. Efforts to eliminate the so-called 'fly-by night' operators who training security personnel without being registered was another reason for regulating the training standards and the registration of security training providers (Pillay, 2007). Customers therefore began to demand expert services from security companies as more and more dishonest operators entered the market. The Security Officers' Board formed the Security Officers' Board Training Committee (SOBTC) in order to provide a training programme that would be suitable for the various levels of security guard grading (Pillay, 2007). It is noteworthy that the SOBTC was made up of security firm owners who would have an impact on the curriculum's structure and the subject matter contained in the training material (Pillay, 2007).

The Security Officers' Board was tasked with overseeing the security industry's regulation through its inspectorate branch, which is why all security service providers were required to register with the SOB (Berg, 2003; Pillay, 2007). The Board also performed quality control for security training and issued certificates to registered security officers in addition to the foregoing. Because the SOB was seen by the government and other role players as the "referee and player in the same game" (Pillay, 2007: 68), this became problematic under the new political system, and the government thus proposed new legislation that would restructure the management and operation of security service providers in South Africa from the year 2000 (Pillay, 2007).

The Security Officers' Board Training Committee created a grading system for several categories of security officers, ranging from Grade E, the lowest level, to Grade A, the highest level. These categories were based on quite prescriptive statutory requirements (Berg, 2003; Pillay, 2007). The Committee additionally mandated grade levels according to job descriptions and established an exact program outline for each level in addition to these grades. The training program was split up into five five-day training sessions with breaks in between to provide candidates time to advance and broaden their specialised knowledge and abilities (Pillay, 2007). However, other training organisations would frequently finish the same programs in one week and issue certificates of competence. In the end, this negatively impacted the level of security officers' abilities and qualifications (Pillay, 2007). Moreover, many security guards simply bought their grade certificates from dubious vendors and registered with the SOB. Again, this had a big impact on the quality of service and the skills of the security officers who were providing it (Pillay, 2007).

The SOBTC proposed and enforced relevant curricula and contents based on the requirements as laid out in the legislation. The following modules were, amongst others, lodged in the Grade E curriculum: Personal hygiene, Fundamental workplace safety, Fundamental public relations, Roles and functions of security staff, Bombs, Explosive devices and firearms, Observation, Guarding and patrolling, the Use of fire extinguishers, Fundamental legal considerations, and Industrial relations (Pillay, 2007). The curriculum for Grade D contained the following modules: Legal issues 1, Radio communication, Basic firefighting, Self-defence 1, Access control, Searching procedures and techniques, Pocket books, and Basic occupational safety. Modules such as Physical security and technology, Scheduled inspections, Role of security

staff in an emergency, Statements, Communication, Orders or Instructions, On-the-job training, Supervision, Group relations, and Managing parades formed part of the Grade B curriculum (Pillay, 2007). The curriculum for Grade A had the following modules, amongst others: Action at the scene of an incident; Human behaviour; Interrogation of witnesses; Rules of delivering evidence; Report writing; Court and court procedures; and Security registries (Pillay, 2007). These grades were still in use after the Private Security Industry Regulation Act 56 of 2001 was enacted because the newly established Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA), which took the place of the previous Security Officers' Board and Security Officers' Interim Board, still recognised it as the official training program.

However, the newly elected government's significant emphasis on skills development and black economic empowerment (BBE) made this strategy untenable (Pillay, 2007), and there was a need to re-align the former Security Officers' Board training program with that of the PSIRA and SASSETA bodies due to the shift in legislation that governs the private security business and the South African government's emphasis on accelerated expansion and skills development in this sphere (Pillay, 2007). Although there has been noticeable improvement, this approach has proven to be challenging. A Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) was signed by SASSETA and PSIRA on 4 July 2005, and a joint communiqué was released on 6 October 2006 to give this procedure effect (Berg, 2003; Pillay 2007). The purpose of the communiqué was to inform training providers who were registered with PSIRA and who offered grades and other specialised training, as well as SASSETA-accredited training providers, of the alignment (grades/unit standards) and comparison between the qualifications, and to advise the industry of the recognition of prior learning (RPL) principle. In terms of this MOU, SASSETA would henceforth assume the quality assurance function of all training conducted in the security industry (Pillay, 2007). Whilst the Private Security Industry Regulation Act No. 56 of 2001 stipulates that all those who fall within the definition of “security service provider” (which includes persons providing training in the security field) must comply with the registration provisions and be registered with PSIRA before becoming active in the industry, SASSETA is, in terms of the MOU, responsible for the quality assurance of all education and training in the security industry (Pillay, 2007).

2.9 Contextualising the Private Security Industry's Functions in Drinking Establishments

2.9.1 An international perspective on drinking establishments

Drinking establishments are worldwide environments where people go to find 'enjoyment'. Most individuals who frequent these spaces seek entertainment by drinking alcohol, dancing, and listening to (usually very loud) music (Hobbs *et al.*, 2002). There are different types of drinking establishments such as bars, shebeens, taverns, pubs, and nightclubs where alcohol is served and music is played to lighten the mood and enhance enjoyment and excitement (Demant, 2013). Many towns and cities now boast a night-time economy that is evidence of the leisure industry's possession of after-dark urban spaces (Hobbs *et al.*, 2002). This 'colonisation' is indicative of a post-industrial restructuring process that has been evoked "...by recent shifts in the political and economic realities of urban governance and the adoption of an entrepreneurial ethic by municipal authorities" (Hobbs *et al.*, 2002: 362).

According to Hall and Hubbard (1996), these growing commercial activities attract large numbers of young entertainment seekers whose primary objective is to consume alcohol and have a good time (Hall & Hubbard, 1996). Massive growth has occurred in the number of youth-orientated licensed premises in the last decade, and this has been characterised by the admission of increasing numbers of young patrons to drinking establishments and the escalating demand for and profitability of the night-time leisure industry (Montgomery, 1995). However, economic indicators negate the perceived profitability of these commercial enterprises as night-time leisure is usually sought and therefore congested on weekends (Montgomery, 1995).

2.9.1.1 Drinking establishments and nightlife in the United Kingdom

In the United Kingdom (UK), nightlife was historically perceived as a social problem as such activities were characterised by noise, nuisance, drugs, violence, gun crimes, and a violent door culture. These problems have unfortunately not evaporated with time and persist to this day in urban settings in the UK and across the globe, with South Africa being no exception. The challenges associated with nightlife in drinking establishments were therefore the focus of the current research.

According to Hadfield (2008), the issue of a violent ‘door culture’ in drinking establishments and the process of negotiations and re-negotiations of mandates, preferences, and desires that relate to private securities and that indicate that state-centred ideas of security governance are not influential in the UK. Here the government controls licensing, policing, and the management of supply (Talbot, 2006). Cities in the UK have seen a steady rise in drinking establishments that are open almost all hours of each day, and social fear concerning the escalation of these drinking establishments have increased concomitantly (Talbot, 2006). The proliferation of drinking establishments in the UK prompted the state to provide appropriate and adequate public policing to gain control of behaviour at these establishments (Hobbs, O’Brien & Westmarland, 2007).

Measham (2004) and Binnie and Skeggs (2004, cited in Hobbs *et al.*, 2007) indicate that the growth of night-time economies in the UK has led to enormous changes that are based on consumption patterns, particularly as young women now attend nightclubs in large numbers. Consequently, British women aged between 16-24 years consume more than the required weekly limit of alcohol. Hobbs *et al.* (2007) state that binge drinking among young British women has doubled compared to the 18th and 20th centuries. This uncontrollable increase in youth engagement in the nightlife economy has called for innovative ideas and strategies to control these night-time environments, and the need for more female bouncers was perceived as a viable solution (Hobbs *et al.*, 2007).

During the night, drinking establishments in the western cities of the UK rely heavily on private securities for social order and successful business flow. Policing, regulations, and governance of drinking establishments in central London and other congested areas are undertaken to shape and influence patrons' behavioural conduct (Hadfield, 2008). This attempt seeks to achieve an environment that is conducive to consumers and to achieve what Hadfield (2008) refers to as a 'security discourse'. Hobbs et al. (2000) engaged in an ethnographic study using observation, interviews, and documentary analysis to study drinking establishments, with special focus on violence, policing, and door security. Based on their findings, they suggest that the state has abandoned many of its policing duties and passed them on to private securities. During the night-time economy, there is minimum police visibility while numerous private security staff are evident. It is therefore bouncers who take responsibility for the safety of night-time patrons and the maintenance of a measure of law and order at drinking spaces in the UK.

2.9.1.2 Drinking establishments and nightlife in Australia

Similar to the UK, alcohol is the most favoured drug amongst young people in Australia (Lindsay, 2006). Young people now seem to choose drunkenness as their preferred mode of pleasure, while former popular party drugs such as ecstasy are declining in use (Lindsay, 2006). According to health statistics, in the state of Victoria alcohol is re-emerging as the more significant drug problem compared to other drugs such as heroin and cannabis. This is evidenced by statistics that reveal that the majority of hospital admissions and cases of people seeking treatment are alcohol rather than drug related (Lindsay, 2006).

According to the National Health and Medical Research Council (2001), young people in Australia aged between 18 and 25 years are at a high risk of alcohol-related injury and harm, whereas young people in their 20s drink more heavily than any other age group. In this country, 60% of people diagnosed with alcohol dependence range between the ages of 18 and 34 (Lindsay, 2006). Consumption of alcohol is a social phenomenon and a situational practice, but Lindsay (2006) states that in-depth research on drinking contexts in the last 20 years have been relatively sparse in Australia. Lindsay (2006:30) states:

“A full understanding of how, where, and in what circumstances young people drink is crucial for developing successful health interventions. We need to go beyond broad quantitative

outlines of drinking patterns and gather in-depth local qualitative information about contemporary drinking landscapes.”

In Australia, drinking establishments that are an integral part of community life are key alcohol consumption venues for large numbers of people. Research conducted in this country suggests that public drinking environments such as bars and taverns are strongly associated with harmful drinking habits (Lindsay, 2006; Casswell, Zhang & Wyllie, 1993; Curran, Harford & Methen, 1996; Single & Wortley, 1993), and binge drinking usually occurs in drinking establishments that are crowded (Lindsay, 2006). Moreover, a strong relationship exists between a drinking environment and consumption patterns in Australia as different drinking habits are associated with pubs, clubs, and restaurants. For instance, pub and club patrons tend to consume more alcohol more often despite some changes in drinking patterns in these establishments in the last two decades (Lindsay, 2006).

Drinking establishments in Australia are now highly segmented and are marketed according to a diverse range of rapidly changing ‘taste cultures’ (Thornton, 1995). This means that the branding and theming of drinking establishments have increased dramatically, and there is now a proliferation of Irish, Wild West, and sports themed bars (Lindsay, 2006). In addition, alcohol branding has also increased over the last decade, and this has led to the marketing of brightly coloured ready-to-drink products that are in high demand among young people (Lindsay, 2006). Dance music and the skills of disk jockeys (DJs) in nightclubs have also gained popularity as live bands have become expensive. There has also been a change from pub to club-style drinking and hybrid venues (e.g., half-club/half-pub or half-cafe/half-bar) and these have become increasingly common (Lindsay, 2006). Furthermore, night life has become more feminised as women now frequent drinking spaces in large numbers. According to Brian (cited in Lindsay, 2006: 46), drinking is now “less about male working class integration and more of a consumerist search for time-out”.

2.9.2 The role of private securities/bouncers in drinking establishments

Drinking establishments are widely known for their aggressive and violent nature which is undeniably associated with a high number of intoxicated patrons. Graham et al. (2006) state that nightclubs and other drinking establishments run a high risk of aggressive patrons and injury to some. However, levels of aggression and injury differ from place to place based on the type of patrons who frequently attend that particular drinking establishment (such as a high number of male patrons who are heavy drinkers), the setting and environment in which the nightclub/pub/shebeen is located, and the ability of the staff to control the behaviour of patrons. The age and social background of patrons also influence the level of aggression in a drinking establishment. Graham *et al.* (2006) concurs, stating that aggression in drinking establishments is a phenomenon that is linked to multiple factors, including the characteristics of the patrons, the effect of alcohol on patrons, and the environment in which the drinking space is situated. In any event, the need for security and control in these spaces is undeniable.

According to Monaghan (2002), masculinity and male gendered dominance are key features of patrons who visit drinking establishments. He therefore argues that “the violent work of bouncers must be elaborated alongside its situated sensuality” (p. 338). He further critically articulates that the violence perpetrated by bouncers is in fact limited as they act reflexively when provoked. Whitehead (1999, cited in Monaghan, 2002) argues that women may also portray dominant masculinity traits because gender is a phenomenon that is constructed and perceived by society. Therefore, Monaghan (2002) posits that the use of force has become ‘a tool of the trade’ just like the work of the police, and bouncers can and will therefore use force to remove drunken patrons from nightclubs, control crowds, and settle arguments. However, there are limits and constraints.

It is generally accepted that physical bodily capital is part of bouncers’ image that they use to perform their duties at drinking establishments, hence their bodies, physical appearance, and perceived strength are marketable assets. Male bouncers are expected to perform their duties based on a muscular body, power speech and body language, intimidating facial expressions, and a no-nonsense demeanour. All these combine to leave the impression of danger if the rules of an establishment are broken and a bouncer’s orders are ignored. Patrons know and understand the impact of a muscular man, and these men’s strength is commonly enhanced by

visible and multiple tattoos and a shaved head, which are part of the package of their employer-employee contract (Winlow & hall, 2009).

Historically, violence and aggression in nightclubs were associated with male-centred conflicts that only men needed to sort out. However, Hobbs, O'Brien and Westmarland (2007) articulate that the growth of night-time economies, particularly in Britain, has witnessed major changes in patterns of consumption as young women who deliberately abuse alcohol and even drugs now frequent these drinking spaces in large numbers. This calls for innovative ideas to maintain order and control, and one solution is the use of female bouncers. In Britain, section 182 of the Licensing Act of 2003 supports the employment of women as bouncers, particularly to search female patrons. The work of bouncers naturally requires physical interaction with customers to maintain discipline and order, and it tends to lead to serious altercations when bouncers touch or handle customers inappropriately in the execution of their duties. This is common when male bouncers touch females inappropriately.

Hobbs *et al.* (2007) state that a vast majority of male bouncers do not see the need to employ female bouncers for practical 'policing' purposes. Male bouncers maintain that female bouncers are helpful only to search handbags and monitor female restrooms. However, the image of door staff has been actively 'cleaned up' in many establishments by promoting the importance of female staff. It is widely argued that women possess the emotional qualities needed to curb the violent and aggressive image of bouncing and that their presence may achieve the objective of having a non-aggressive style of door work (Hobbs et al., 2007). It is also assumed that female bouncers will employ a more non-violent approach than males in handling nightclub conflicts.

According to Hobbs *et al.* (2007), the Security Industry Authority (SIA) is active in changing the perceptions that people have of the bouncing industry by encouraging women to enter it as a strategy to mitigate the violent, military-style image associated with bouncers. Hobbs et al. (2007) interviewed a nightclub owner who had been in the nightlife economy industry for three decades, and he frankly stated that he saw the need for female bouncers instead of male bouncers, and that was why he was the first person to hire female bouncers. He argued that female bouncers would help eradicate violence as they would exercise better problem-solving skills and could calm the crowd down when violence and aggression erupted. However, he still

maintained that, as with male bouncers, a masculine image and ‘manliness’ were important (Hobbs *et al.* 2007). Hobbs *et al.* (2007) found that the women bouncers they studied in Britain showed great diversity in culture, background, and demeanour. Most came from backgrounds where they had been exposed to and had actively engaged in physical violence, and they were equipped with emotions and physical skills to deal with violence and were a match for the masculine culture associated with bouncers (Hobbs *et al.* 2007). For instance, a 32-year-old British woman who had been a bouncer for ten years stated: “I have seen some things that most girls would run and hide from. It is probably my upbringing that made me the way I am”. She admitted that, as a child, she “...would get bashed [if she had lost a fight] and sent back out until I won” (p. 26).

Conversely, a 24-year-old white British woman who wore size 8 clothes and was only 5 feet 3 inches tall stated that she did not rely on size to gain control over the venue and the behaviour of patrons who showed exacerbated masculine characteristics (Hobbs *et al.*, 2007). She used her experience and knowledge of aggressive masculinity and she used a verbal, nonintimidating approach to gain control and authority. However, Hobbs *et al.* (2007) found that most women working as bouncers showed traits of masculinity and relied on violence and aggressiveness to maintain control. These women utilised their experiential knowledge of physical violence and a violent culture to perform their duties as violence experts. However, even though these female bouncers seemed to perform their duties without serious problems, they felt the need to discuss their ‘violence worker’ role with their male colleagues to achieve synergy and respect in the workplace. Overall, their physique and emotional influence seem to be valuable resources to the industry and their presence signifies the demand to address the new patterns of nightlife entertainment that need to replace violence with safety.

Moreover, Hobbs *et al.* (2007) indicate that there is diversity in the culture of female bouncers as they showed that the majority of women bouncers came from a working-class background where they were familiar with physical violence as they were regularly exposed to it. Female participants in the study emphasised that their emotional and physical skills were enhanced by their cultural heritage and that this was why they were able to deal with violence and fit into the hyper masculine culture of door work. Women who worked as bouncers were generally introduced to the industry by their neighbours, family members, or childhood/youth networks. Some were introduced by boyfriends, husbands, brothers, or other male relatives who already worked as bouncers. One woman was introduced to the industry by her father, who was a boxer.

She had been exposed to physical fighting from a young age, which was an experience that proved to be important as it strengthened her ability to deal with male patrons who needed to be controlled.

It is an undeniable fact that female patrons also exhibit unruly behaviours in nightclubs, and to deal with them is a gender-specialist task, which is why employing female staff is important (Gough & McFadden, 2003, cited in Hobbs et al., 2007). However, Hobbs et al. (2007) emphasise that female bouncers are still regulated by the rules of masculine and violent conduct. This means that female bouncers will be guided and closely monitored by their male colleagues. Some nightclubs employ female bouncers specifically to monitor and control intoxicated violent and aggressive women, but O'Brien, Hobbs and Westmarland (2007, cited in Hobbs et al., 2007) state that gendered processes in nightclubs are still regulated by the rules of violent and masculine conduct, which is predominantly exercised by male bouncers.

2.9.3 The culture of private securities

Bouncers tend to adopt a unique occupational culture and informal practices within the drinking space environment. Their particular 'door culture' has emerged as a strategy for economic and personal survival, control, and domination within a hostile and chaotic working space (Hobbs, *et al.*, 2000). Loader (2000) agrees that, as night-time economies have evolved, so too have indigenous and ingenious forms of regulation and policing. When nightlife commences, the state relinquishes its policing mandate and transfers many of its policing duties to bouncers. In the absence of public police officers, bouncers take responsibility for controlling nightlife revellers. In this specific context of what Loader (2000: 330) calls "policing beyond government", bouncers are permitted "wide discretion in their task of imposing commercially rather than legally or morally justifiable behavioural codes". Loader (p. 330) states: "Within this ambiguous enacted environment, we found that bouncers had forged powerful occupational subcultures and had developed their own informal and situational expedient practices." Hobbs, Hadfield, Lister and Winlow (2002: 361) argue that this 'door culture' has emerged "as a strategy of economic and personal survival, control, and domination within a hostile and chaotic working milieu".

According to van Maanen (1978: 227), positioning bouncers at the door of a drinking establishment to check potential customers is one of the most important tasks, as only those who comply with “commercially defined imperatives” are allowed to enter. To make such judgments, bouncers need to become expert at reading signs of trouble and making decisions that can banish certain individuals “to forever wander the night-time streets as part of the Legion of the Banned” (van Maanen, 1978: 228). This licence for discretion is a crucial aspect of door staff’s occupational culture and reveals the twin nexus of their authority. On the one hand, bouncers are directed, to a greater or lesser extent, by the 'rules of the house', which include rules of entry that relate to commercial perceptions of their venue's market niche. Such restrictions allow door staff to swiftly reject those who dress or behave 'inappropriately'. However, many people who are refused entry are excluded as a result of bouncers’ perception of them as 'scum' or 'arseholes'. Such categories, which operate as informal typologies of threat and disrepute, are used to assist in the selection process and closely resemble those employed by the public police when identifying persons perceived to be 'police property' (Choongh, 1998). A bouncer's 'property' will typically include those (usually young men) who are perceived to be disrespectful and 'cocky' or who, by virtue of their attire, demeanour or body shape, are deemed to be potentially violent. The researcher has observed that those who are excluded will also include those who have already been disruptive or those who have a ‘badass reputation’.

According to Alvarez (2006), maintaining security means the ability to exercise power, and it is to be given or to accumulate enough power to be in a dominating position. On the other hand, Buzan (1991:19) defines security as “the pursuit of [minimising] threat”. Alvarez (2006: 77) asserts that discourses on security “provide identification of threats and insecurities which, if successfully recognised, provides the power of security”. For the nightclub to be successful as a business and a place of leisure for patrons, it is important for all involved stakeholders to engage in the security discourse and achieve its goals. Hence, nightclubs hire private securities as bouncers to secure the property and to ensure the safety of patrons. However, most problems occur due to the manner in which security at these establishments is achieved and maintained. This poses questions about the manner in which policies that govern this line of work are implemented as the presence of bouncers is associated with aggression and violence (Graham et al., 2006).

2.10 The Culture of Violence and Aggression in Drinking Spaces

Blok (1974:62) argues that what earned bouncers the ‘respect’ they were accorded at first was “their capacity to coerce with physical violence and thus invoke fear in others”. These few words aptly summarise the culture in which bouncers perform their duties; a culture of intimidation coupled with violence and aggression. It is perceived that to be competent as a bouncer, one needs to be masculine as, without masculinity, one is not competent enough to be a bouncer. However, this sentiment is incorrect.

Bouncers are generally expected to be large, muscular men. Their job is not very common as it entails the use of violence and intimidation, usually of intoxicated people who will turn aggressive at the drop of a hat. Winlow (2001) asserts that the bouncing career is viable for men who will readily revert to violence and who generally have low socio-economic status. Legally, there are certain requirements that bouncers should abide by, but the industry has shielded many from lawful proceedings, which in consequence means that being a bouncer does not necessitate adherence to legal requirements as possessing a history of violent behaviour in combination with a physically intimidating appearance seems enough (Winlow, 2001). Furthermore, Hobbs, Hadfield, Lister and Winlow (2002:352) contend that “private security operators have developed their own informal and pragmatic techniques of containment which conform to the demands of commercial and cultural, rather than legally justified imperatives”, while they further state that the 'door culture' has emerged “as a strategy of economic and personal survival, control, and domination within a hostile and chaotic working situation”.

In essence, it seems that bouncers sell themselves and their muscular bodies to the market as the employment of bouncers is vested in their ability to execute the desired physical demeanour, speech, body language, and facial expression. Winlow (2001) articulates that they send the message of danger if patrons behave in a manner that deviates from the rules of the nightclub. Winlow, Hobbs, Lister and Hadfield (2001) were interested in studying bouncers because of the common viewpoint that their work culture is grounded in masculinity and violence. According to Scott and Dedel (2006), confrontations with some patrons are encouraged by the presence of large muscular men dressed in black. Conversely, Scott and

Dedel (2006) posit that security staff and bouncers lack the necessary skills to effectively deal with and deter violence and aggression.

According to van Liempt and van Aalst (2016), the majority of bouncers do the dirty hands-on job in the nightclubs where they work. This notion is supported by Lister et al. (2000), Hobbs et al. (2002, 2003, 2005), Monaghan (2003), and Rigakos (2008). Furthermore, van Liempt and van Aalst (2016) state that if bouncers behave in an illegal manner and they find out that they have been reported to the police, they act quickly before the police arrive on the scene to eradicate any evidence or proof. Many bouncers are recruited informally by nightclub owners through informal networks. One of the respondents in van Liempt and van Aalst's (2016) study that was conducted in Utrecht and Rotterdam, stated that they had been recruited in the gym to go and work for a nightclub as bouncers. They further stated that they had been recruited based on their physicality and masculinity and that their social skills did not matter; what mattered was that they were physically fit and knew how to fight (van Liempt & van Aalst, 2016). Furthermore, bouncers have been implicated in a large percentage of assault cases, regardless of whether this accusation was justifiable or not (Scott & Dedel 2006).

In the Netherlands, bouncers are known as 'uitsmijters', meaning people who 'throw you out'. Here they are considered as important people in ensuring safe nightlife policies (van Liempt & van Aalst, 2016). However, when bouncers turn aggressive and violent, their behaviour undermines consumer confidence and diminishes profit margins. Therefore, bouncers are expected to be 'nice' because they are perceived as hosts. However, van Liempt and van Aalst's (2016) respondents pointed out that 'softer' and more inexperienced bouncers sometimes faced difficulties with the job because they could not deal with the violence they were exposed to mitigate in nightclubs. Furthermore, they pointed out that bouncers were distinguished as either 'fighters' or 'talkers', and if a bouncer was a talker, he would not be stationed at the door without a fighter as his counterpart (van Liempt & van Aalst 2016).

The use of bouncers in nightclubs has caused several concerns among members of the public, especially patrons of nightclubs who require the presence of bouncers. Winlow et al. (2001) note that bouncers are masculine men who are large boned, and they argue that individuals who have a hyper-masculine persona that is displayed by their body language and the way they dress are in high demand as bouncers. However, they draw attention primarily the way they conduct their duties which presupposes the likelihood of violence. Bouncers are hired for their

perceived capability to resolve violence with violence and to physically intimidate others with their appearance (Winlow, 2001). Unfortunately, this occupational culture has resulted in deaths and injuries to a number of individuals across the world.

Lister (2000) conducted his research in the UK on violence involving bouncers and the public over a period of three years (01/01/1996-01/01/1999). He quotes statistics from a divisional Crime Information System (CIS) that highlighted that up to 49 assaults involving bouncers had occurred in that period, and that of these 49 assaults, in 42 instances bouncers committed the alleged assault. Lister (2002) also found that only one case had been concluded with a successful prosecution and conviction. In contrast, of the 7 cases where bouncers were alleged victims of assault, 4 were successfully prosecuted: one resulted in a police caution, one had insufficient evidence to proceed, and the other complainant declined to proceed with the case. Putting aside the fact that these findings reflect low numbers, they suggest that bouncers usually get away with assault but that, in contrast, assault committed against bouncers usually lead to prosecution and conviction. However, some cases go unreported due to a number of factors such as the unwillingness of the public police to aid such cases as they are uninformed about the legitimate code of conduct of bouncers, and also because this issue does not lead to a lot of deaths. However, the media reported some cases where patrons had been assaulted by bouncers. For example, in South Africa *ENCA news* (Bouncer arrested following Menlyn Park stabbing death, 2015) reported the death of a young man, Shane Boruchowitz, who was stabbed by a bouncer at Ty's nightclub in Pretoria. Another incident was reported by the *Mail & Guardian* (Patrons assaulted at Fourways nightclub, 2013) when a bouncer posted a video on YouTube of himself harmfully and violently punching young boys who were in the toilet in the nightclub when they were caught by this bouncer smoking drugs.

Roberts (2009) agrees that, in most instances, the presence of bouncers is a predictor of aggressive behaviour in nightclubs. He further asserts that aggression in nightclubs does not solely depend on one variable or cause, but argues that there are diverse variables and causes of aggression. To understand the causes of aggression, one must consider the social context or the 'total environment' in which the nightclub is located. Graham, La Rocque, Yetman, Ross and Guistra (1980, cited in Roberts, 2009) conducted their study in Sydney, Australia and in Vancouver, USA. They investigated the variables that led to high violence in and around nightclubs that were known to be either high- or low-risk spaces of violence. When comparing

Vancouver and Sydney nightclubs, Sydney nightclubs had a 50% higher rate of violence than Vancouver nightclubs. However, Roberts (2009) admits that this finding was due to an oversampling of violent nightclubs in Sydney. The variables that were attributed to violent occasions in nightclubs were groups of male strangers, high boredom, high drunkenness, and the presence of aggressive and unreasonable bouncers (Roberts, 2009).

Based on a study that was conducted in Glasgow, Roberts (2009) reported that bouncers were a significant contributor of aggression in nightclubs because of their unprofessional and aggressive behaviour. Roberts (2009) further asserts that the bar staff relied heavily on bouncers to handle problematic patrons. Monaghan (2004) states that bouncers with experience exercise and share with each other what is known as a 'technique of evasion' to avoid arrest by police officers. These techniques include taking pages out of logbooks that staff members sign at the beginning of their shifts, removing identification badges and unique clothing, and avoiding hanging around areas that are covered by CCTV cameras. Hobbs et al. (2007) agree that male bouncers are from environments that most likely embrace violence, and posit that those who are hired as bouncers adhere to a culture that admires masculinity and that favours violence as an integral part of their everyday social interactions.

Geoffron, Sader, Ouellet and Boivin (2015) conducted a study to examine aggression inside barrooms. Their study was conducted in Canada, and they recruited bouncers to complete reports that contained information on every event that took place. These reports lodged specific information on what took place, when and where, and within which venue. In addition, the bouncer ethnographer engaged in field observations and interviews with bar personnel to identify hotspots and rush hours for three types of actors in the barroom: (a) bouncers, (b) barmaids, and (c) patrons. Their results indicated that aggression was prevalent among patrons, between patrons and barmaids, and also among patrons and bouncers. Aggression that involved bouncers was perceived to be common at entrance doors. One bouncer that was interviewed stated that the reason for such aggression at the door was that patrons drank in line when they had been refused entry and, due to intoxication, they became easily frustrated.

Another study (Geoffron et al., 2015) also found that bouncers faced aggression inside bars due to poor service provided by barmaids. In turn, patrons harassed these barmaids and bouncers were then required to assist or intervene. The results of the latter study also indicated that aggression increased as the evening advanced. Patrons did not respond well to the closing of a bar, and this caused unruly behaviour as they protested against 'early' closing.

Hobbs et al. (2002) also engaged in ethnographic research and utilised interviews and documentary analysis in their study of the night-time economy, with particular attention to violence, policing, and door security. They observed instances when bouncers were responsible for preventing violence, and thus argue that it is a false impression that all bouncers are violent. However, the contention that the night-time leisure security industry is characterised by violent bouncers as a highly marketable economic resource due to their ability to fight, which remains valid and important.

Tutenges, Søgaaard, Krøll, Bloomfield and Hesse (2015) concede that the hiring of bouncers is a viable solution in addressing the problem of the rise in alcohol consumption, violence, and alcohol-related problems in drinking establishments. Moreover, numerous studies were conducted across the world that focused on bouncers, nightclubs, and violence (Roberts, 2009; Søgaaard, 2014; Hadfield, 2008; Miller, Bourdeau, Johnson & Voas, 2015; Monk-Tuner, Allen, Casten, Cowling, Gray, & Moore, 2011; Hobbs, Lister, Hadfield, Winlow, & Hall, 2000), but very few studies explored the role of bouncers, nightclubs, and violence in the South African context. Therefore, it was deemed important to find out whether bouncers assisted in eradicating violence or whether they exacerbated the causes of violence in nightclubs in South Africa. However, this research did not focus on bouncers' ability to eradicate violence in nightclubs, but on their ability to perform their duties professionally without violating any work ethics, such as acting violently towards patrons.

2.11 The Culture of Masculinity

Winlow (2001) stipulates that perceptions of masculinity cannot be regarded as universal, but argues that masculinity comprises of common and extremely unique components. He further suggests that masculinity does not mean comprising of or not comprising of certain traits, but that masculinity relates to certain kinds of relationships between men and women, and among men. Brittan (1989, cited in Winlow, 2001) states that certain aspects of men's behaviour can be regarded as part of the masculinity culture, but that these fluctuate. Fluctuations in men's behaviour vary from person to person. In some cases, these fluctuations may last for years or decades, while in others it may last only for weeks or months. Masculinity is a social construction and certain biological factors may be its foundation, but the structure is man-made, flexible, subject to change over time, and differs significantly from culture to culture. Gender identities, roles, and relationships do not remain frozen in place, either for individuals or for groups. There are continuous contestations and confusion over what constitutes male identity as it means different things to different people at different times, and sometimes different things to the same person at the same time (Winlow, 2001)

According to Brannon (1976, cited in Winlow, 2001:101), the ideas with regards to basic rules of manhood are:

- 'No sissy stuff' – only 'manly' behaviour with no hint of femininity is allowed.
- 'Be a big wheel' – be powerful and successful.
- 'Be a sturdy oak'- show no emotions, be dependable.
- 'Give `em hell' – take chances, be daring, etc.

Men of all social classes have shown concern and desire for a muscular physique. However, those who exhibit a serious desire to build and enhance their body size are largely from the lower social classes and backgrounds. This observation is in relation to the growing pace of changes in the structure of male power and identity in recent years (Winlow, 2001). The best way to depict masculinity is, according to Connell (1995, cited in Winlow, 2001:98), that "true masculinity is almost always thought to proceed from men's bodies...to be inherent in a male body or to express something about a male body". This means that desirable maleness is visually visible in large muscles. There is therefore no need for complex verbalising to depict

masculinity “as one’s physicality is enough to lay a claim to the spirit of all that is masculine and accentuating the difference from all that is feminine” (Winlow, 2001: 112).

2.12 The Culture of Anti-social Behaviour

Millie (2009:1) maintains that it is easy to spot anti-social behaviour (ASB) “when you spot it”. According to Alun Michael, an erstwhile Member of Parliament in England, “it is for the police, the local authority and the courts to recognize what has been identified as anti-social behaviour” (Millie, 2009:1), which he maintains is easier to recognize than to define. The behaviour of some bouncers empirically exhibit characteristics of anti-social behaviour, which is also identified by many members of the public. Such behaviour therefore does not need a definition to be viewed as anti-social (p. 1).

The term anti-social behaviour (ASB) has been used in psychosocial literature to refer to unwanted behaviour that is a consequence of personality disorder. From a psychosocial perspective, this kind of behaviour manifests as theft, burglary, robbery, violence, vandalism, fraud, drug use, bullying, reckless driving, heavy drinking, sexual promiscuity, heavy smoking, heavy gambling, employment instability, and conflict with parents (Millie, 2009). From the above characteristics, only violence is relevant to the topic of this research. However, the definition above is exceptionally broad. Instead, it is necessary for a narrower conception of ASB to understand it within the public order enforcement context, which will also be of relevance to the study on endeavours to understand and define the behaviour of bouncers.

Millie (2009) asserts that ASB complements incivility, disorder, and crimes that diminish the quality of life. These terms give meaning to social unpleasantness and environmental mess. He further concedes that, of these terms, the most useful is incivilities, which is behaviour that lacks civility and consideration for others. Occasionally, people of such behaviour, for example bouncers, become genuinely offensive to reasonable people in ways that constitute an offence against them. An individual that is anti-social is, by definition, not behaving in a socially acceptable manner and commonly lacks consideration or is unaware of the effects of the poor behaviour on others. This behaviour is reportedly common among bouncers who exhibit traits of anti-social behaviour.

Millie (2009) refers to Tony Blair, the erstwhile Prime Minister of Britain, who stated that the misfortune of anti-social behaviour affected us all in our biggest cities, in the suburbs, and in the rural areas, arguing that the consequences of ASB were known to us all. For instance, many people were afraid to go into city centres at night. Tony Blair stated:

“Family problems, poor educational attainment, unemployment and alcohol and drug misuse all contribute to anti-social behaviour. But none of these problems can be used as an excuse for ruining other people’s lives. Fundamentally, anti-social behaviour is caused by lack of respect for other people” (Home Office, 2003, cited in Millie, 2009:53).

Anti-social behaviour can be summarised as simply a lack of respect for other individuals. Millie (2009) suggests that ASB is perceived as a simple result of people not taking their responsibility to others seriously. For instance, there was no respect for the community among the community and the concept ‘respect’ became a key central concept for British government policy on anti-social behaviour that commenced with the launch of the ‘Respect Action Plan’ in 2006. However, according to Millie (2006), it was unclear why the lack of respect for others was the most important factor to consider as the fundamental cause of ASB.

Millie (2009) argues that Criminologists fail to agree on the core definitive causes of crime, therefore determining the causes of anti-social behaviour is so difficult. In a national survey published by Millie, Jacobson, McDonald, and Hough (2005, cited in Millie, 2009), respondents were asked to identify what they understood as the worst form of anti-social behaviour in their neighbourhoods, and only 6% identified drunkenness/drinking in public places. In another poll that was conducted by Ipsos Mori in 2006, 52% of the respondents noted that alcohol and drug abuse was among the top three causes of ASB (Millie, 2009). This suggests that Britain is facing a huge problem with regards to drug use and alcohol consumption in their cities at night.

2.13 The Culture of Bullying

As bullying is as common as anti-social behaviour, Randall (1997) maintains that it is problematic to define what bullying is exactly; hence a systematic study on bullying is quite difficult. However, even though the term is difficult to define with a standard explanation, the bullying phenomenon is common and has had an impact on the lives of many. Randall (1997:1) quotes Buss's (1961) definition of bullying as: "...a response that delivers noxious stimuli to another organism". Bullying is exerted in the form of an unfavourable stimulation that is transferred from one individual onto another. It can be perpetrated as different tactics, whether by a bone-breaking punch or just an insult. Moreover, Tattum and Tattum (1992, cited in Rigby, 2002) define bullying as "a wilful, conscious desire to hurt another and put him/her under stress" (p. 27). This definition suggests that a bully makes a rational decision to perpetrate and victimise another to hurt them. Bullying is regarded as a state of mind in the perpetrator that is evil, and it is perpetrated by an individual that knows better.

Randall (1997: 03) cites the definitions of bullying by various authors:

- "A student is being bullied or victimised when he or she is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more students" (Olweus, 1980).
- "[It is] The systematic abuse of power" (Smith & Sharp, 1994).
- It is the "...repeated aggression, verbal, psychological or physical, [that is] conducted by an individual or group against others" (Guidelines on Countering Bullying Behaviour in Primary and Post-Primary Schools, 1993).

According to the above definitions, bullying can be regarded as a repetitive act of aggressive behaviour, and it is therefore not a once-off act. According to Randall (1997), the bully has the intention to inflict pain unto others in whatever form the bully selects, so there is much more to bullying than just repetitive aggression. However, even though an act of bullying can occur in one instance, the important factor is the fear of repeated bullying and not the actual occasion of bullying.

No one is born a bully, as bullies are created by the complexity of social processes, and these processes result in an antisocial personality through faulty learning. The antisocial personality is characterised by the way a bully is able to aggressively manipulate other people (Randall, 1997). Rigby (2002) offers a number of points to explain different beliefs people of different cultures have in explaining bullying. The points that are made range from the supernatural, nurture, genes, environment, home environment, the association between parenting and children's interpersonal behaviours, and peer group pressure that all result in bullying. One can argue that all of these do have an influence on an individual becoming a bully, but the most important points are those that are more evident in contemporary society.

Of all the points stated by Rigby (2002), the home environment is recognized as the most enduring and makes the deepest contribution to the way children behave both inside and outside their homes. Nurturing is a very important concept in describing this function as nurturing assists children in developing physically and psychologically. The way a child is reared and nurtured does really have an effect on its subsequent behaviour towards other family members and also towards non-family members.

In conclusion, violent and aggressive bouncers cannot be characterised as either anti-social or bullies as they may exhibit characteristics and traits of both. Both definitions imply that harm is caused to an individual intentionally due to various driving factors, but the fact that harm is inflicted intentionally on another individual implies that the perpetrator of harm (e.g., a bouncer who intentionally and repeatedly harms others) is both a bully and anti-social.

2.14 The Behaviour of Patrons in Drinking Establishments

According to Carlini *et al.* (2014), binge drinking by patrons in drinking establishments is related to physical aggression, risky sexual behaviour, sexual violence, physical harm, and even death. Such behaviour is considered very dangerous and a public health concern. Being able to understand the reasons for and the manner in which patrons engage in binge drinking in nightclubs is important. Moreover, adherence to the licensing policy and introducing harm reduction initiatives need to be prioritised if intoxication-related practices in nightclubs are to be reduced.

Graham et al. (2006) argue that aggression in nightclubs is a phenomenon that is linked to multiple factors, such as the characteristics of patrons, the effect of alcohol on patrons, and the environment in which the nightclub is situated. Graham et al. (2006) state that any drinking establishment runs the high risk of aggression among and possible injury to people. However, levels of aggression and injury differ from nightclub to nightclub based on the type of patrons who frequent that space, the setting and environment in which the nightclub exists, and the ability of the staff to understand personality and control patrons. The age and social background of patrons also have an effect on the level of aggression in nightclubs. Graham et al. (2006) posit that nightclubs that accommodate youthful males, groups of males, and marginalised subpopulations are highly likely to experience high levels of aggression. In essence, it is argued that the risk of aggression and violence increases due to the characteristics exhibited by patrons whose social status is low.

Homel, Carvolth, Hauritz, Mcilwain and Teague (2004) conducted a study to determine the factors that could make nightclubs safer and to understand key observable changes in nightclubs that were most closely interconnected with the reduction of violence and aggression observed between two waves in the period 1994 and 1996. Homel et al. (2004) argue that controlling the drinking of patrons is not sufficient to decrease aggression and violence in nightclubs, as they found that only a change in the environment and management factors held the likelihood of reducing aggression and violence in these spaces. However, they do not deny the fact that there might have been other unobserved changes that could have limited violence, but they do not enumerate these. Scott and Dedel (2006) list a number of factors that will lead to aggression and violence in drinking establishments, notably alcohol abuse by patrons, the culture of excessive drinking, and the high proportion of young male strangers.

2.15 Conclusion

The private security sector has had such rapid growth over the years that it is now one of the most well-known sectors in the global economy. Private security firms are essential in preserving safety and security in neighbourhoods, particularly when they are located on private properties. Drinking establishments have begun to rely significantly on private securities to safeguard their properties as they are infamous for patrons who engage in excessive drinking and even drug use. These spaces are also renowned for criminal activities, and private security

personnel should unquestionably be present there. However, the literature states that bouncers are capable of breaking the law and acting improperly. This chapter also demonstrated that the private security industry is not effectively regulated by authorities in charge of private security companies' operations. The discourse also covered various legislation and policies that are pertinent to the private security sector. Specific attention was paid to the role of PSIRA (Republic of South Africa, 2001) in this regard. The researcher also explored the characteristics of modern-day bouncers and highlighted the prevalence of masculinity and anti-social behaviour among them, while expounding the fact that female bouncers have recently been deemed important in the bouncing industry.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

Adopting a theoretical framework serves as a dissertation's overall 'blueprint' that guides the investigation. It gives specifics and directs how the researcher should approach the study as a whole from a philosophical, epistemological, methodological, and analytical standpoint. It also acts as the foundation upon which to develop and support the findings of the study. A theoretical framework, according to Grant and Osanloo, 2014; 13), is "a structure that directs research by relying on a formal theory constructed by using an established, coherent explanation of certain phenomena and relationships". The chosen theory (or theories) that informs or inform one's understanding of and plan for researching an identified issue, as well as the concepts and definitions that relate to that theory and that are pertinent to the topic, make up the theoretical framework. According to a definition by Lysaghts (2011:), a theory must "be suitable, logically interpreted, well-understood, and be aligned with the research question in order to be suitable for the development of arguments".

Violence in spaces of entertainment is caused by multiple factors. As was discussed in the previous literature review chapter, factors that cause violence to erupt in drinking spaces can be associated with the environment, the competency and demeanour of private securities, and the demeanour of patrons and the bar staff. Clearly, alcohol consumption has a significant influence on the prevalence of violence in drinking establishments as studies have shown a positive correlation between alcohol consumption and violent behaviour in these spaces (Tutenges et al., 2015; Terpstra, 2016; Sogaard, 2014; Single & Wortley, 1993; Scotts & Dedel, 2006; Roberts, 2009; Rigakos, 2008; Miller et al., 2013). This chapter presents the theoretical frameworks that were used to explain the role and characteristics of private security personnel who are employed in drinking establishment. The theories also explain the persistence of violence, aggression, and lawlessness in drinking establishments.

The choice of the theoretical frameworks that underpinned the study was guided by the topic and the research questions. The researcher chose three theories that would adequately explain the matters at hand. The first was the victim precipitation theory. This theory explains how victims sometimes initiate actions that lead to their harm or loss. The second was the social disorganisation theory, which explains how the physical environment influences criminal and delinquent behaviour. The third theory was the frustration-aggression theory, which explains how frustration due to the inability to reach certain goals can lead to aggressive outbursts. Information derived from the literature is also used to elaborate on and support the theoretical explanations that illuminate the research problem.

3.2 The Importance of Theoretical Framing

One of the most crucial elements of the research process is the theoretical foundation upon which it is based. This framing supports the choice of the research topic, the formulation of research objectives and questions, the conceptualization of the literature review, the study design method, and the data collection and analysis plan (Grant & Onsaloo, 2014). In essence, the theoretical framework serves as the cornerstone on which all knowledge is built both metaphorically and physically. It provides the framework and foundation for the study's justification, the description of the problem, the purpose and importance of the study, and the foundation upon which the research questions are based. Overall, the theoretical framework acts as a foundation or anchor for the literature review and the methodologies that are employed for analysis and interpretation (Grant & Onsaloo, 2014). Lysaght (2011) emphasises the significance of the theoretical framework, arguing that it is not chosen at random but should reflect personal beliefs and understandings of the nature of knowledge, how it exists (in the metaphysical sense) in relation to the observer, and the potential roles and tools that the researcher may adopt as a result in his/her work (p. 572). Like a home that cannot be built without a plan, a study's structure and goals are unclear without a theoretical framework. This means that a study can be robust and structured with smooth transitions from one chapter to the next thanks to a research plan that is underpinned by a theoretical framework.

When choosing a theoretical framework, it is critical to consider one's own epistemological convictions. Assumptions, values, and ethics are all personal postulates that have an impact on one's beliefs, and even if they are quite broad in scope, preconceived beliefs are difficult to avoid (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). As a result, one's core convictions influence how one evaluates and considers one's research findings, particularly those that are guided by the theoretical framework. It is therefore critical to consider one's own viewpoint and approach to problem solving by asking questions such as: *What perspective do I have on the world?* If this view of the world is achieved through a pragmatic lens, for instance, choosing critical theory as the study's theoretical framework will not be the best course of action. However, if the researcher views the world through the lens of human interconnectedness, the social network theory might be a good choice (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Therefore, there isn't a single idea that best explains any investigation. To make sure that the theory chosen is in line with and supports the structure of the study's goal, research questions, importance, and design, the researcher must make the choice and give a clear justification for it (Grant & Osanloo, 2014), which is what is presented in the next sections.

3.3 The Victim Precipitation Theory

The victim precipitation theory was pioneered by Marvin Wolfgang in the 1950s (Miethe, 1985). Marvin Wolfgang first conducted a systematic study that explored victims' involvement in crime (Miethe, 1985), and he used this theory to describe occasions when the victim was the precipitator of violence that led to harm or loss. According to Petherick (2017), the reality of crime is somewhere in the hazy middle between perpetrator and victim, although there may be a victim-offender duality where victims are always viewed as good or virtuous and offenders are always bad or predatory. It is true that crime normally happens regardless of the victim's actions, but there have also been numerous cases when the crime would not have occurred, at least at that time, if not for the actions of the victim.

According to Petherick (2017), some authors are against the victim precipitation theory, and therefore this theory should be further studied and developed to better understand the types of precipitation that exist. Only by doing so will we truly understand the context of crime and criminal and victim behaviour. The researcher fully concurs with Petherick (2017), as he believes that crime and delinquency are complex issues that need to be understood and studied from different perspectives. Hence, the researcher decided to use this theory to better understand crime and delinquency in the context of drinking establishments where bouncers and patrons are central actors and where the nature of deviance and conflict are pivotal drivers of violence.

In the above context, the literature suggests that intoxicated customers' negligence, behaviours, and attitude precipitate incidents of violence and aggression. For instance, a study on aggressiveness in barrooms was undertaken by Geoffron et al. (2015) and, according to their findings, aggressiveness was common among customers, between customers and bartenders, and between customers and bouncers. Fights and conflicts involving bouncers were frequent at entrance doors when customers who were drinking in line were denied admittance because they were too drunk to enter. They then quickly became irate and this erupted into violence. Bouncers also encountered aggressiveness inside bars as a result of barmaids' poor service and demeanour, which led to them being harassed. In these situations, bouncers were needed to step in (Geoffron et al., 2015), and they were consequently exposed to crowded and irate customers' mockery and taunting. These and other findings indicate that hostility erupts as time passes and patrons become more intoxicated and intolerant. The early closing of a bar also prompts customers to behave erratically in protest (Geoffron et al., 2015).

The literature indicates that victim precipitation was instrumental in the outcome of actual court cases as it could be proven that victim precipitation occurred in cases of aggravated assault where the victim was the first to use either physical force or insinuating language and/or gestures against the subsequent attacker (Miethe, 1985). In the exploration of bouncers' ability to perform their functions optimally, victim precipitation was contextualized as a suitable theory to underpin the investigation. Clearly, patrons in drinking establishments engage in binge drinking which causes impaired cognisant ability and a logical processing of their actions and surroundings. Some patrons find it complicated to adhere to the rules of an establishment if they are highly intoxicated, and they revert to aggression and violence.

The narrative focuses on two pivotal elements of victim precipitation, namely: (1) A temporal sequence of events in which the victim is the first to act; and (2) the victim's actions/s that encourage retaliation that is deemed a criminal act (Miethe, 1985). In this context, scholars associate alcohol with the aggressive and violent behaviour of patrons as the abuse of alcohol and the resultant intoxicated condition of patrons thus render the victim precipitation theory relevant to and suitable for this study. According to Demant (2013), due to the prevalence of alcoholic intoxication among patrons, the drinking community frequently flouts the law. Bouncers are tasked to ensure the safety and security of all patrons and properties, and they therefore need to enforce the rules of these drinking establishments. However, because intoxicated patrons are usually unaware of or unconcerned about their unruly behaviour, it is difficult for bouncers to settle them down without a stern demeanour and assertive actions. If the unruly behaviour persists, bouncers become frustrated, which in turn leads to aggression and violence. Bouncers' frustration is caused by uncooperative patrons who are highly intoxicated and cannot control their unruly behaviour. In most instances, other patrons can only be protected when bouncers decide to use forceful measures to bring unruly patrons to order, or the evict them.

Drinking establishments carry a big risk of violent behaviours and injury to patrons (Graham, Bernards, Osgood & Wells, 2006). However, levels of violence and harm vary from location to location depending on the type of customers who frequent that particular bar, the setting and environment in which the nightclub is located, and the ability to control patrons' behaviour (Graham et al., 2006). According to the victim precipitation theory in the context of drinking establishments, if patrons behave in a manner that adheres to the standards set by the drinking establishment, bouncers will not have to resort to violence and aggression to control unruly patrons. This means that patrons who are admonished by bouncers precipitate their victimisation as they are unable to accept their guilt and feel compromised by the bouncer's actions.

3.4 The Social Disorganization Theory

The social and personal disorganisation theory was coined by Clifford Shaw and Henry McKay in 1942 (Moore, 2019). The effect of this theory is that it emphasises the setting of an environment and explains how it can influence the manner in which individuals behave. This theory remains relevant to date and was suitable for the study because the physical settings where drinking establishments exist are usually in spaces where they are characterised by lawlessness and disorder, or disorganization. This theory was developed as a Sociological theory, but it is also applicable to Criminology which is derived from Sociology. The social disorganization theory views crime as a consequence of the environment in which individuals reside and function. Delinquent behaviour may therefore be increased or decreased by the changes that occur in that environment, rather than by genetic characteristics (Sharma, 1998). Physical and economic status and population composition are factors that affect delinquency rates in a particular environment (Moore, 2019).

Social disorganization refers to a normless society/environment, or a state of anomie. It is the opposite of social control, which refers to how formal institutions (governmental departments, the criminal justice system) and informal groups (families, communities, social peers) are used to encourage group members to abide by the laws and norms of society. When the rules and norms that need to be upheld in an environment are inadequate or ignored, they cannot regulate the attitude and behaviour of citizens or patrons, and then social disorganization occurs (Moore, 2019).

In essence, social disorganization is a phenomenon that indicates that social relationships have become disorganized and have collapsed. Acceptable social habits, institutional rules, and associations are all part of the social organization structure, and social disorganization becomes visible when one or all of these have become disorganized and have fallen into disarray (Sharma, 1998). Social organization is therefore maintained when each individual in society meets expected performance (or behavioural) standards, while social disorganization is prompted when people forget their duties, when the control of social law diminishes or collapses, and when the balance between the various parts of society is disturbed. Social ideals then become degenerate and the entire social structure collapses into a chaotic state (Sharma, 1998).

It has often been affirmed that aggression that erupts into violence is a human trait that is likely to occur in spaces of entertainment where alcohol is consumed to excess. The level of aggression and violence therefore influences how bouncers, patrons, and staff behave. Bezuidenhout C (2011) argues that the social organization theory also explains how and why the behaviour of individuals changes when pressure is exerted on them within the physical and social environment. This theory does not state that individuals are aggressive beings, but that the behaviour of the individual is determined by the environment in which he/she exists (Bezuidenhout C, 2011). In an environment that is congested with intoxicated individuals who are highly likely to break the rules of the establishment and even the laws of the country due to diminished inhibitions, they activate an aggressive response by bouncers who are determined to conduct their duties efficiently and deal with delinquents decisively. This resultant aggressive and violent nature of nightlife in drinking establishments is exacerbated by patrons' provocative personalities that are often aggressive and entitled, even under the best circumstances.

Not all drinking establishments are characterised by an aggressive and violent nature as, in many instances, the environment in which a drinking establishment exists determines the kind of patron it attracts, which in turn affects the level of aggressive and violent behaviour that manifests there (Graham et al., 2006). For example, drinking establishments in affluent environments are usually less prone to violent and aggressive behaviour, while drinking establishments that are located in low socio-economic environments usually experience a high level of violent and aggressive behaviour (Graham et al., 2006).

Another phenomenon that is explained by the social disorganization theory is the inefficiency of and breakdown in control of social institutions. Due to their inefficiency, some social institutions that are required to control the behaviour of patrons are unable to do so (Moore, 2019), and this leads to the normalization of antisocial and delinquent behaviour in these poorly controlled and disorganized environments (Moore, 2019). PSIRA, as the regulator of private security companies in South Africa, does not enforce the PSIR Act of 2001 in drinking establishments, which allows illegitimate bouncers to use their authority to informally enforce the rules in and around these entertainment venues. This occurs without the assistance SAPS officers, who are the primary agents mandated by the Constitution to maintain peace and order

(Mbhele, 2019). Because of the inefficiency of the main key players to actively and legally participate in the maintenance of peace and order in socially disorganized spaces, bouncers and patrons adopt their own antisocial and delinquent behaviour (Dick et al., 2007).

This trend of a disenfranchised relationship between the entertainment environment and the violent/aggressive nature of patrons and bouncers is not only evident in South Africa, but in countries worldwide. Research that was conducted in Australia showed that rates of alcohol related injuries associated with entertainment spaces were not uniformly spread among geographical regions (Lindsay, 2006). Instead, they appeared to be higher in rural compared to metropolitan areas. For example, drinking establishments in rural and regional areas had higher levels of hospital admissions due to alcohol-related assault than nightclubs in metropolitan areas (Lindsay, 2006). This suggests that assaults in nightclubs are linked to the geographical area in which they are located and where, according to the social disorganisation theory, social disorganization is prevalent. Briscoe (2001, cited in Miller, Penny, Jenkison, Droste, Chikritzh...Lubman, 2013) deduce from the foregoing that rural and regional areas experience social disorganization while metropolitan areas experience social control. However, this is a finding that the study did not seek to confirm or refute as it was beyond its scope.

At the time when a nightclub becomes eventful, it takes up a space that is outside the boundaries of the state's regulations. Hence, social disorder and disorganization are experienced as patrons in nightclubs engage in activities that they would otherwise not engage in if they were in different contexts or not intoxicated. This situation is further exacerbated as the role of public policing is shifted to bouncers when few or no police officers are visible at entertainment spaces at night. Nightclubs employ bouncers to enforce social control, social order, and social organization in the environment where they are employed, and the regulations of the nightclub must then be enforced by these bouncers who then engage in social control initiatives (Bezuidenhout, 2011). However, the nightclubs that were included in this study were notoriously situated in environments that are known to be socially disorganized, particularly at night. Moreover, nightclub patrons become personally disorganised when they are intoxicated or experience peer pressure, and they resort to delinquency by rejecting all rules, norms, values, and beliefs. Eventually, delinquency becomes an alternative mode of socialisation and youths become increasingly attracted to this deviant lifestyle (Bezuidenhout, 2011). Hobbs et al. (2002) therefore assert that, in order for bouncers to maintain peace and order in nightclubs,

they endorse their own set of regulations and forms of policing, which is a factor that the social disorganization theory highlights.

3.5 The Frustration-Aggression Theory

The frustration-aggression theory is widely popular across multiple disciplines such as Clinical and Social Psychology, Sociology, Criminology and medical research, and it is one of the most seminal and prolific theories in research on aggression (Breuer & Elson 2017). Dollard, Miller, Doob, Mowrer and Sears (1939) proposed this theory to explain how aggressive behaviour presupposes the existence of frustration, and that frustration always leads to aggression (Wolfgang, Ferracuti & Mannheim, 1967). Frustration is an event instead of an affective state. It is thus understood as “an interference with the occurrence of an instigated goal-response” rather than an emotional state (Wolfgang et al., 1967: 201). Pastore (1950, cited in Breuer & Elson, 2017) presents a different perspective to the original theory, stating that the existence of the aggressive response based on frustration depends on the individual’s understanding of the situation. In addition, environmental contingencies and internal processes, such as the attribution of frustration, now play a relevant role in understanding the frustration aggression link. The manner in which frustration is seen as arbitrary is one of the factors that plays a role in this. In addition, it predicts the probability and intensity of potential aggressive reactions. Dill and Anderson (1995, cited in Breuer & Elson, 2017), argue that justification is also important in the frustration-aggression relationship, as unjustified frustration will lead to a more hostile aggression than justified frustration.

Zimbardo and Gerrig (1999: 322) cite the following example of frustration that led to violence:

“I’d been having a really bad day. I needed to register late for a course. I could not find anyone to help me. When I was told for a thousandth time, ‘You’ve got to go to a different office,’ I got so angry I practically kicked a hole in the door.”

The above narrative is an example that captures the general relationship of the frustration aggression hypothesis. However, it is false to assume that misbehaving patrons are the only reason bouncers get frustrated as there could be a number of other reasons as well. According to Zimbardo and Gerrig (1999), researchers have used this relationship to explain aggression at both personal and societal levels. Furthermore, they contend that individual and societal

forces interact to produce a net level of violence. However, they argue that when an unexpected event provokes frustration, people are less likely to be aggressive than when a situation was provoked intentionally.

Due to their large numbers of intoxicated customers, drinking facilities are notoriously frequented by patrons who behave aggressively and violently (Lindsay, 2006). Any drinking establishment is prone to the risk of violence or injury (Graham et al., 2006). In most cases, bouncers are predictors of aggressive behaviour in nightclubs, and there is a link between violent bouncers and hostility at nightclubs (Roberts, 2009). There are many different reasons for hostilities in nightclubs, and one must take into account the social backdrop, or the entire environment, of the nightclub in order to comprehend the causes of hostility (Roberts, 2009).

The frustration-aggression theory addresses the context of drinking establishments and the responsibilities vested in security staff/bouncers. Drinking establishments can be chaotic environments filled with rowdy and misbehaving patrons, and security staff are expected to maintain safety and order under difficult circumstances. This becomes difficult at times due to intoxicated patrons from different backgrounds and with different personalities and demeanour. Failure to control the behaviour of those they are expected to control can lead to frustration. Consequently, according to the frustration-aggression theory, bouncers resort to aggressive behaviour in response to threats and delinquency. Psychologists use the terms 'frustration' and 'aggression' in many different ways, sometimes referring to external instigating influences and sometimes to an individual's response to a provocative event (Zimbardo & Gerrig, 1999). Dollard et al. (1939, cited in Berkowitz, 1989:60) explain this as follows: "Frustration is an interference with the occurrence of an instigated goal-response at its proper time in the behaviour sequence". The word aggression refers to any pattern of angry behaviour, and the goal-response to the injury of the person towards whom the behaviour is directed. Dollard et al. (1939, cited in Berkowitz, 1989:67) also argue that aggression is "...an action which has the objective of causing injury, but not as a response to a harmful stimulant".

Violence in drinking establishments usually occurs amongst men. A factor that is instrumental in moderating the path from frustration to aggression is the gender of the aggressor (Breuer & Elson 2017). There is a higher probability that an individual will act aggressively towards a same-sex person than towards a person of the opposite gender. Furthermore, males are more likely to behave and act aggressively than females. Mbhele (2017) found that males held more negative views of and had more violent interactions with security staff in drinking establishments than females. In the latter study, females thought that security staff were friendly and protective and none had never experienced violent interaction with them.

3.6 Conclusion

Adopting a suitable theory is important in helping the researcher to explain and understand behaviour. A theory (or theories) must thus be applied to the phenomenon being studied for better understanding of human behaviour. This chapter described the three theories that were adopted to explain and understand various related phenomena concerning bouncers, patrons, and the drinking establishment phenomenon. Victim precipitation argues that victims can consciously or subconsciously contribute to their victimization. This hypothesis was employed by Wolfgang to explain situations in which the victim sparked aggression that resulted in harm or loss. As some people disagree with this notion, more research is necessary to better understand the different kinds of victim precipitation that can occur. The social disorganization theory argues that behaviour can be influenced by the presence of proper regulation and rule/law enforcement. The state of anomie in society leads to the breakdown and disorganization of structures in society and, as a result, in places of night entertainment where anger and violence are prone to break out. This trait has an impact on how bouncers, customers, and even the nightclub staff behave. Bouncers adopt a strong-arm approach to carrying out their jobs and dealing with offenders in a setting full of intoxicated people who are highly prone to violate the laws of the establishments and even those of the country. Lastly, the frustration aggression theory argues that being unable to meet a required goal is frustrating and, if it persists, frustration will turn into aggression. In response to threats and misbehaviour, bouncers become aggressive. Psychologists use the terms 'frustration' and 'aggression' in a variety of contexts, sometimes referring to outside factors that sparked an event and at other times referring to an individual's reaction to an event. These three theories were all applicable to the research topic.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODS

4.1 Introduction

Studying and understanding methods of inquiry are part of the process of understanding science. The primary aim of scientific enquiry is generally to obtain knowledge in the form of testable ideas that a scientist can utilise to predict the results of phenomena in nature and society (Coccia, 2018:116). Research methods are the tools used by researchers to collect and analyse data. These tools enable researchers to collect data about social reality from individuals, groups, artefacts, and texts in any appropriate way. Research methodology is therefore an organized and systematic scientific approach used by researchers for controlled investigations and experiments to efficiently solve theoretical and practical problems, generate discoveries, and advance science (Coccia 2018:116). In research, different methods of inquiry can be applied with the aim of solving problems by implementing one or complementary approaches. Through the process of applying scientific research methods, knowledge creation is achieved (Coccia 2018:116). This chapter presents the research methods that were applied to meet the objectives of the study and answer the research questions. In addition, this chapter will cover the research approach, research design, sampling strategy, data collection methods, and data analysis methods.

4.2 Research Paradigm

A paradigm is “a set of very general philosophical assumptions about the nature of the world (ontology) and how we can understand it (epistemology); assumptions that tend to be shared by researchers working in a specific field or tradition and specific methodological strategies linked to these assumptions” (Kekeya, 2019:26). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000:48), a paradigm may be understood as “a set of basic beliefs which signifies a worldview”. A paradigm involves the intersection of philosophical underpinnings and methodological approaches, and includes methods of data collection and the techniques and tools of data analysis. It is not just an outcome that is involved in a research paradigm, but the whole research inquiry. Neuman (2006: 29) defines a paradigm as “a method of thinking about research and its aspects such as key assumptions, specific requirements for quality research and preferred

methods of inquiry. There are three paradigms that guide research, namely positivism, interpretivism, and critical theory (Kekeya, 2019). However, only two paradigms will be discussed in this section as they were pertinent in this study, namely positivism and interpretivism.

4.2.1 The positivist research paradigm

The positivist paradigm is the oldest and the most widely used paradigm in research (Kekeya, 2019). Positivistic research arguably derives from and is most popular in the natural sciences. It was in the nineteenth century when it was first applied by employing scientific methods and it was then later extended to education and the social sciences. This paradigm has also been referred to by many other names such as realism, determinism, objectivism, normativism, behaviourism, and nomothetical and logical empiricism (Kekeya, 2019). Positivism is defined as “an organized method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity” (Neuman, 2006:82). The ontology of positivistic research argues that the nature of reality or truth exists out there in the physical and social environment. Positivism further assumes that social realities are governed by casual laws that are there waiting to be unveiled or explored.

Human nature is viewed as rational and logical. Adequate information for explaining and understanding human thinking and behaviour is gathered through identifying external behaviours, which provides researchers with an opportunity to study individuals and any external forces that influence these individuals (Neuman, 2006). Realities or truths are caused by human beings reacting with one another while relationships in social environments are caused by self-desires, motivation, wants, needs, curiosity, and interests that drive human behaviour. Pursuing the satisfaction of these needs, wants, curiosity and interests, social relations are altered to improve the manner in which things are done and to predict the future. Hence, the positivistic research paradigm argues that the nature of understanding and generating knowledge is acquired by employing quantitative research methods (Kekeya, 2019).

The term 'quantitative research methods' refers to the notion of measurement where data are quantifiable using surveys and experiments, and a positivist researcher distances himself or herself from the participants (Kekeya, 2019). However, although this was a mixed methods research that included quantitative research methods, the positivist research paradigm does not apply to this study, because the study used descriptive statistics in the analysis of the findings.

4.2.2 Interpretive research paradigm

The interpretive research paradigm is concerned with the actions of human beings and aims to understand the views and perceptions of participants and how they make meaning of their everyday social activities (Kekeya, 2019). The aim of interpretivism is therefore to understand human beings in relation to their own view of a particular reality. Individuals experience and assign meaning to the same situation differently because of their unique, subjective interpretation of events (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Human experiences are transformed into consciousness and language with the aim of creating multiple realities. A person's thinking is referred to as human consciousness. It is then converted to mental processes and then transformed into intentional thoughts or mental acts that are facilitated internally and externally by everyday social real-life experiences. Social realities are constructed in the minds of human beings (Kekeya, 2019). The interpretive tradition demands that the researcher fully immerses him/herself into the environment in which the subjects are interested and in which they function. Therefore, if the researcher's goal is to comprehend the intersubjective meanings that students assign to the subject under investigation, he/she has to actively engage in their world without in any way sharing his/her own opinions or perceptions with them (Esterberg, 2002).

Subjective understanding in interpretivism is vital, unlike in the positivist research paradigm that accepts the notion of distance between the researcher and the researched, including taking control of the research context. In the interpretive research paradigm, empirical data are utilised to describe people's hidden intentions, meanings, reasons, and values that explain human behaviour, rather than to reserve evidence for observable behaviour (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

According to Kekeya (2019), there are three methods that the interpretive paradigm employs to unveil direct human actions and meaning making. The first method is transforming the process of human experiences into consciousness and language to create multiple realities. The second method is to make meaning from printed or written documents and to determine how underlying meanings are drawn out. The third method is to use language to construct symbolic meanings and to see how these meanings are interpreted and constructed.

This study adopted the interpretive research paradigm as it underscores approaches such as ethnography, grounded theory, mixed methods, and case study (Kekeya, 2019). The paradigm was adopted because, as stated above, it assisted the researcher in gaining understanding from the subjective experiences and insights of participants who were involved in the private security industry, patrons who frequented drinking establishments, and representatives from the private security industry. Their views and experiences were explored to achieve the objectives of the study.

4.3 Deductive and Inductive Methods of Inquiry

According to Coccia (2018:116), models of scientific inquiry can be classical, pragmatic, and logical empiricism approaches. The classical model of scientific inquiry derives from Aristotle, who also differentiated between the forms of approximate and exact reasoning. A common distinction in science is between logical paths of induction and deduction. The etymology is from the Latin verb *ducere*, which means to draw on or along, to lead. The prefixes *in* and *de* mean in and from respectively. Simply, to induce could mean ‘to lead’ or ‘to draw into’, ‘to infer’, ‘to persuade’, and induction is ‘to lead to the conclusion’. To deduce could mean ‘to lead from’, ‘to draw from’ and deduction is ‘to draw a conclusion from’. Both terms define systems of logic with the purpose of solving problems (Coccia, 2018:119). The deductive method of inquiry is inference by reasoning from the general to particulars, or the process of deducing from something known or assumed. Deductive reasoning is the process of reasoning from one or more premises to reach a logically certain conclusion. If all premises are true, the terms are clear, and if the rules of deductive logic are followed, then the conclusion reached is necessarily true. The inductive method of inquiry starts by conducting experiments and obtaining theories from the data. During this process, data are collected and then shifted to

theoretical implications. In comparison, induction is riskier than deduction because it can provide conclusions that may be uncertain. The conclusion of inductive method may be probable depending on the given evidence, while the deductive method of inquiry results in certainty (Coccia, 2018:119).

Deductive method of inquiry is associated with quantitative research from a positivistic approach. Quantitative research assumes that hypotheses are derived from theory and are therefore deductive in nature and this is frequently referred to as theory testing (Coccia, 2018:119). Quantitative study postulates the presence of a stable reality that exists across multiple cultures. Quantitative researchers therefore study a stable reality by identifying variables and examining them for probable relationship, for example between cause and effect (Mengshoel, 2012:373). In addition, the inductive method is associated with the qualitative approach. The purpose is not to test a theory but to generate a theory and explanations of a phenomenon. Qualitative researchers, on the other hand, engage in constructivist or interpretivist paradigm, postulating that there is a presence of multiple and socially constructed realities bound to a context, time, and culture that can be understood and studied by examining people's experiences and what is happening in social situations. In essence, different paradigm implications of ontology and epistemology are represented by quantitative and qualitative research (Mengshoel, 2012:373; Coccia, 2018:119). However, this study did not utilise inferential statistics and analyses where variables were analysed for possible relations of cause and effect, but utilised descriptive statistics and analysis and evaluation of findings. Hence the inductive method, which is associated with a qualitative approach, and the interpretive research paradigm were applied.

4.4 Research Approach

4.4.1 Mixed methods approach

Scholars have considered how the combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies can be useful and meaningful in research studies (Teddlie & Yu, 2007; Leech & Ownwuegbuzie, 2009). According to Teddlie and Yu (2007:266), the application of the mixed methods research approach has escalated in recent times, and the list is still growing. Most studies published in mixed methods journals have been used to answer questions that cannot

be answered by one paradigm alone. Clark, Creswell, Green and Shope (2008:105) assert that the first purpose of the mixture of these two research methods is triangulation. This is due to the strengths of an individual method being offset against another method's weaknesses. The combination can yield confidence in the results, the use of creative methods, better understandings when divergent findings are explained, a synthesis of theories, and critical tests of competing theories. Clark et al. (2008:108) define triangulation as "the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon".

In the 20th century, many researchers in social studies refuted quantitative research methodological assumptions and principles and turned to the qualitative research method (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007:266). Between 1900 and 1950, the first historical moment for qualitative research was noted. It was in 1960 that the idea of mixing qualitative and quantitative research was introduced (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007:266). The main reason researchers use multiple methods is that they wish to know more about the topics that they study. Even though there are a number of ways to accumulate more knowledge, this method has been utilised to increase the accuracy of research findings and the level of confidence in them, to generate new knowledge through a synthesis of the findings from different approaches, to hear different voices and bringing into play multiple constructions of a phenomenon, to reflect on the complexity of a phenomenon, and to demonstrate theoretical claims that knowledge is both qualitative and quantitative (Gilbert, 2008). However, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003:3, cited in Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007:266), mention that the mixed methods approach is in its adolescent phase and that there are still several issues that need to be resolved, such as issues relating to research design.

Campbell and Fiske (1959, cited in Clark et al., 2008), further emphasise the importance of mixed methods, stating that "the use of triangulation can be traced back to the development of multiple operational elements. They argue that more than one method should be used in the validation process to ensure that the variance reflects that of the trait and not of the method. Thus, "the convergence or agreement between two methods enhances the belief that the results are valid and not a methodological artefact" (p. 108). Gilbert (2008) concurs, stating that the typologies of the purpose to which researchers may put mixed methods are triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation, and expansion. However, most researchers are more interested in triangulation. Therefore, a concurrent triangulation and mixed methods design

was used in the study as both qualitative and quantitative data were collected concurrently and were accorded equal importance.

According to Teddlie and Tashkkori (2006:12, cited in Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007:266) the process of combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies and processes in a study to address the research objectives is known as mixed methods. They believe that an authentic mixed method design clearly states mixed research questions and necessitates the integration of qualitative and quantitative approaches in all phases of a study, even though the integration could happen at any moment of a research project. This means that the research questions in study strands may have a qualitative or quantitative tack. Moreover, the ability to combine qualitative and quantitative research methodologies with flexibility enables researchers to most effectively respond to their study questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Greene, 2007; Brewer & Hunter, 2006; Greene & Caracelli, 2003).

4.4.2 Quantitative research

According to Maree and Pietersen (2007:145), quantitative research is defined as "a process that uses numerical data from only a selected subgroup of a universe in a systematic and objective manner to generalize the findings to the universe that is being studied". Welman, Kruger, and Mitchell (2006:8) state that the goal of quantitative research is to assess objective data comprising numbers. Research using numerical analysis is referred to as quantitative research. This method essentially turns the data into numbers. Neuman (2006) asserts that quantitative research adopts a deductive methodology with a concentration on systematic study. The goal of quantitative research is to confirm universal rules that hold true independent of time or place by establishing causal links between variables (Gray, 2009). In quantitative research, the significance of precise variable measurement and hypothesis testing that are related to causal laws are emphasized. Quantitative researchers adhere to a reconstructed logic that involves highly formalized and standardized research procedures, in contrast to qualitative researchers who follow a logic of practice that involves an iterative research process with less formal procedures and a preference for practical accomplishment of a research task (Gray, 2009).

4.4.3 Qualitative research

Qualitative research is dependent on verbal data, and researchers use descriptions to convey the themes that arise from those data. Thus, a qualitative research design emphasises gathering information about things/events that happen naturally (Badenhorst, 2020). According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:26), the researcher must search and investigate using a variety of methodologies until a thorough understanding has been attained. Accordingly, "describing and understanding rather than the explanation and prediction of human behaviour" is the purpose of qualitative research (Babbie & Mouton, 2010:646). In order to explore an issue, Creswell (2007:37) states that "a qualitative research approach is to be employed to inquire the natural setting comprising human individuals and locations that inform the collecting of data...and the study themes are established by inductive data analysis". The researcher thus attempts to gain a first-hand, holistic view of the phenomenon of interest by means of a flexible strategy of problem formulation and data collection that is shaped as the investigation proceeds (Babbie & Mouton, 2010).

4.5 Research Design

A research design, according to Bezuidenhout M (2011:48), "is the blueprint, procedure, or plan of action", whereas Mouton (1996:55) describes it as "a plan of how one intends conducting the research, by focusing on the end product - it acts as the framework or guideline for the study". A research design outlines the processes that should be followed to become familiar with the study material and to obtain information. It also outlines the direction that an inquiry should take. Below are the elements of the research design that were utilised in this research study.

4.5.1 Convergent parallel mixed methods design

Teddle and Tashakkori (2003, cited in Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007:266), state that the most severe problem facing doctoral students, the beginner researcher, and even the experienced researcher who is new to the field of mixed methodology is the challenge of choosing a suitable research design as there is a plethora of designs available. However, the current researcher felt that the most suitable design for this study would be the convergent parallel mixed methods

design. According to Creswell, Ebersohn, Eloff, Ferreira, Ivankova...Plano Clark (2016:318), this research design is most popular and well known amongst mixed methods researchers. This design is quite useful because it uses both qualitative and quantitative methods in order to develop a more complete and valid understanding of the phenomenon of interest. Researchers who adopt this design choose to address their research questions by collecting and analysing both quantitative and qualitative data at the same time. Both types of data are also collected at the same time about a single phenomenon in order to merge the different results, for instance by comparing and contrasting them to produce well-validated conclusions (Creswell et al., 2016:318). An essential consideration here is that the same research question is addressed while the aim is commonly to triangulate two sets of data to verify or complement the findings (Mengshoel, 2012:373).

4.5.2 Fully mixed concurrent equal status design

The above explanation by Creswell et al. (2016) of the convergent parallel mixed methods design is supplemented by Leech and Onwuegbuzie's (2007) typologies of the mixed methods research design. These scholars identify three dimensional typologies that underpin the mixed methods designs: (a) level of mixing (partially mixed versus fully mixed); (b) time orientation (concurrent versus sequential), and (c) emphasis of approaches (equal status versus dominant status). Furthermore, according to Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007:268), the mixed methods design encompasses these typologies in their application. The scholars refer to eight different designs, namely (i) partially mixed concurrent equal status design, (ii) partially mixed concurrent dominant status design, (iii) partially mixed sequential equal status design, (iv) partially mixed sequential dominant status design, (v) fully mixed concurrent equal status design, (vi) fully mixed concurrent dominant status design, (vii) fully mixed sequential equal status design, and lastly (viii) fully mixed sequential dominant status design.

The convergent parallel mixed methods design has similarities with a few designs mentioned above, such as the partially mixed concurrent equal status design, the fully mixed concurrent equal status design, and the fully mixed concurrent dominant status design. The mixed methods design that is proposed by Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007) was preferred by the researcher because the elements go deeper when the typologies of level of mixing, time orientation, and approaches can be applied. However, the researcher used the convergent parallel mixed

methods design and the fully mixed concurrent equal status design because they share important similarities.

According to Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007:270), the fully mixed concurrent equal status design involves conducting a study that mixes qualitative and quantitative research within one or more or across the following four components in a single research study: the research objective, type of data and operations, type of analysis, and type of inference. Qualitative and quantitative phases are thereby mixed concurrently at one or more stages or across the components, and both elements or approaches are given equal weight.

4.6 Sampling Strategy

Teddlie and Yu (2007) discuss mixed methods sampling strategies in some depth. Mixed methods sampling strategies use both probability sampling, which stresses external validity, and purposive sampling or non-probability sampling that seeks to increase transferability. According to Teddlie and Yu (2007:83), purposive or non-probability sampling aims to recruit a small number of participants that will provide deep and detailed information about a particular phenomenon, while probability sampling is designed to recruit a large number of participants for the purpose of representing the population of interest to elicit findings that are applicable to the larger population. Teddlie and Yu (2007: 97) also state that it should be noted that not all mixed methods studies are intended to be transferred or generalised. Hence, the researcher decided to utilise only non-probability sampling for the study. This decision was based on one of the mixed methods sampling guidelines by Teddlie and Yu (2007), which states that the sampling strategy should be feasible and efficient. It was practical and efficient for the researcher to employ non-probability sampling only in this mixed methods study because ninety-seven (97) participants in total: 46 bouncers and 40 patrons for the collection of quantitative data and 9 managers/owners and 2 PSIRA representatives for the generation of qualitative data. The sample comprised private security personnel/bouncers, patrons of drinking establishments, managers/owners, and PSIRA representatives. The aim was to use the data for descriptive purposes rather than for inferential purposes.

The use of the non-probability sampling method meant that not every member of the population had an equal chance of being sampled as the sample needed to consist of members of the population that would serve the purpose of the study. Hence, purposive sampling and convenience sampling were utilised. Bouncers, the managers of nightclubs, and members of the Private Security Industry Regulation Authority (PSIRA) were sampled using the nonprobability purposive sampling technique. Maree (2007) clarifies that purposive sampling can be used as a way of getting the best information by selecting people who are most likely to have the experience or expertise to provide quality information and valuable insights regarding the topic. The convenient sampling technique was used to sample patrons who attended the drinking establishments under study. Convenient sampling is the sampling individuals who are available and near and have anything to do with the phenomenon being studied (de Vos, Delport, Fouché & Strydom, 2011). The study sample was comprised as follows:

- Nine (9) managers/owners (depending on who was available) from nine different drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg were recruited using the non-probability purposive sampling method. The managers and owners were interviewed by the researcher for qualitative data generation.
- Two (2) PSIRA staff members were also recruited using the non-probability purposive sampling method. They both held different posts and had different roles and responsibilities in the organisation. One staff member was a compliance officer and the other was an enforcement officer. They were interviewed for qualitative data generation.
- Forty-six (46) private security officers/bouncers were recruited from various drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg using the non-probability purposive sampling method. The total number of drinking establishments that were represented by these bouncers was nineteen (19). The selection of drinking establishments was random and the decision was based on the availability of bouncers and the consent to participate in the study. There was no predetermined number of bouncers recruited per site, as recruitment was largely influenced by the different number of bouncers present per site, and their willingness to consent to participate in the study. These bouncers were respondents to a questionnaire and the data they provided were used for quantitative analysis.

- Forty (40) patrons frequenting drinking establishments were recruited by employing the non-probability convenience sampling method. Twenty-one (21) males and nineteen (19) females agreed to participate in the study. The patrons were recruited from the nineteen (19) drinking establishments that the bouncers were recruited from. These patrons also completed a questionnaire for quantitative data analysis.

4.7 Data collection

4.7.1 Application of the Qualitative Research Method

The qualitative research method has become popular in numerous academic fields. However, it was traditionally used in the social sciences and in market research (Oun & Bach, 2014). The goal of qualitative research is to generate data in great detail to elicit understanding of human behaviour and the factors that lead to such particular behaviour. According to Bezuidenhout M (2011), the qualitative approach permits one to gain insight into people's thoughts, attitudes, behaviour, value systems, feelings, concerns, and motivations. Unlike the quantitative approach, this approach elicits in-depth understanding of human behaviour and the factors that control or influence that behaviour (Bezuidenhout M, 2011). Qualitative research methods aim to answer the questions of how, where, what, when and why a person behaves in a certain way in a specific context (Oun & Bach, 2014). The use of only a small number of participants is relevant for this method because of how focused it method is. Qualitative research often allows participants to share their experiences in focus group discussions and these experiences can open our eyes to new aspects that emerge from the data (Pathak, Jena & Kalra, 2013).

In light of the above, the qualitative research method was applied to gain a deep understanding of the roles of various actors and the operations within drinking establishments, as well as PSIRA's role in maintaining and ensuring the safety and security of these spaces. Qualitative data provided information in great detail about how the participants contributed either positively or negatively to the levels of violence and aggression that occurred in the drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg. The findings provided a holistic understanding of this complex system and the interdependent relationships that existed, which is one of the major strengths of qualitative research (Terre Blanche., Durrheim & Painter, 2008). The managers/owners of the drinking establishments were able to provide insights into aspects such

as the recruitment criteria for the employment of bouncers, training and skills expectations, the key role of bouncers in maintaining safety and security, and familiarity with PSIRA regulations and obligations. The PSIRA employees from the enforcement and compliance sections provided detailed insight into the operations of PSIRA as an institution that regulates private securities to ensure safety and security in drinking establishments. They further provided indepth understanding of the legalities surrounding the work of bouncers in terms of PSIRA's principles and obligations and also illuminated the challenges they faced in ensuring compliance and enforcement in this industry.

4.7.1.1 Interviews

Conducting research interviews is an important qualitative data collection method. Some other forms of qualitative data collection are focus group discussions, field notes, audio or video analysis, narratives of personal stories, observation, and document analysis (Maxwell, 2005). An interview is a dialogue between two people, an interviewer and a participant, where the interviewer asks the participant questions about their ideas, beliefs, views, opinions and behavioural patterns. The three forms of interviews that exist are open-ended, structured, and semi-structured interviews (Creswell et al., 2014). This study conducted semi-structured, face-to-face interviews with nine drinking establishment managers/owners and on two PSIRA staff members from the compliance and enforcement departments respectively. Maree (2007) indicates that semi-structured interviews are useful in instances where other data sources are considered, and we try to confirm data from those sources. In simpler terms, semi-structured interviews serve the purpose of posing predetermined questions and the process allows probing for the clarification of answers (Maree, 2007). It is highly effective when the researcher has enough knowledge about the study topic to control the discussion in advance.

The researcher visited most managers at the drinking establishments during a time chosen by them, which was usually during midweek afternoons when it was not busy. Some managers were interviewed at night on weekends. The researcher ensured that the venues where the interviews were conducted were quiet and conducive for dialogue. This ensured that the recordings that were used captured the entire interview without noise and sound disturbances. The researcher arrived with an interview schedule, a consent form for the participant to sign as an agreement for an interview to happen, a voice recorder, a note book, and a pen. Each

interview lasted between ten to fifteen minutes. A similar approach was adopted for interviews with the PSIRA staff members, but these interviews were held in their offices. An appointment was made and both interviews occurred in the morning during office hours. The interviews lasted between twenty to twenty-five minutes. Before the interview, the researcher explained the study aim and objectives and what was expected from the participants. The researcher also provided the participants with an opportunity to ask questions regarding the study.

4.7.1.2 Interview transcriptions

The researcher appointed a research assistant who assisted with transcribing the data. The researcher provided the research assistant with interview voice recordings and field notes. Transcription involved close observation of data through repeated and careful listening, which is an important first step in data analysis. Transcription is the means of changing audio recordings into written pieces to make data analysis possible (Creswell, 2005; Bailey, 2008). The recordings were transcribed into written text so that they could be studied in detail, linked with analytical notes, and coded. Some interviews were conducted in IsiZulu, and the transcriber translated and transcribed the interviews in English. The researcher ensured that the transcriber was fluent in both English and IsiZulu.

4.7.2 Application of the quantitative research method

Researchers engaging in quantitative research collect data in the form of numbers. The numerical data that are collected are analysed using statistical or mathematical methods. Quantitative research is employed in various fields, including the natural and social sciences, physics, biology, psychology, sociology, and geology (Sukamolson, 2007). Quantitative research further employs empirical methods and empirical statements. According to Sukamolson (2007: 17), an empirical statement is defined as “a descriptive statement about what is the case in the real world rather than what ought to be the case”. Secondly, empirical evaluations are applied, which is defined as a process to determine the degree to which a policy meets or does not meet a particular standard or norm. In addition, the quantitative approach entails that a relationship between two variables has to be determined. Variables have attributes that can vary and take on different values (Bezuidenhout M, 2011). For example, if variables are race, age, gender, height, and socio-economic status poverty might be an independent

variable, with theft or shoplifting being the resultant dependant variable (Bezuidenhout M, 2011).

The downside of quantitative research is that it does not provide information about contextualised human behaviour. The effect of variables is then ignored and events from the real-world settings are removed. Data collected in quantitative research are therefore not rich in human behaviour and views and lacks depth, which is always available in qualitative research. Because of a high number of participants sampled in quantitative research, it is impossible to know the details of all the participants.

Quantitative research was applied in this study to gain an understanding of the level of professionalism and competence of bouncers. Bouncers are private security officers who are guided by the regulations stipulated by the Private Security Industry Regulatory Act of 2001. One of the obligations stipulated for bouncers in the Act is to obtain an accredited certificate and register as a private security officer to be legally identified as such. The aim was to determine the number of qualified bouncers who had attended training college and received certification. In addition, by employing quantitative research, the study gained the patrons' understanding of the roles and responsibility that bouncers ought to play in maintaining safety and security in drinking establishments.

4.7.2.1 Administering the questionnaire

Structured interviews rely on the utilisation of a questionnaire as a data collection instrument (Pathak., Jena, and Kalra, 2013). This interview method uses the approach of asking each person the same question in the same way in an effort to note that any differences between answers are real and not the result of the interview situation itself. The interviewer has no important role to play except to give the respondent directions regarding the sequence of questions on the interview schedule and provide clarification if needed. In this instance, emphasis is put on the neutrality of the interviewer (Pathak., Jena, and Kalra, 2013). In addition, (Pathak., Jena, and Kalra, 2013) stipulates that the rules of conducting such interviews are, inter alia, "leaving little room for deviation from the schedule, eliciting responses of the person with whom the interview is being conducted, not prompting or providing a personal view, not interpreting meanings and simply repeating the questions and finally, not improvising". This

interviewing method permits comparability between responses. Bouncers and patrons were provided with a questionnaire that had been specifically designed for each group. This was prompted by the large number of respondents per group.

The researcher visited the drinking establishments at night to administer the questionnaires to bouncers and patrons. A total of forty-six bouncers and forty patrons responded to the questionnaires that had been designed with pertinent questions for each group. Before the respondents completed the questionnaire, a brief description of the study was given. The researcher also provided consent forms for the respondents to sign. Each questionnaire took between five to ten minutes to be completed by the bouncers and patrons.

4.8 Data Analysis

According to de Vos, Strydom and Fouché (2005), data analysis entails minimizing the body of raw data, sorting out the important information from the unimportant, detecting significant patterns, and creating a framework for presenting the key insights the data reveal. Data analysis is described as "the process of making sense of the data" by Merriam (2009:175). Making sense of the data also entails combining, condensing, and analysing what people have said as well as what the researcher has seen and read. The processes of qualitative and quantitative data analysis will be elaborated below.

4.8.1 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis involves the examination and interpretation of observations for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships (de Vos et al., 2011). Analysis means some kind of transformation. It commences with a collection of qualitative data and then processing through analytical procedures into a clear, understandable, insightful, trustworthy and even original analysis (de Vos et al., 2011). Data are interpreted by using a variety of analytical strategies to sort, organise, and reduce them to manageable pieces and then exploring ways to reassemble them.

Thematic analysis is an approach that is used to systematically identify, organise, and offer insight into patterns of meanings or themes across a data set (Braun & Clarke, 2012). Thematic analysis permits the researcher to see and make sense of collective or shared meanings and experiences, through focusing on meaning across a data set. This method is a way of identifying what is common to the topic and then making sense of those commonalities. Thematic analysis does not focus on identifying unique and idiosyncratic meanings and experiences that are found only within a single data item (Braun & Clarke, 2012). In complying with the principles of thematic analysis, the current researcher engaged in the following steps:

- Becoming familiar with the data,
- Generating initial codes,
- Searching for themes,
- Reviewing potential themes,
- Defining and naming themes, and lastly
- Producing (writing) the report.

Familiarizing oneself with the data requires immersion in the data by reading and rereading textual data and listening to audio recordings (Braun & Clarke, 2012). The researcher made field notes during the data collection stage which were also considered during this familiarization process. The researcher then generated initial codes. Codes become useful by identifying and providing a label for a feature of the data that is potentially relevant to the research question. Codes further provide a summary of a portion of data or describe the content of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2012). The researcher produced numerous codes by being guided by the objectives of the study. Once the data-to-code process had been sufficiently exhausted, the researcher wrote down the codes and marked the text parts associated with them. After the first code had been generated, the researcher kept reading the data until the next relevant excerpt was identified.

After relevant codes had been identified, the researcher began to search for themes. Searching and identifying themes means that analysis starts to take shape as the process now shifts from codes to themes. A code and theme are different because a theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research objectives and presents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2012). Generating themes involves collapsing or clustering codes that seem to share some unifying feature so that they reflect and describe a coherent and meaningful pattern in the data.

In addition, the researcher then defined and named these themes. This process allowed the researcher to state clearly what was unique and specific about each theme. This was achieved by selecting extracts to present and analyse, and thus creating a story of each theme related to the extracts (Braun & Clarke, 2012).

4.8.2 Quantitative data analysis

Data analysis has become relatively easy with the aid of computerised data analysis software. The researcher employed Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to conduct quantitative data analysis so that descriptive statistics could be generated. The researcher began by coding variables and then proceeded to data entry by capturing information from the questionnaires. Then data analysis occurred through extracting tables. Descriptive analysis helped the researcher to ensure that the data were organised and summarised.

Quantitative and qualitative data were integrated during the data analysis process. This ensured maximizing the strengths and minimizing the weaknesses each themed data category (Bryman, 2012). According to Creswell (2014), three methods should be involved in the integration of mixed methods data. The first approach is merging the data, which involves integrating qualitative and quantitative data in the form of combining textual (qualitative) data with numeric (quantitative) data. The second approach of data integration is connecting, which involves analysing one dataset (quantitative) and then using the information gathered from this analysis to inform the other dataset (qualitative). Thirdly, embedding data occurs when the dataset of secondary priority is embedded within a larger primary design. The data analysis process thus occurred by merging quantitative and qualitative data and comparing the two data

sets and results. Statistical methods are utilised to analyse the quantitative data while thematic identification and description were utilized to analyse the qualitative data.

4.9 Methods to Achieve Trustworthiness

To ensure quality in mixed methods research, certain requirements associated with both quantitative and qualitative components of an investigations should be met to validate the data. Validation in mixed methods research requires ways in which the validity of the research is assessed and ensured, and not just simply applying traditional scientific beliefs (Giddings & Grant, 2009). The idea of rigour in ensuring quality in research is widely endorsed. Positivist scientific research has been widely using the terms reliability and validity, which are synonymous with rigour, to explain a study's generalisability. These terms are not foreign to mixed methods research and have been actively applied in a single study as means to ensure rigour, as the use of mixed methods research has also been viewed as a way to ensure rigour (Giddings & Grant, 2009).

In mixed methods research, the process of ensuring research validation shifts and changes depending on which paradigm is dominant. For example, in a post-positivist mixed methods study where both the quantitative and the qualitative methods are descriptive, processes to ensure reliability, validity, and generalisability are applied (Giddings & Grant, 2009). However, if the qualitative component shifts from categorical content analysis to thematic content analysis, extra validation strategies to achieve trustworthiness are applied. Steps must be adopted to ensure that the interpretations that the researcher makes and the conclusions that are reached are credible and trustworthy (Giddings & Grant, 2009). This study employed a concurrent triangulation design, which placed the qualitative and the quantitative research components at the same level of importance.

There is not one specific set of standards to ensure validation in mixed methods research due to differences between paradigms. It is important to understand what is being mixed so that a decision can be made whether or not a multiple set of validation strategies should be applied (Giddings & Grant, 2009). Therefore, based on the methods that were utilised in his study, the researcher applied trustworthiness methods instead of the post-positivist strategies of reliability, validity and generalisability to ensure quality findings. As stated above, the concepts validity, reliability and generalizability are associated with the positivist paradigm. In

qualitative research, the terms credibility, dependability, and transferability are used to ensure trustworthiness (Ritchie, Lewis & Elam, 2003).

There are four areas that need to be maintained in qualitative research to ensure that trustworthiness is enhanced (Guba, 1981). First, the researcher must establish the confidence levels of his/her findings and present genuine, credible results. Secondly, the researcher must determine the applicability of the findings to other settings or with other respondents which is referred to as transferability. Thirdly, the researcher must know if the findings could be repeated consistently with similar participants in the same context, which refers to dependability. Finally, the findings must not be influenced by the researcher's biasness, motivations, or interests as the findings should be solely elicited from the participants (Guba, 1981).

In this study, credibility was achieved by utilising mixed methods research to ensure that triangulation was possible. Triangulation is defined as "the involvement of multiple or different methods, investigators, sources, and theories to obtain corroborating evidence" (Guba, 1981: 87). Semi-structured interviews and questionnaires were the data generation and collecting tools from four groups of participants. The application of this dual strategy enhanced the credibility of the findings. Guba (1981) recommends that one or two techniques of triangulation are used to enhance the credibility of the research findings. The researcher therefore made sure that a conducive environment was found where the interviews could be conducted so that the recordings would be clearly audible during the transcription of the data. During the transcription process, every detail was captured accurately by an assistant, but the researcher went back to the recordings to audit every word and detail to determine if they had been captured accurately.

Transferability refers to the degree to which the results of the research can be transferred to other contexts or settings with other respondents, and this is the interpretive equivalent of generalizability (Guba, 1981). For transferability purposes, the study used purposive sampling which is a technique that assists the researcher in paying attention to key informants who are knowledgeable about the topic under investigation. It is acknowledged that the findings of the current study are not generalizable to the wider population due to the small number of participants and the fact that the quantitative component is descriptive; however, the findings can be transferred to similar situations or contexts.

Dependability refers to the stability of findings over time (Guba, 1981) and may be compared to reliability in quantitative research. To ensure the study's dependability, it was imperative to clearly present the processes the study adopted to enable future researchers to obtain similar findings if they were to repeat the research. The researcher ensured that the objectives, research questions, and the research methods were aligned and clearly detailed in terms of their applicability, execution, and the outcomes of the study.

4.10 Ethical Considerations

The ethical consideration concept in research refers to the application of relevant and appropriate ethical principles to protect the rights of human subjects (Arifin, 2018). Ethical considerations were therefore adhered to throughout all the stages of the research, including the planning phase. The research participants' rights and wellbeing were in no way violated in the course of the research. The researcher consciously and consistently avoided any harm, whether intentional or unintentional, to the participants.

The researcher applied for ethical approval and it was granted by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Appendix 1). While the researcher was waiting for ethical approval, the identified research sites were visited to seek permission to conduct the research at these sites. A gatekeeper's letter seeking permission was provided to the managers of these sites (Appendix 2). All the drinking establishments granted permission to interview the managers, patrons, as well as private security officers. However, all agreements were verbal. Similarly, the Private Security Industry Regulation Authority (PSIRA) granted entry to conduct interviews with their staff members, and this agreement was also verbal.

Informed consent forms were provided to the participants before the interviews were conducted (Appendix 3). These forms contained important and relevant information concerning the study, including a brief description of the researcher, the objectives of the study, and contact details of the supervisor and the HSSREC Research Office that granted ethical approval. In addition, the participants were given the option to be voice recorded or not.

The participants were ensured that their responses and the biographical information they provided prior and during the interviews would remain confidential. Confidentiality in research means that the identity of participants will not be revealed publicly and that their responses would not be traced back to them (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The researcher assign a numbered code to each participants to avoid revealing their names. The voice recordings were strictly used for transcription purposes and will not be made available to the public under any circumstances.

The researcher assured the participants that their participation would be completely voluntary. No participant was forced to respond to certain questions or provide certain information involuntarily. The participants were also informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time should they desire to do so. None of the original participants withdrew from the study. In addition, the participants were informed that there would be no financial compensation for their participation. No risks were foreseen and no emotional, physical, or psychological harm was experienced by any of the participants.

4.11 Limitations of the Study

The study faced a number of challenges. First, the management of a number of drinking establishments were hesitant to permit the researcher to conduct the study. The researcher eventually convinced the owners/managers that the study meant no harm and that all the data would be confidential and utilised for research purposes only. One drinking establishment did not agree because it was registered as a restaurant and not a bar, tavern, or shebeen, although bouncers were employed and it stayed open until late in the evening.

Secondly, when the researcher gained approval from the drinking establishments to conduct the study, a fair number of bouncers did not want to participate and indicated that they felt somewhat uncomfortable to be part of such a study. This unwillingness to participate by some bouncers affected the number of participants that were eventually recruited. Also, the researcher had hoped to recruit an equal number of male and female bouncers, but because the

bouncing industry is male dominated, only one female bouncer was recruited to participate in the study.

Another challenge the researcher faced was the COVID-19 lockdown regulations that permitted only essential services to trade. Drinking establishments fell under non-essential services and they were not permitted to trade. The researcher therefore completed the data collection process over a long period of time, which delayed the progress of the research.

The main limitation of the study was its relatively small sample of research participants and number of drinking establishments. The findings of the study may therefore not be generalized to the wider society as they only reflect the views and experiences of the sample. However, they may be transferable to drinking establishments in similar contexts and with similar practices and characteristics as those of the study sample.

4.12 Conclusion

The research methodology section described and explained the research methods that were employed to solve the research problem and meet the study's objectives. The tools that were used to collect the data were identified and it was explained how they were implemented. It was illuminated that the study adopted the interpretive research paradigm due to its ability to permit participants to express their subjective interpretations of events pertaining to the topic under investigation. The distinction between inductive and deductive methods of inquiry was explained and it was argued why the study adopted inductive methods of inquiry that were aligned to the interpretive paradigm. The mixed methods approach that was adopted was explained with reference to the qualitative and quantitative approaches that were utilised concurrently and equally. The most suitable research designs that were employed were the convergent parallel mixed method design and the fully mixed concurrent equal status design. These two designs are somewhat similar; hence they were both chosen and applied to this study. The achievement of trustworthiness and the ethical considerations that were adhered to were also explained. In conclusion, some challenges and the key limitation that were experienced in conducting this research were elucidated.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the data are presented and the findings that emerged are discussed. The researcher conducted interviews with two staff members employed by the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA) in KwaZulu-Natal, who served different roles in the industry. One was the compliance officer and the other was an enforcement officer. These interview participants possessed different expertise, experiences, and knowledge based on their respective lines of duty. Interviews were also conducted with drinking establishment managers. A total of nine (09) managers from different drinking establishments were interviewed. In addition, quantitative data were elicited from forty-six (46) bouncers and forty (40) patrons using two respective questionnaires. The bouncers and patrons were recruited from various drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg and a total of 97 interview participants and questionnaire respondents participated in the study.

The researcher aimed to investigate the manner of compliance and the professionalism of private securities in drinking establishments. Being compliant and professional requires that private securities in these industries adhere to the rules and regulations adopted by PSIRA which include, amongst others, attending college, undergoing training, obtaining a relevant qualification, and being registered as a private security officer. The study further aimed to investigate the role PSIRA played in the execution of the law in drinking establishments and to determine if this body ensured and maintained compliance in the private security industry in the study area.

The quantitative and qualitative data are presented and discussed in combination under key themes that emerged from the thematic analysis process. The study used a convergent parallel mixed method design which permitted utilising and analysing both approaches concurrently to elicit deep and meaningful information.

5.2 Employment Procedures for Private Securities in Drinking Establishments

Mbhele, Mphatheni, Mlamla and Singh (2020) emphasise the importance of drinking establishments being aware of their obligations under the Private Security Regulation Act No. 51 of 2001, particularly in terms of the legal requirements and processes associated with the hiring of private securities as bouncers in their drinking establishments. It was found that the majority of these drinking establishments took responsibility for hiring their bouncers themselves, which is illegal. Drinking establishments are not registered as private security providers, hence they must not independently employ private securities to work as bouncers in their establishments. Chapter 3 section 20 (2)(a) of the PSIR Act states:

“A security business may only be registered as a security service provider if all the persons performing executive or managing functions in respect of such security business are registered as security service providers”, while section 20(2)(b) further states: “A security business may only be registered as a security service provider in the case of a security business which is a company, close corporation, partnership, business trust or foundation, if every director of the company, every member of the close corporation, every partner of the partnership, every trustee of the business trust, and every administrator of the foundation, as the case may be, is registered as a security service provider.”

This means that drinking establishments do not qualify to independently hire private securities. When the managers were asked about the recruitment process, they adopted to hire private securities, Manager 1 stated:

“We use a company called CWUP. We do not hire our own bouncers. We need them to have a certificate in security.”

Manager 2 stated:

“I am responsible for hiring bouncers. I mostly look at fitness as a recruitment criterion. We do not look at qualifications. I hire people I personally know or someone referred to by someone I know. We have worked with these bouncers for quite some time. We came from another nightclub. We’ve worked together before, I know them.” Even though most managers did not follow the legal procedure for appointing and retaining bouncers in their drinking establishments, some were aware of their obligations as provided by the PSIR Act, and did apply them. For example, Manager 4 stated:

“We get bouncers from recommendations, then we look at their qualifications. Basically, for our security personnel we look for people to assist in keeping customers safe. We need relevant qualifications like PSIRA. Anything that leans or falls under security.”

Manager 7 also conducted the business by following legal procedures. He stated:

“We outsource security, so a private company hires our securities. The owner of the security company is the one that hires securities, and he is in charge of bringing the securities here since we outsource. If anyone leaves, I hire new people.”

The incorrect hiring of bouncers by bars and nightclubs reveals that these facilities operate in an area where the social disorganisation theory of lawlessness and disorder, or disorganisation, is prevalent. It might be stated that this behaviour, which is considered delinquent, is a result of the milieu in which drinking facilities exist as well as the idea that the bouncing business is not tightly regulated. It also encourages drinking businesses to disregard the law and the rules because PSIRA, the regulator, is unable to police them.

The results below are responses from bouncers when they were asked how they were employed for the post they were currently holding as bouncers at a particular drinking establishment. The majority (34.8%, n=16) indicated that they had been recruited by the manager or the owner of the drinking establishment where they worked, whereas 26.1% (n=12) of the bouncers indicated that their friends had told them about the post and that was how they got employed. Only 23.9% (n=11) indicated that they had applied by handing in their CVs, while 13% (n=6) indicated that they had been recruited at a gymnasium.

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Application by CV	11	23.9	24.4	24.4
	My friend told me about the job	12	26.1	26.7	51.1
	The owner/manager recruited me	16	34.8	35.6	86.7
	I was recruited at the gym	6	13.0	13.3	100
	Total	45	97.8	100.0	
No response		1	2.2		
Total		46	100.0		

Screening and interviewing potential candidates are common recruitment processes followed by most companies before they hire the best candidate/s. However, Table 2 below indicates that the majority of bouncers (54.3%, n=25) indicated that they were not interviewed before they were employed. Only 45.7% indicated that they were interviewed for the bouncing positions that they held.

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Yes	21	45.7	45.7	45.7
	No	25	54.3	54.3	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

When the managers were asked how they screened and interviewed candidates to find those most suitable for the job, Manager 2 stated that they hired people they knew and they mainly looked at fitness as an employment requirement. He further stated that they conducted interviews before hiring bouncers. He stated:

“We do conduct interviews and there are a set of questions that we ask them. We look at experience because that is important.”

When the interviewer probed and asked about qualifications as a requirement to be a bouncer, Manager 2 replied:

“We do not look at qualifications as a requirement; however, one bouncer has a security certificate and I think the other one picks up and learns from the other.”

Manager 3 stated:

“It’s not just me that is part of the recruitment process. We work together with the owner. So, the owner tells me how many bouncers they are looking for and will go through the CVs. All I do is conduct the interviews.”

Manager 5 stated:

“I hire boys that I know and trust. I have three securities. I do not look for any qualifications or training, I just hire them and tell them what needs to be done.”

Manager 6 stated:

“Bouncers come in here looking for a job and the manager takes down their telephone/contact number and calls them when we have a problem with the bouncers that work here. So that is how they are hired.”

Manager 8 stated:

“I scout for the head of security, which is someone that has experience and references. We headhunt the head of security and when we have found him we move on to find more people that will work with him. We look for people that are similar to the way that he is so that they can easily communicate and control situations.”

5.3 The Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA)

Section 23(1)(c) of the PSIR Act states that security officers must be trained for the positions that they hold. Theletsane (2015) states that it is not clear whether private security officers who work as bouncers and are employed by small companies are adequately trained and whether they have proper and sufficient resources to perform their roles satisfactorily. It seems highly likely that bouncers engage in acts of violence because of inadequate training and limited arrest powers, as they have few recourse options (Mbhele et al., 2020). This was corroborated by the majority of managers of drinking establishments who indicated that they did not consider PSIRA qualifications a necessary requirement before they employed bouncers. When managers were specifically asked about hiring bouncers with PSIRA qualifications, they responded as follows:

Manager 1:

“We outsource a private security company because we hope they will provide us with securities that have a certificate for security and experience.”

Manager 2:

“It is not that PSIRA qualifications are not important for bouncers to have, it is just not something we look for from our bouncers.”

Manager 3:

“We do not need training and qualifications. As long as a person is good at his job that’s all that matters.”

Manager 4:

“We do hire bouncers without PSIRA qualifications but there are certain things they can’t do. For an example, a customer comes with a firearm, I believe when you are qualified you know the basics on how to handle a firearm and how it works, the procedure on how to disarm it, how to store it, things like that. We start off with the basic which is first grade, and then we look at other things the person may present. A grade is serious but not as serious. We need someone with a grade and maybe a certificate based on firearms, but he mostly just needs to know the basics of being a security.”

Manager 5:

“I don’t know if my securities have PSIRA certificates or not. Two of them have worked as securities before. I have a PSIRA certificate and a registered private security company.”

Manager 6:

“No, no qualifications, just their cellphone number. If there is someone who quits we then call those that left their contact details and that is how they start working here. I’m usually here guarding people who may be arguing inside and I usually see the aggressor. I separate them if I can and take one of them outside and ban him from coming inside.”

Manager 7:

“Security officers here need to have certificates. We need certificates such as levels E, D, C, B, A.”

Manager 8:

“No. To be honest, I have never asked for any qualifications from bouncers.”

These results also support the social disorganization theory, which contends that societies without norms consistently flout social conventions and the law. Although some managers have been accused of being aware of the qualifications that bouncers must achieve in order to work as private security officers, they deliberately choose to disregard the norms and the law. Because the drinking establishment is already a disorganized place where the laws and rules are not followed, some management are unaware of the requirements for bouncers. This would not be the case if these areas had effective regulation.

Table three below also indicates that the majority of bouncers (63%; n=29) who participated in this study did not received training from a PSIRA accredited college, which means that they had no private security qualifications. This means that only 34% (n=15) of the bouncers who participated and responded to this item had some level of PSIRA training and qualification. Lack of proper training can hinder the goal of crime prevention and reduction. Section 23(1)(c) of the PSIR Act No. 56 of 2001 requires that security officers are trained for the positions that

they hold. Relevant training and grade courses need to be completed by private securities depending on their job descriptions. For instance, grades E and D should be completed by a private security officer that performs access control and searches goods or vehicles. In addition, a special event course should be completed by security officers who serve at events (Mbhele et al., 2020).

Table 3: PSIRA grades that can be obtained by bouncers (n=46)					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Grade A	1	2.2	2.3	2.3
	Grade B	1	2.2	2.3	4.5
	Grade C	6	13.0	13.6	18.2
	Grade D	1	2.2	2.3	20.5
	Grade E	5	10.9	11.4	31.8
	None	29	63.0	65.9	97.7
	Other	1	2.2	2.3	100.0
	Sub-Total	44	95.7	100.0	
No response		2	4.3		
Total		46	100.0		

The PSIRA enforcement officer also confirmed that training and qualification accumulation was a major challenge in the bouncing industry. Below is the response from the enforcement officer:

“One, most of the bouncers are not trained. Secondly, as they are not trained, they are not registered as security service providers, which automatically suggests that most of them are operating illegally; hence, I have just highlighted that they are neither trained nor registered as security service providers in terms of the PSIR Act. Another challenge is that most of them are foreign nationals, and the PSIR Act does not allow foreign nationals to be registered as security service providers. Some of them do not have legal citizenship.”

Section 23(1)(a) of the Act states:

“Any natural person applying for registration, may be registered as a security service provider if the applicant is a fit and proper person to render a security service, and is a citizen of or has permanent resident status in South Africa”.

However, when it comes to the employment of foreign nationals, this study found that a majority of participants (91,3%, n=42) were South African citizens, and only 8.7% (n=4) were non-South Africans, as shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Nationalities of bouncers in the study area					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	South African	42	91.3	91.3	91.3
	Non-South African	4	8.7	8.7	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

As a majority of the bouncers indicated that they were not registered with PSIRA, it was imperative to understand if they knew about the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority. It was possible that some bouncers and owners/managers of the drinking establishments were unaware of PSIRA rules and regulations, hence they failed to comply with them. Only two managers that were interviewed knew about PSIRA when asked what they could tell about this oversight body. Six other managers reported that they knew nothing about it, while some stated they had only heard about PSIRA but did not know what the role of this body was.

In response to the question about his knowledge of PSIRA, Manager 7 stated:

“I know PSIRA. Just as I was saying, the owner of the establishment has been using PSIRA for a long time because he is registered. People that do not follow PSIRA’s laws are known as ‘fly by nights’; for instance, if I am used to the owner I could provide him with boys that want to work and they would not follow up if they are qualified to be securities or not, but if it is a company that is registered and is run by a professional, they make sure that that they follow PSIRA laws.”

Manager 6 responded to the same question as follows:

“No, I’ve never attended such things. The owner and I would just guard the whole place ourselves. If anyone is causing problems, we take them outside and not allow him back in. Security is not something I studied.”

Table 5 below indicates that 60.9% (n=28) of the bouncers responded that they knew about PSIRA even though a majority of 63% earlier indicated that they did not have any PSIRA accredited qualification. These results imply that the majority of bouncers chose not to pursue and obtain PSIRA qualifications and registration as private securities. The bouncing industry therefore in the study area therefore seemed to openly allow the employment of unqualified and illegal bouncers. The nature of the responses also suggest that ignoring the law by employing illegitimate bouncers was deliberate. The reason could be that qualified and registered bouncers may demand higher wages, whereas unqualified and unregistered bouncers could easily be exploited by paying them lower wages.

Table 5: Participants’ knowledge of PSIRA					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	True	28	60.9	60.9	60.9
	False	18	39.1	39.1	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

Without asking specifics, the researcher also asked the bouncers to indicate the category in which their salaries fell. Table 6 below illustrates the range of monthly income that the bouncers earned monthly. Table 6 shows that the majority of the bouncers (35.6%, n=15) earned between R1 000 and R2 000 a month, while 28.3% (n=13) earned between R2 000 and R3 000 a month.

The hours that the bouncers worked seemed disproportionate compared to their wages. Most bouncers worked from Thursday to Monday, usually from 14h00 to 02h00. Some bouncers worked every day during the night. It was clear that the majority of bouncers earned below the national minimum wage as established by the government. Only 4.3% (n=2) earned in excess of R4 000, and 15.2% (n=7) earned between R3 000 and R4 000. Shockingly, one bouncer earned less than R1 000 a month.

Before 2019, minimum wages were established on a sector-by-sector basis in South Africa through a combination of bargaining council agreements and company level agreements that were negotiated between trade unions and employer organisations. Eventually sectoral determinations were set by the Minister of Labour upon the recommendations of the Employment Conditions Committee. Sectoral determinations target sectors where workers are considered to be vulnerable and/or sectors that are not represented by workers' organisations. The private security industry was one of the sectors that was subjected to this initiative. In January 2019, the South African government implemented a national minimum wage of R20 per hour for workers in this sector in an attempt to reduce inequality and decrease the number of working poor (Piek & von Fintel, 2020).

Table 6: Range of bouncers' salaries					
	Range	Frequency	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage	
Valid	1k and 2k	15	32.6	39.5	39.5
	2k and 3k	13	28.3	34.2	73.7
	3k and 4k	7	15.2	18.4	92.1
	More than 4k	2	4.3	5.3	97.4
	Less than 1k	1	2.2	2.6	100.0
	Total		38	82.6	100.0
Not answered		8	17.4		
Total		46			

It is imperative in the security industry that employers and employees are aware of and apply the PSIRA provisions as stipulated in the PSIR Act. Adhering to these regulations is key to ensuring stability and order, while adherence also serves a regulatory function in the private security industry with the purpose of enforcing compliance. Table 7 below shows that 52.2% (n=24) of the bouncers indicated that they were aware of and had some knowledge of the PSIR Act and its provisions. Conversely, 43.5% (n=20) did not know about the provisions of the PSIR Act.

Table 7: Knowledge of the PSIR Act					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	True	24	52.2	54.5	54.5
	False	20	43.5	45.5	100.0
	Total	44	95.7	100.0	
Not answered		2	4.3		
Total		46	100.0		

Similarly, the majority of the managers in the drinking establishments were not aware of the PSIR Act and its provisions as six out of nine reported that they were unaware of these legal provisions. This finding is disconcerting as the majority of these managers took it upon themselves to employ and manage the securities that they employed without any knowledge of the provisions and principles set by PSIRA and the PSIR Act. One drinking establishment outsourced security services to a fully registered private security company, yet the manager of this drinking establishment was also unaware of the PSIR Act. This was deemed acceptable as this establishment did not manage or employ the securities that were deployed there. Only two managers reported that they were fully aware of the PSIR Act.

In response to a follow-up question if they were aware of the PSIR Act that regulates private security companies and the staff they employ, the managers' responses were as follows:

Manager 8:

"I'm not familiar with PSIRA and its obligations. Honestly, I have never asked if bouncers are registered with a body like PSIRA. I would say it would be wise for them to register. I am not sure how PSIRA works, but in terms of this business and trying to grow in what they are doing because I understand it's their passion... Once you are able to turn something you are passionate about into business you are able to grow in what you do. For them to have registered businesses [is good] because right now they are just working, [but] they should have a central [regulating] company and hire people. ...we work well with them but for them it would grow them in terms of being better businessmen."

Manager 5:

"I am aware that securities need to be registered as private securities."

However, earlier Manager 5 had stated that he did not know if his securities were PSIRA accredited or not, although this time he admitted that he was aware of the provisions of the PSIR Act.

Chapter 3 of the PSIR Act addresses the registration requirement to serve as a security service provider, and this section clearly stipulates and obligates private security companies to be registered. Section 20 (1)(a) of the Act states:

"No person, except a security service contemplated in section 199 of the Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996), may in any manner render a security service for remuneration, reward, a fee or benefit, unless such a person is registered as a security service provider in terms of this Act", where section (20)(2)(a) further stipulates: "A security business may only be registered as a security service provider- (a) if all the persons performing executive or managing functions in respect of such security business are registered as security service providers."

Therefore, being unaware of the PSIR Act results in non-compliance with the law in drinking establishments, and it also results in the employment of unqualified and unregistered private securities.

PSIRA was established in terms of Chapter 2 of the PSIR Act. Section 3 of the PSIR Act states:

“The primary objectives of the Authority are to regulate the private security industry and to exercise effective control over the practice of the occupation of security service providers in the public and national interest and the interest of the private security industry itself.”

This means that PSIRA needs to continuously monitor compliance within the private security industry to ensure that they act in terms of the principles contained in the Constitution, the PSIR Act, and other applicable regulations. However, the study found that PSIRA failed to efficiently monitor the work of bouncers in the study area as the majority of (84.8%, n=39) indicated (see Table 8 below) that they had never witnessed any PSIRA officials visiting their workplace to oversee their services, registration, or qualifications. Only 15.2% (n=7) indicated that they had witnessed officials from PSIRA conducting inspections. The government is also aware of this shortcoming as the former Deputy Minister of Police, Ms. Makhotso Maggie Soty, stated in her 2016 budget speech that PSIRA was not effective enough and that it should “bite harder” against non-compliance (Soty, 2016).

The social disorganization theory contends that the social structures in charge of policing citizen behaviour are ineffective, leading to a breakdown in control. In these chaotic and poorly managed circumstances, this causes antisocial and criminal behaviour to become the norm (Moore, 2009). The results show that PSIRA does a poor job of regulating the bouncer business; as a result, there are unlicensed bouncers working in drinking establishments. Drinking places set their own policies and favourably manage their own bouncers. In the evening, fewer police officers are visible. when there are few or no police officers present at entertainment venues at night, the responsibility for public safety is transferred to bouncers. Bouncers are employed by nightclubs to maintain social control, social organization, and social order in the setting where they work. These bouncers are then required to uphold the nightclub's rules by engaging in social control activities (Bezuidenhout, 2011).

Table 8: Efficacy of PSIRA’s oversight role					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
	True	7	15.2	15.2	15.2
	False	39	84.8	84.8	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

The two PSIRA staff members, namely the enforcement officer and the compliance officer, were asked to elaborate on some of the reasons PSIRA failed to efficiently oversee the conduct of bouncers. The enforcement officer responded by saying:

“It has been a while since we last visited bouncers to oversee their conduct and compliance—maybe five years ago. Because before inspectors would make means to work at night but working at night is a challenge because you must make sure that security is tight and we need full cooperation from the SAPS or the Metro Police. So, it needs a lot of stakeholders and role-players for the operation directed at bouncers. Because another challenge we face is that they are aggressive in nature, so if you don’t have enough manpower it is not easy to deal with them. Most of them are well built so if you are slim, they can be very disrespectful. We need manpower to deal with them... We have had operations at night and last time it came to a point where this issue was raised in a meeting. This issue goes a long way as it’s not only a matter at PSIRA only. We need to work together with the police to make sure that this matter is sorted out. Another challenge that we have is with policing areas. We can negotiate with a station at Durban central, and they will only cover their area as they will not go outside their jurisdiction, like to Berea.”

When asked about their role of overseeing that bouncers comply with the Code and Conduct as set by PSIRA, the compliance officer stated:

“Look, at the end of the day, all these bouncers they are registered to a bouncer’s association. They are registered to a bouncer’s association, then the bouncer’s association police the bouncers themselves. They make sure that the people that are being placed at the different venues are registered and trained and act in a professional manner. What we do, we haven’t done it in a long time. We did at one stage. We were

going around at night. Like for instance in Florida Road, we went to all the clubs...and we actually picked up quite a few of the bouncers that were not registered and we laid criminal charges against them. And I had a meeting with the bouncers' association and they fixed the problem. They basically made an undertaking to say they will ensure that the bouncers they utilise are registered and trained accordingly and act in a professional manner. So, the challenge we have is we do not work at night. We work from basically from 07h30 to 16h00. We had to get consent from the head office to work at night, to do this, to perform this specific function of checking on bouncers. Then we arrange to work with the SAPS. Because these bouncers are very aggressive, so if they are not registered or trained they fight against you, but if they are registered and trained they work with you. So, we take the police with us. This is a backup, so when we interview the people and there's any conflict or violence the police step in and do their job and we do our job. And if people are not registered we arrest them. We detain them at the police station and we lay criminal charges against them. But yeah, so this is basically what we have been doing with the bouncers. It is not an easy thing to police, because these bouncers they do not work at one specific club. If it's a busy night, they can put one bouncer at this pub, and one bouncer at that pub. But they are all in communication with each other. So, if there's a problem at one hotel, these other guys they move across to that hotel and they assist with that problem. So, they don't work at a specific place. So, tonight you can check if the guys are registered, but tomorrow night the other guys work there, and another night another guy is working there. So, you can't go back to do research to make sure that they continuously employ registered and trained people. So, it's not an easy thing to police."

It was noted that the PSIRA staff referred to oversight that occurred only in Durban. The researcher was curious why such initiatives never occurred in other areas, particularly in Pietermaritzburg. The compliance officer responded to his enquiry by saying:

"We have this office here and we work the whole of KwaZulu-Natal. It is challenging but you must understand it's very costly to have this office here. You can't just have an office in Pietermaritzburg, Ladysmith, Newcastle, it's too expensive. It's too expensive to maintain it. Even now we've been trying for three years to put a branch in Empangeni and it's only now that it's coming to finality where they are going get that branch up and running. But it has taken a long time. And we have got to employ the staff and

everything. But we just need the premises now, the lease agreement and whatever, and get the office sorted out in terms of operational conditions. We did an oversight operation once in Margate and we found a lot of problems there. And another operation was here in Florida Road. Oversight of bouncers in KZN is inefficient.”

5.4 Roles and Responsibilities of Bouncers

There are no specific roles and responsibilities for bouncers. However, bouncers are required to operate under the events security and guarding categories (Mbhele et al., 2020). Security officers appointed under the events security and guarding categories are tasked with the following roles and responsibilities;

1. To effect body and/or physical searches at any entry point to a special events venue;
2. To effect close protection duties at an event;
3. To perform part of a security reaction team at a special event; and
4. To form part of a field control or crowd control team at a special event.

Table 9 below shows the main duties that the bouncers were tasked to perform in their respective drinking establishments. The majority of the bouncers (41.3%, n=19) indicated that their primary duties were to keep the patrons safe, while 23.9% (n=11) of the bouncers indicated that they were tasked with protecting the properties of the nightclub. Similarly, 23.9% (n=11) indicated that they were tasked with protecting the property and also keeping patrons safe. Only one bouncer (2.2%) indicated that he was tasked to discipline rowdy and misbehaving patrons. The manner that was adopted to discipline misbehaving patrons was not clear.

Table 9: The primary roles of bouncers					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Protect the property of the nightclub	11	23.9	23.9	23.9
	Keep patrons safe	19	41.3	41.3	65.2
	Discipline misbehaving patrons	1	2.2	2.2	67.4
	Protect the property and keep patrons safe	11	23.9	23.9	91.3
	Protect the property and discipline misbehaving patrons	1	2.2	2.2	93.5
	All of the above	3	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

The managers of the drinking establishments were also asked to comment on the roles and responsibilities that they expected their bouncers to perform, and below are the responses that they provided.

Manager 1:

“It is safety. Customers’ safety, the staff’s safety, and the boss’s safety.”

Manager 2:

“Their role is to make sure of the safety of this place, safety of the customers. Everyone in here must be safe at all times.”

Manager 3:

“They must be always on guard and must patrol. They must be approachable and not aggressive towards the customers and they should check what customers are doing, especially in the rest rooms. Things like that.”

Manager 4:

“First and foremost is to ensure the safety of customers, safety of the staff, and assisting in enforcing discipline just as I have said, but not aggressively. But instead you call the customer and talk to them in a civil manner regarding their behaviour and guide them if they are misbehaving.”

Manager 6:

“Their job is to search customers and not to allow alcohol bought elsewhere inside. They also assist when there is a problem with customers fighting. They take them outside and they are then banned from coming back inside.”

Manager 7:

“They have different tasks. Security staff makes sure that customers are searched. There is a searching point where they make sure that weapons and alcohol don't make it inside and they have to make sure that customers' cars are parked outside are safe. When it comes to bouncers, they make sure people are safe inside even though searches are done. We have to keep a close eye on what is going on, and if we see something going on, we approach that specific person and speak to him aside and we search him ourselves. But when it comes to bouncers, they guard that customers are safe inside. A man can't just come and harass women here. These are the things we control inside.”

Only a few managers agreed that the main duty of bouncers was to ensure safety and security for the benefit of patrons. This finding concurs with the bouncers' responses as the majority stated that they were tasked to ensure the safety of patrons and the property of the drinking establishments where they worked. One manager emphasised that disciplining misbehaving patrons was necessary, but that it should be enforced in a manner that was not aggressive.

5.5 Safety and security in drinking establishments

The excerpts above confirm that the bouncers and managers prioritised the safety and security of the patrons and that of the property of the drinking establishments. A number of scholars have confirmed that drinking establishments are spaces that are unsafe (Lindsay, 2006; Casswell, Zhang & Wyllie, 1993; Graham, Bernards, Osgood & Wells, 2006; van Liempt & van Aalst, 2016; Geoffron et al., 2015). This is the reason that the presence of private security officers is paramount. Their presence should prevent violence and promote safety, protection, peace, and order. It is important to understand that the presence of bouncers does help to promote safety and security in drinking establishments. The study therefore determined if the patrons felt safe in the drinking establishments that were selected, and the results are presented in Table 10.

The study found that 90% (n=36) of the patrons in the selected drinking establishments felt safe, while only 10% (n=4) felt that they are not safe. These results suggest that the bouncers in these spaces fulfilled their duty by maintaining safety and security to a large extent. This finding contradicts the popular perception that drinking establishments are spaces that are not safe.

Table 10: Do patrons feeling safe in drinking the establishments?

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Yes	36	90.0	90.0	90.0
	No	4	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

The researcher further asked the participants the reason that made them feel safe and the table below presents the findings. It is shown that the majority (55%, n=22) of the patrons indicated that they felt safe because of the environment in which the drinking establishment existed, while 25% (n=10) further indicated that the reason they felt safe was because of the presence of bouncers. A few respondents (17.5%, n=7) stated that it was because of other patrons and

2.5% (n=1) indicated that it was the bar staff that made him feel secure. This study found that, as much as bouncers are key in ensuring safety and security at drinking establishments, it is the environment that mostly determines how safe patrons feel.

Table 11: Patrons' reasons for feeling safe or not in the drinking establishments					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Patrons	7	17.5	17.5	17.5
	Bar staff	1	2.5	2.5	20.0
	Bouncers	10	25.0	25.0	45.0
	The environment	22	55.0	55.0	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

In addition to understanding if patrons felt safe in drinking establishments, the researcher also asked the patrons if they had ever witnessed violence and aggression at or in these establishments. The table below presents the results. The majority (62.5%, n=25) had never witnessed violence in the drinking establishment that they frequented, while only 32.5% (n=13) indicated that they had witnessed violence. Because the patrons had been selected from different drinking establishments, it is pertinent to differentiate between the drinking establishments that the patrons visited. It could be that the patrons who had witnessed violence had attended the same drinking establishment/s or frequented establishments that shared similar characteristics. Graham et al. (2006) argue that violence in drinking establishments is linked to multiple factors, and one of these factors is the environment. The majority of the drinking establishments where patrons had witnessed violence was located in a township, while those that were relatively violence free were located in the Pietermaritzburg CBD. However, the researcher noted that the drinking establishments located in the CBD where violence had occurred are very popular and consequently, they become congested, which could have been the cause of the violence the patrons had witnessed.

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Yes	13	32.5	33.3	33.3
	No	25	62.5	64.1	97.4
	Total	39	97.5	100.0	
Not answered	99	2	2.5		
Total		40	100.0		

The management of the drinking establishments were asked how common violence was in these establishments. They did admit that violence was inevitable in drinking establishments but agreed that it did not commonly occur. Below are some of their responses:

Manager 1:

“Violence is not common here because of the tight and well-known securities and they are well equipped.”

It is noteworthy that Manager 1’s drinking establishment outsourced a prestigious private security company that is known for its well-equipped and trained security officers. The private security company does not specialise in bouncers specifically, but in private security services in general. No patron from this drinking establishment reported to have witnessed violence and thus the presence of the private security company seemed to be efficient in hindering violence and other criminal acts.

Manager 2:

“Yes, violence happens. You know how it is in clubs, but it is not that common. We handle violence between two people fighting by taking the one that’s more aggressive outside and banning him and letting the other one remain.”

Manager 3:

“Violence is not that common. I would give it a 3 out of 10, because we have rules that we need customers to abide by, such as weapons are not allowed so we can have peace. Bouncers that are outside need to search for weapons. We have two bouncers inside and two by the door. You find that when people are drunk or tipsy, they want to use the weapon that they brought in, maybe a knife on someone they are arguing with. But this is not easy when they don’t have weapons. It happens sometimes when people are fighting and the bouncers come and separate them. The instigator is then taken outside. We encourage them to speak to them first before anything else; then, if they continue to argue, you can kick them out.”

Manager 4:

“Yes, we do. Not to a large extent, but we do. We are aware of the usual culprits. They come back the next day to apologize but by then we already know who they are. So, when they are coming in, we speak to them about the previous encounter and how they are a nuisance. It also depends on how they start their aggressive behaviour; maybe by disrupting other customers and we get a complaint, we call them aside and give them a second warning. If it escalates to a third warning, this means they are failing to cooperate with us, therefore you have to leave this club. Fortunately, it has never been to a point whereby the police got involved or they have to remove someone from the premises, so we have managed to handle this. So, on a scale of 1 to 10, I would give it a 4 because the fights that occur are never that serious. Its maybe just pushing, shoving, and maybe a slap.”

Manager 6:

“It happens sometimes. You find that maybe if a customer knows me they will report a violent bouncer to me. Maybe he wanted to enter with alcohol from elsewhere and then I would have to advise that customer that I can’t do anything because I didn’t hire these bouncers, but the Chinese people did. So, you can’t enter with alcohol from elsewhere just because you know me. These are some of the things that happen. It has happened that a customer came here with three cans, and he tried to explain to the bouncers that he didn’t come here to drink, he just came to buy. But they could not allow this because it is not allowed. There is a basket that is by the door, that’s where they keep the alcohol

for the customers so they can take it when they leave. If a drunk customer wants to enter the club forcefully, we just ban them instead of fighting them. They respect me since I'm older so I just reprimand them for being violent because there is no reason to fight. Even when someone has started a fight inside, I always say, 'Don't allow them inside again!' because chances are they will be disruptive again. A customer stabbed someone in the head with a bottle, and when the bouncer came to escort him outside, he stabbed the bouncer in his hand with the same bottle and then the bouncer retaliated."

Manager 7:

"There is none. Just like I said, this is a premium lounge, not a tavern. Certain people come here. First, the alcohol sold here is expensive; the cheapest beer/cider bottle is R27, so people that drink a quart don't drink here and those are the ones that fight. People that drink here are from departments, police officers, nurses, doctors, lawyers, and politicians. In fact, the owner is a politician. Not everyone comes here. University students come here with someone who is financially stable. It's not common, but it does happen that, sometimes when you are educated...there was a guy here, he was a psychologist. The first day he came here he sat on the steps and that is not allowed and there is a dress code, you can't sleep here so if you are feeling sleepy you have to leave. So, I had to remove him from the steps, and he goes to the counter and touches bottles that are on the display. I take him outside. And then the following week, I don't recall what he did, but I had to escort him outside because people think that bouncers are here to assault people but we are here for the safety of customers. The following week, I don't recall what he did, but I had to escort him outside again. He didn't come by for about 3 months and when he eventually did I was by the VIP door. He was entering through the main door and he came straight to me and said, 'Hey man, I'm sure you were bored, you weren't kicking out anyone!' And so I laughed. This just shows you that this person was educated. Even when he was drunk he knew I was the one that had taken him outside. What I am trying to say is that it doesn't get violent to a point where people fight; it's just that one disruptive person."

Manager 8:

“No, we have never had a problem...as you can see, this place is not that big so we have had almost five bouncers inside due to what we have experienced in the past two years. Six months ago we had to cut off bouncers because there was not much happening. Instead, we added securities and guards outside for customers’ cars. We have three bouncers inside because nothing ever happens.”

5.6 The Importance of Masculinity and Physique

Masculinity requires extreme and unique physical build, hence its cannot be regarded as universal. Masculinity is a social construct with its foundation in biological factors that are predominantly male orientated (Winlow, 2001). A muscular physique is greatly desired by most men of all social classes. However, it is believed that it is men from the lower socio-economic backgrounds that have a more serious desire to enhance the size of their bodies (Winlow, 2001). This may explain why the majority of bouncers are passionate bodybuilders. As referred to earlier, bouncers do not get paid much for the work they do, and the majority earn less than the allowed minimum wage. This forces them to belong to the lower socio-economic class. According to Monaghan (2002), masculinity and male gendered dominance are relevant in drinking establishments. However, it is not only men that can desire a masculine body as, according to Whitehead (1999, cited in Monaghan, 2002), some women also have the capability and desire to attain a muscular body because female body building is also a concept of beauty and desirability that is constructed by society.

The existence of masculinity also represents aggression. Masculinity conveys to patrons/customers that the area is intolerant of boisterous behavior. Bouncers are supposed to control belligerent clients when necessary because drinking establishments can often be chaotic and disorderly places. One method bouncers employ to keep things calm and orderly is through aggression. Bouncers feel frustrated when customers act inappropriately or disregard the regulations of the establishment. According to the frustration-aggression theory, if the behavior persists persistently, bouncers will respond aggressively. In order to try and regulate customers

and enforce the regulations of the establishments, it is crucial for drinking facilities to employ bouncers who are muscular in appearance.

The study therefore asked questions regarding masculinity and male dominance in the bouncing industry. First, the bouncers were asked what was required to be considered a good bouncer. The findings are presented in Table 13.

Table 13: Requirements to be considered a good bouncer					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	I just need to be masculine	12	26.1	26.1	26.1
	I need to be a good fighter	4	8.7	8.7	34.8
	I need to be friendly	15	32.6	32.6	67.4
	I need to be calm in violent and aggressive situations and not harm anyone	11	23.9	23.9	91.3
	I need to be masculine and friendly with patrons	1	2.2	2.2	93.5
	I need to be masculine, a good fighter, and friendly with patrons	2	4.3	4.3	97.8
	I need to be masculine, friendly, and calm	1	2.2	2.2	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

The respondents were provided with a number of options and they had to choose only one answer that they perceived to be most correct. The majority of the bouncers (32.6%, n=15) responded that to be a good bouncer one needed to be a friendly person. The second option (26.1%, n=12) that was selected was that masculinity was important to be a good bouncer. Also, 23.9% (n=11) indicated that being calm in violent and aggressive situations and not harming anyone were what made a good bouncer. There were also bouncers (8.7%, N=4) who believed that being a good fighter was what made a good bouncer. When the findings were combined, the majority (56.5%, n=26) of the bouncers did not believe that masculinity and knowing how to fight were required to be a good bouncer when compared with other options.

The managers of the drinking establishments were also asked to discuss their views on the importance of masculinity and physique, and the majority promoted masculinity and physically fit bouncers. Below are what the managers had to say regarding the masculinity of bouncers:

Manager 1:

“The company that recruits them may look at their physical fitness and masculinity. They always bring securities that are fit. But we also encourage physical fitness. They should also look presentable.”

Manager 2:

“I encourage bouncers to be masculine and physically fit. I have never had an unfit bouncer since I started working, just like I said. They would have to balance the two. In places like these, townships, it’s best to have experience other than qualifications. Yes, when I say experience, I mean fitness as well. Just like I said, in townships, at times, there are people that you don’t have to talk to too much. People with qualifications are ordinary, it’s just paper. But in the township, here it’s not the same. Not that you would necessarily use your strength, but people need to see that there is a bouncer here. If I do something wrong, the bouncer will kick me out and I won’t be able to argue with him or fight him. If I were a bouncer with my stature, they wouldn’t take me seriously. Let’s say I’m a bouncer and I come to you when you are tipsy and I tell you that you are not allowed to sleep here, then you will try to argue and say no. But when another bouncer comes to tell you the same thing and suggests that you go outside for some air, you will comply with him and not me. So, it’s situations like these.”

Manager 3:

“I encourage bouncers to be physically fit and masculine because a sense of presence is important in this job so that customers will think twice before doing things that are not allowed in here. Even if they are customers, they need to be afraid of the person they see. Being physically fit is important.”

Manager 4:

“We encourage bouncers to be fit, maybe when there is a customer that needs to be carried because they were asleep or they slipped and fell, then physical fitness comes in handy. But it is not something we are adamant about. We don't focus on intimidating customers with physically fit bouncers.”

The researcher prompted further and asked: *“If someone who is not physically fit, who is slim in size, walked in right now and asked for a job, would you hire that person?”*

Manager 4:

“They must not be too slim (laughing), but his body must be in shape for this type of job. We have an employee who looks slim but with his clothes off you can tell that he is fit. We don't look for tall, buff, men because what I've seen is that these types of bouncers are slow. The bigger they are, the slower they are and they also have physical challenges so we don't want people who are too buff.”

Manager 7:

“It is important for a bouncer to be physically fit and intelligent. Just as I have been saying, the way you approach customers is very important. It doesn't mean you should aggressively approach people just because you are a bouncer. Even if they are wrong their job is to protect customers. Let's say you assault a guy and I reprimand you guys, then I call you and speak to you, some will boast, but there has never been an incident where a customer fought with a bouncer. All in all, it is about customers' safety.”

Manager 8:

“For me, masculinity and physique are not really important. Someone of my stature can be a bouncer and someone of your stature can be a bouncer, as long as the person is aware and smart because I do not think things can get to a point where people fight before addressing the issue. Sometimes a bouncer can spark an aggressive situation just because they want to prove that they are not scared of the next person, and then it gets to a point where guns are drawn. So, I do not encourage fitness, but the bouncers here are fit. But it is not the first thing I look for. I think it’s about their mindset first; how they reason other than anything else.”

In addition, the bouncers were asked if being physically fit and strong was very important. Table 14 below captures their responses. The majority of the bouncers (89.1%, n=41) reported that being physically fit and strong was indeed important in their line of work, and only 10.9% (n=5) indicated that it was not important. This finding contradicts the finding that was presented in Table 13, which indicated that most bouncers did not believe that masculinity was required to be a good bouncer compared to other characteristics. The finding that is presented in Table 14 also concurs with what the majority of the managers stated, which was that being a bouncer that was muscular and physically fit was important in this industry.

Table 14: The need for bouncers to appear physically fit and strong					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	True	41	89.1	89.1	89.1
	False	5	10.9	10.9	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

Table 15 below further shows that the majority of bouncers indicated that they were expected by their employers/managers to maintain their muscular bodies and their physically fitness appearance, which concurs with the sentiment that the managers/employers expressed. Most (60.9%, n=28) of the bouncers stated that it was required by their employers to stay physically fit and masculine, whereas 39,1% (n=18) stated that they were not required by their bouncers to stay physically fit and masculine.

Table 15: Employers demand that bouncers should to stay fit and appear masculine					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	True	28	60.9	60.9	60.9
	False	18	39.1	39.1	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

Similarly, Table 16 below also shows that, in terms of masculinity and physical appearance, the majority of the bouncers (76.1%, n=35) indicated that if they had not been physically fit the drinking establishment would not have employed them. According to Hobbs et al. (2000), in this ambiguously staged context bouncers themselves assume their own occupational culture and informal habits. In a difficult and chaotic workplace, this ‘door culture’ emerged as a tactic for economic and personal survival, control, and dominance. According to Loader (2000), localized systems of law enforcement have changed as night-time economies have evolved.

Table 16: You will not be employed unless you are fit					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	True	35	76.1	76.1	76.1
	False	11	23.9	23.9	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

The state relinquishes and transfers many of its police responsibilities to bouncers once the day has given way to night. As discussed earlier, due to social disorganisation, bouncers are responsible for integrating late-night revellers into the rules and procedures of this market in the absence of public police personnel. Bouncers are given a lot of leeway in this particular context of "policing beyond government" (Loader, 2000: 321) when it comes to enforcing economically appropriate behaviour and rules rather than those that are ethically or legally acceptable. Research has discovered that bouncers form strong occupational subcultures and create their own informal and situational expedient techniques within this uncertain performed

environment. It is also generally accepted that the bouncing industry is male dominated, and that this is associated with “the masculine perspective that is embedded in the industry which rejects women as active members of the bouncing industry” (Monaghan, 2002: 343).

The theme below is going to present and discuss findings relating to male dominance and lack of female participants within the bouncing industry.

5.7 Male Dominance in the Bouncing Industry

According to Monaghan (2002), male gendered dominance and masculinity are important in nightclubs. However, as gender is something that culture constructs, women can practice hegemonic masculinity. Force is an appropriate weapon for the job as bouncers can use it to remove intoxicated customers from nightclubs, manage crowds, and resolve disputes. However, there are restrictions and limitations as, due to their body, speech, body language, facial expressions, and demeanour, male bouncers are able to physically perform their responsibilities because they convey the risk associated with attempts to violate the social norms of various licensed nightclubs (Monaghan, 2002). This is most likely why most participants believed that masculinity and physique were important factors in the industry. The respondents were then asked about male dominance in the drinking establishments, while the managers of drinking establishments were asked if they hired female bouncers. Below are some of their most pertinent responses:

Manager 1:

“We have female bouncers when there are events, but usually we have males. If there is an event, their duties are to search women. Female bouncers are expensive.”

Manager 2:

“We don’t have female bouncers; we have never had a reason to hire a female.”

Manager 3:

“No, we don’t have female bouncers, it’s just males. I don’t know, and it is a challenge because we have certain customers that don’t want to be searched by male bouncers.”

Manager 4:

“No, we don’t, they are rare. Since we need basic qualifications and a lot of experience, a female must have much more qualifications. Female cases tend to differ. We might take that chance and hire her, because there are cases when someone is misbehaving in the female rest rooms and, since we can’t go in, fortunately enough some customers are willing to assist us in getting that person out of the rest room and we can only interject when they are out of the rest room so we can escort them outside. This is the only case that is difficult when it comes to not having any female bouncers, otherwise customers can assist with this situation since we hardly practice violence. If there are any disruptions, customers call bouncers to come and assist.”

Manager 5:

“No, there are no females. I don’t see the need to have female securities because they have security wands. They ask the females to open their bags and they use the wand to sense.”

Manager 6:

“We have never had a female bouncer. No female has ever come here looking for a job. They are important because the bouncers here cannot search women, so legally a female bouncer is needed. I usually see them at other places where they have female bouncers and male bouncers that search customers. I have raised this matter multiple times. I have spoken to them about this as they need to hire a female bouncer to search females but they have never responded and so I leave it. I actually didn’t want to work here anymore but the owner suggested that I carry on because I’m already well known here and people enjoy working with me. I would hire female bouncers because I doubt males would allow a woman to search them. The people that come here were never searched at some point, they just got used to it now. If a woman is physically fit, I would hire her. I don’t have a problem [with that]. “

Manager 7:

“Yes, we do. Just as I said, there is a searching point where there was a female that searched females, but she left so we had to hire a male. We no longer have a female, it’s because we need strength inside. Because when you are escorting someone out, they

can be polite and some can cause a scene so you need to grab them. But our job is to approach them politely and ask to talk to them and tell them, "We do not need you here anymore so please leave we won't grab you aggressively, this is a decent place." Just like I said, only people of high class drink here."

Manager 8:

"No, we don't hire female bouncers. I am not going to lie; I have never even considered it. But it has been raised in a meeting before because women can come in here with certain things because the male bouncers can't search them. I think it would be to do the same thing since they are trying to create balance. The only problem would be when there is a physical interaction, and then it will be a bit difficult for a woman to handle that situation, as much as we don't have situations like that. But I think what I would hire a female bouncer for is to be to try to control things; certain things. [She needs to] come in and make sure that they don't leave with things they didn't come in with or come in with things that are not allowed inside."

In addition to asking the managers about the appointment of females in drinking establishments as bouncers, the male bouncers were asked about beliefs regarding female bouncers, their views on working with female bouncers, and if they thought females would make good bouncers. Table 17 below indicates the bouncers' responses when they were asked if being a bouncer was a man's job only. The findings indicate that 58.7% (n=27) of the bouncers believed that being a bouncer was indeed a man's job, while only 41.3% (n=19) indicated that being a bouncer was not a man's job only. According to Whitehead (1999), today young women make extensive use of night-time entertainment, which has necessitated the use of creative solutions, such as female bouncers, to maintain order and control. In Britain, the Licensing Act of 2003, specifically Section 182, has been successful in promoting the use of women as bouncers, particularly for searching purposes. The results below are consistent with the findings by Dick et al. (2007) as they found that the vast majority of male bouncers did not believe that actual police situations called for the use of female bouncers. Male bouncers assert that female bouncers are primarily useful for checking handbags and keeping an eye on the women's restroom.

Table 17: Being a bouncer is a man's job					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	True	27	58.7	58.7	58.7
	False	19	41.3	41.3	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

Moreover, bouncers were asked if they thought females would *not* make good bouncers, and Table 18 below shows that 50% (n=23) indicated that females would not make good bouncers, while 47.8% (n=22) believed that females would make good bouncers. Although the difference is slight, these findings are consistent with previous findings that indicate that the bouncing industry does not trust female bouncers. This could be because women are not naturally masculine and strong like men and because it is believed that being a bouncer requires these traits. However, Hobbs et al. (2007) believe that women who work as bouncers generally possess the traits of masculinity, a tendency to violence, and aggressiveness. They further state that, even while it appears that women working as bouncers are executing their responsibilities correctly and without incident, they still need to consult their male counterparts about how well they are fulfilling the position of 'violence workers'. Men tend to engage in violence more frequently in places where people drink. The gender of the aggressor is a component that is important in modulating the transition from frustration to violence (Breuer & Elson 2017). The likelihood of someone acting violently toward someone of the same sex as them is higher than it is for someone of the opposite sex. According to frustration-aggression theory, males are also more inclined than girls to act and behave aggressively, which explains why drinking establishments prioritise masculinity.

Table 18: I think females will not make good bouncers					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Yes	23	50.0	51.1	51.1
	No	22	47.8	48.9	100.0
	Total	45	97.8	100.0	
Not answered		1	2.2		
Total		46	100.0		

In conclusion, bouncers were asked if they worked with or were familiar with female bouncers. As indicated in Table 19 below, the study found that a minority (43.5%, n=20) indicated that they had worked with or knew female bouncers, while the majority (56.5%, n=26) had never worked with or knew a female bouncer. It is clear that males continue to dominate the bouncing industry in while women are regarded as unfit to be employed as bouncers. However, various authors argue that nightlife spaces need female bouncers to assist in female-related problems. For example, Hobbs et al. (2002) state that it is important to have gender specialist tasks in nightlife spaces, and that is why they feel that female bouncers are important as that can deal specifically with violent, aggressive women. They may also assist with searching women upon entry, as men indicated that they were prohibited from searching women upon entry to a drinking establishment. If women are not searched, men may use this opportunity to smuggle dangerous weapons into drinking establishments.

Table 19: I have worked with or know female bouncers					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	True	20	43.5	43.5	43.5
	False	26	56.5	56.5	100.0
	Total	46	100.0	100.0	

Next, findings related to the behaviour of patrons in drinking establishments are discussed. The majority of patrons visit drinking establishments to drink alcohol, and studies have shown that alcohol can cause numerous behavioural issues such as aggression, violence, and nuisance (National Health and Medical Research Council, 2001; Lindsay, 2006; Hadfield, 2008; Carlini et al., 2014; Graham et al., 2006). The culture that patrons adhere to in drinking establishments can dictate the culture that bouncers adopt, and vice versa. Up to this point the discourse has detailed findings related to the culture of bouncers, and it is now important to understand the culture of patrons who frequent drinking establishments.

5.8 Patrons' Behaviour in Drinking Establishments

Binge drinking is extremely unsafe and a public health issue because it is linked to violent conduct, risky sexual behaviour, sexual violence, and even fatalities. It is critical to comprehend this behaviour and make accommodations for it when it occurs among club goers. To prevent any harm caused by drunkenness in nightclubs, licensing policies and harm reduction programs must be prioritised (Carlini et al., 2014). The amount of alcohol an individual consumes can affect and change the drinker's behaviour and cause him/her to act out of character. The researcher asked the patrons to identify the number of drinks they were most likely to drink per night in a drinking establishment. Most (30%, n=12) indicated that they consumed only 6 alcoholic beverages per night, while 20% indicated that they consumed as many as 12 alcoholic beverages a night. More (27.5%, n=11) consumed 18 alcoholic beverages per night. These findings show that the majority of patrons consumed a high number of alcoholic beverages per night.

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	6 pack	12	30.0	30.0	30.0
	12 pack	8	20.0	20.0	50.0
	18 pack	11	27.5	27.5	77.5
	Other	9	22.5	22.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

When the patrons were asked if they found it hard to behave when they were intoxicated, some admitted that they misbehaved due to a high consumption of alcoholic beverages. Table 21 shows that 22.5% (n=9) indicated that they found it challenging to behave when intoxicated, while the majority (77.5%, n=31) indicated that they did not find it challenging to behave when intoxicated.

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Yes	9	22.5	22.5	22.5
	No	31	77.5	77.5	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

The patrons were also asked how they reacted when they were intoxicated. Table 22 below shows that 70% (n=28) indicated that they stopped drinking alcohol and left the establishment, while 12.5% (n=5) indicated that they took a break to lessen their intoxication and continued later when they felt less intoxicated. Only 10% (n=4) indicated that they did not stop drinking but continued, and only 2.5% (n=1) indicated that he did not feel like he had had enough even when he had become heavily intoxicated.

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Quit drinking and go to sleep	28	70.0	73.7	73.7
	Have a break and continue later	5	12.5	13.2	86.8
	Continue drinking	4	10.0	10.5	97.4
	Never feel like having had enough drinks	1	2.5	2.6	100.0
	Total	38	95.0	100.0	

Not answered		2	5.0		
Total		40	100.0		

The patrons were also asked to state if they had ever engaged in aggressive or violent situations that they had caused. Table 23 below shows that only 5% (n=2) stated that they had, while the majority (95%, n=38) stated that they had not.

Table 23: I caused an aggressive or violent altercation with a bouncer					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Yes	2	5.0	5.0	5.0
	No	38	95.0	95.0	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

The patrons were also asked if any of their friends had instigated violent and aggressive behaviour with bouncers. Table 24 below indicates that 20% (n=8) of the participants had witness a friends being aggressive and violent towards a bouncer, whereas 80% (n=32) indicated that they had never witnessed a friend engaging in violent and aggressive behaviour involving a bouncer.

Table 24: I have friends who caused violent altercations with bouncers					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Yes	8	20.0	20.0	20.0
	No	32	80.0	80.0	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

When the patrons were asked about being involved in nightclub fights, Table 25 below shows that 20% (n=8) had been involved in nightclub fights and 80% (n=32) had never been involved in a fight in a nightclub.

Table 25: Patrons' involvement in nightclub fights					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Yes	8	20.0	20.0	20.0
	No	32	80.0	80.0	100.0
	Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Finally, the patrons were asked how they reacted when confronted by a bouncer while they were intoxicated. Table 26 below indicates that 50% (n=20) obeyed the bouncer's instructions, 7.5% (n=3) reacted aggressively or violently, 35% (n=14) indicated that they remained calm, and only 5% (n=2) indicated that they didn't remember as they had been too intoxicated.

Table 26: Nature of reaction when confronted by a bouncer while intoxicated					
		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Adhere to the bouncer's instructions	20	50.0	51.3	51.3
	React aggressively or violently	3	7.5	7.7	59.0
	Stay calm	14	35.0	35.9	94.9
	Usually don't remember due to intoxication	2	5.0	5.1	100.0
	Total	39	97.5	100.0	
Not answered		1	2.5		
Total		40	100.0		

Even though the findings above show that some aggressiveness and violent tendencies were exhibited by the patrons, it was not rife and can therefore not be considered a culture or a norm. Earlier, it was indicated that the majority of patrons felt safe in the drinking establishments, while the managers stated that violence and aggression were not common in these spaces. Although bouncers were persistently encouraged to appear masculine and fit, it seems that violence in these drinking establishments was not a major issue. According to the victim precipitation theory, patrons in drinking establishments precipitate their own victimisation of aggression and violence through high intoxication and rowdy behaviour. Sometime victims (patrons) become the first to use physical force or insinuating language or gestures against the attacker (bouncers). However, the findings of the study only shows that a few patrons engage in behaviour that could precipitate victimisation such as being non-compliance to the instructions of bouncers, reacting aggressively or violently when confronted, or failing to behave appropriately when highly intoxicated.

5.9 Conclusion

The findings were thematically analysed and presented for the qualitative data. Themes were extracted for the qualitative data qualitative and quantitative data and analysed simultaneously for both sets of data. In addition, the findings were discussed under main themes, and each main theme was divided into sub-themes. The themes and sub-themes were guided by the study objectives and research questions, hence the objectives/research questions and themes were aligned.

The first theme explored the employment of private securities in drinking establishments. The discourse unpicked the role of managers/owners in selecting and appointing bouncers and determined if they understood and complied with the law. The procurement strategies that were used to employ bouncers, the requirements to qualify, and the interviewing process were highlighted. The managers' awareness and compliance with the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority's (PSIRA) provisions and rules were also discussed. The role of PSIRA in guiding the managers/owners to uphold its provisions and rules was taken under the loop, and the compliance status of bouncers in terms of the provisions of the PSIR Act and the requirements to register with PSIRA as a qualified private security employee were highlighted. The roles and responsibilities of bouncers in the drinking establishments were also highlighted

as a theme, while bouncers' understanding of their role and how the drinking establishments expected them to fulfil these roles were explored. Other themes that were discussed were safety and security in drinking establishments, the importance of masculinity and physique, male dominance in the bouncing industry, and patrons' behaviour in and their perceptions of violence in drinking establishments.

CHAPTER SIX: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is the final chapter of this thesis, and its purpose is to highlight and summarise the key findings of the study. First, the main findings will be related to the relevant objectives to demonstrate that the objectives of the study were achieved. In addition, recommendations based on the findings will be offered to key stakeholders, namely PSIRA, private security companies, private security personnel/bouncers, and the managers/owners of drinking establishments. A summary of the entire thesis will conclude the thesis.

6.2 Summary of the Key Findings

6.2.1 Objective one: Compliance by private security service providers with PSIR Act provisions

Compliance with the law by enterprises in the private security industry (PSI) has always been an issue globally, with South Africa being no exception. This research explored the extent of the private security industry's legal compliance in drinking establishments, with particular reference to the Private Security Industry Regulatory Act of 2001.

The study found that only two (02) out of nine (09) drinking establishment managers/owners outsourced this service to legitimate private security companies. These companies provided suitably qualified private security personnel as required by the PSIR Act. However, the majority of the drinking establishments did not outsource their need for private security officers to such registered companies. Instead, they took full control for the recruitment of bouncers and employed staff who were neither suitably trained nor registered. The law demands that companies that employ private security personnel be registered with PSIRA and that the businesses themselves are also registered. This means that all staff members who work as private security personnel and all persons who perform executive and managerial functions in drinking establishments should be registered with PSIRA. However, some of the managers of the drinking establishments admitted that they were not even aware of PSIRA and the obligations as required by this oversight body that should regulate the duties of any private

security personnel who are employed in these establishments. The two PSIRA staff members affirmed that non-compliance in the bouncing industry was a major issue that needed to be resolved.

6.2.2 Objective two: Meeting PSIRA requirements by security personnel

The functioning and operations of security personnel who are employed by drinking establishments should be guided by PSIRA principles and obligations. Chapter 3 of the PSIR Act specifies that any person who applies for registration as a security service provider must be, amongst other requirements, a South African citizen, must have permanent residency status in South Africa, must be over the age of 18 years, must comply with all training requirements as prescribed for registration as a security service provider, must have no criminal record, and must not have been found guilty of violating the PSIR Act. In terms of nationality, the study found that the majority of bouncers were South African citizens, but a few were non-South African citizens and were therefore illegally employed.

The study also found that the industry was non-compliant with the law in a number of other aspects. The majority of bouncers who participated in this study were not suitably qualified to hold their positions as they held no training or accredited certificates and were not registered with the Private Security Industry Regulation Authority (PSIRA). This means that the majority of the bouncers who were employed by the drinking establishments were not accredited and registered as private security officers. As was mentioned above, only two drinking establishments employed registered bouncers as they were members of outsourced security companies that were officially registered.

The prevalence of non-compliance is legally problematic because it means bouncers should not be at the door searching people and enforcing the law because they are no different from ordinary citizens and have no authority other than that imposed upon them by management to perform such duties. It was also disturbing to find that the majority of managers and bouncers were not aware of the PSIRA principles and obligations. It is dangerous to occupy a position when you are not aware of the principles and obligations that guide the manner in which you should legally carry out your duties, particularly when you are dealing with citizens who know the law. Ignorance of this nature could lead to serious and even life-threatening problems.

6.2.3 Objective three: Recruitment criteria for bouncers

Most professions usually have strict recruitment criteria to ensure that they employ the best candidates for the positions available in the enterprise. This is particularly true in the security industry where security companies are compelled by law to employ qualified security officers who meet all legal requirements. However, as the managers/owners of most drinking establishments under study took it upon themselves to employ bouncers, they did not ensure professional standards and did not apply appropriate recruitment criteria. It was noted that the recruitment criteria were subjective and based on the recruiting agents' (i.e., the managers'/owners') discretion of who they regarded to be the best candidates.

Most if the managers who were responsible for the recruitment of bouncers made it clear that qualifications and PSIRA requirements were not on their list of priorities. Some managers were not even aware of the obligations and provisions as issued by PSIRA as the oversight body of private security companies and private security personnel. Only two drinking establishments outsourced this duty to private security companies, which means they were not responsible for the recruitment and employment of the bouncers who worked on their premises. An important attribute of bouncers that was deemed key in the bouncing industry was their physical, muscular appearance and intimidating demeanour. This finding emerged from the fact that the majority of managers and bouncers stated that being physically fit was the most important attribute of a bouncer. In fact, a muscular physical appearance was deemed even more important than a security qualification and training rating by the majority of managers and bouncers.

6.2.4 Objective four: Patrons' safety and their behaviour in drinking establishments

The findings suggest that the majority of patrons who frequented drinking establishments in the study area behaved well and did not engage in conflicts with security staff. Both patrons and bouncers indicated that only a few incidences of violence and aggression had occurred in the drinking establishments under study. It was also found that there was a clear tendency among patrons to engage in excessive alcohol consumption, but the majority of the respondents reported minimal misbehaviour when patrons were intoxicated. An overwhelming percentage of patrons stated that they felt safe in these drinking establishments because of a safe

environment and the presence of bouncers. An instance was reported when patrons were approached by a bouncer who instructed them to behave, and the patrons stated that they had complied and remained calm.

The drinking establishment managers also mentioned that there was usually no violence or incidences of uncontrolled aggression in their drinking establishments. They all agreed that, if a patron misbehaved, the bouncers would ask them to leave the establishment and that it would be the end of the matter. There were also no reports of brutal incidences of violence and aggression.

6.2.5 Objective five: PSIRA's success in enforcing compliance in drinking establishments

It was found that PSIRA, as the oversight body, did the bare minimum to enforce the law and regulate the bouncing industry in the drinking establishments under study. The PSIRA staff themselves reported that they rarely conducted oversight visits to check compliance and enforce regulations due to various factors such as inadequate staff numbers and a lack of security support for staff. The PSIRA representatives admitted that they relied on the assistance by the SAPS to conduct oversight visits and that the police provided them with manpower and protection. However, it was evident that, as SAPS support had diminished over time, PSIRA was no longer effective in its oversight duty. Another challenge that was highlighted by the PSIRA representatives was that bouncers worked at night and that it was therefore impossible to conduct oversight inspections as PSIRA staff only works day shifts. This situation is disconcerting as PSIRA seems to abdicate its oversight responsibility due to inadequate employment policies.

The researcher determined that PSIRA has only one office in KwaZulu-Natal which is based in Durban. Thus, the available manpower at this office, which serves the entire province, is highly inadequate which is a challenge that PSIRA has seemingly been unable to address and resolve. There is no PSIRA office in Pietermaritzburg, which is a relatively large metropolitan area. It is therefore an insurmountable challenge for PSIRA to conduct oversight visits in Pietermaritzburg because staff will have to travel from Durban to Pietermaritzburg where they will have to liaise with SAPS officers who function in a different jurisdiction than the one from

where they come. This is also the case in the many towns situated in KwaZulu-Natal where informal drinking establishments have mushroomed. It is quite obvious that PSIRA is understaffed and under resourced and that it will never efficiently regulate the bouncing industry unless a serious change occurs. The result of this body's inefficiency is that neither drinking establishment managers/owners nor bouncers comply with the law because there is no one that regulates them or enforces the law.

6.3 Recommendations

6.3.1 Private security personnel/bouncers

6.3.1.1 Obtaining a relevant qualification from a registered college

It is imperative that bouncers enrol at a training college to obtain an appropriate and graded qualification if they wish to be legally employed as private security officers. The skills and knowledge they acquire at the college will equip them to perform their duties well and professionally. Training will also introduce them to all the relevant and important legislations that regulate their profession and ensure their legitimacy. Training will further introduce them to the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA) that will register them according to law. Obtaining relevant skills and knowledge is important if bouncers are to perform well in their line of duty. Another important factor that should be considered is the issue of the violation of human rights by bouncers in drinking establishments. If they are aware of the law, they will avoid any such violations in the interest of peace and security.

The section on human rights is considered one of the most important chapters in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. Research has shown that bouncers are notorious for violating the rights of patrons and that such misdemeanours and even criminal acts are due to a number of factors. However, the researcher posits that being untrained and misinformed are two factors that will lead to such incidents. The rights of patrons are violated in a number of ways by bouncers, for example when they are searched by unqualified and unregistered bouncers or when they are assaulted in the process of being evicted by similarly unqualified and unregistered bouncers.

Therefore, to function as a private security officer in a drinking establishment, every applicant must have attended college and obtained an appropriate qualification, followed by legal registration.

6.3.1.2 Registering with the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA)

It is a legal obligation that any person who wants to work as a private security officer must register with PSIRA. Without PSIRA registration, no bouncer will be recognised as a legally constituted private security officer in South Africa. It was noted with concern that the majority of the bouncers in this study were not even aware that they were required to register with PSIRA. In fact, they did not even know who or what PSIRA was. The onus is on the oversight body to efficiently regulate and enforce compliance with the law, but many managers and bouncers escape this obligation, and the latter continue their work as private securities even though they are not legally qualified or authorised to do so. Bouncers should be encouraged to register with PSIRA to bolster their careers and assist them in accessing better employment opportunities and other benefits. Being PSIRA registered also protects bouncers from prosecution whenever legal matters threaten their safety and jobs. For instance, if a fight that erupted in a drinking establishment leads to prosecution, the bouncer who is PSIRA accredited will receive legal support and recognition. However, one who is not registered with PSIRA may find him- or herself in really deep waters.

A registered private security officer will obtain a PSIRA card, which should always be in his possession when he is on duty. This card should preferably be visibly displayed to the public. Bouncers should therefore carry their PSIRA cards when on duty as it is illegal to search a person without being in possession of a PSIRA identification card. Therefore, any patron has the right not to allow a private security officer to search him or her unless the guard or bouncer has proper evidence of PSIRA registration.

6.3.2 Recommendations for drinking establishments

6.3.2.1 Outsourcing security services

It is imperative that drinking establishment managers/owners understand that they do not have the authority to directly employ bouncers because drinking establishments are not registered as private security service providers. To become a legal employer of private security personnel (i.e., bouncers), the company must be registered with PSIRA. The study found that the majority of drinking establishments directly employed bouncers ‘off the street’, which means that unqualified and unregistered bouncers were employed. Being unaware of the laws that regulate the private security sector is no excuse for this illegal practice. To avoid legal repercussions, drinking establishment managers/owners should outsource their security requirements to competent, qualified, and registered private security companies and avoid managing bouncer/security personnel themselves.

6.3.2.2 Refuse intoxicated patrons more drinks

Intoxicated patrons can cause major problems for security staff and patrons at a drinking establishment. Alcohol consumption often causes individuals to behave in a rowdy manner if an excessive amount of it has been consumed. It then becomes challenging for security staff to control these intoxicated patrons, and this can lead to threatening situations that can result in injuries and even death. Research has shown that alcohol causes aggression and violence and it is therefore important that drinking establishment managers find ways to avoid and curb such situations by visually monitoring the intoxication levels of patrons. If a patron is highly intoxicated and no longer has control of his actions or faculties, he or she should not be sold any more liquor and should be requested to leave the drinking establishment. If he or she resists, and eviction is required. Drinking establishments are businesses that are profit driven and their income is primarily derived from the sale of alcoholic beverages. This means that some drinking establishments do not mind selling alcohol to patrons even if they have had too much to drink because they deliberately want to boost their profit margins. Unfortunately, this practice endangers the safety and even the lives of patrons—and even the intoxicated drinkers themselves.

6.3.2.3 Employ female security personnel

Female bouncers who work as security personnel in drinking establishments are as important as male bouncers, and it is therefore imperative that drinking establishments employ female bouncers as well. This study found that the majority of drinking establishments did not employ female bouncers, which means that female patrons were not searched upon entry because men are not permitted to do so. It is in the nature of people to exploit this situation to their advantage, and females can for example enter with weapons hidden on their person because they know no one will search them. One manager also indicated that it was a challenge for male bouncers to enter female restrooms when there was a problem, and it was also admitted that it sometimes became a challenge for male bouncers to control and calm female patrons when they became intoxicated and rowdy. These findings affirm the need for female bouncers in drinking establishments.

6.3.3 The Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA)

6.3.3.1 Expand oversight to all regions in KwaZulu-Natal

The private security industry in South Africa is one of the largest and fastest growing industries in this country and is currently larger than the South African Police Service. It is difficult to understand why not enough branches have been established to support the increasing demand for private security companies and the deployment of their personnel. The findings clearly highlight the need for PSIRA to expand to other regions in KwaZulu-Natal as expansion will ensure that the high demand for regulation, law enforcement, and compliance will be met. It was found that PSIRA only operated in the Durban area, and this makes it really complicated for PSIRA to regulate the wide range of businesses in the private security industry, especially drinking establishments where there is a high rate of non-compliance.

6.3.3.2 Strengthen compliance and enforcement oversight

A key requirement that PSIRA needs to meet is to comply with its oversight mandate and to enforce the law to ensure compliance. However, as stated above, this will not occur unless PSIRA expands its capacity and influence to both metropolitan and rural areas. Effective oversight will ensure that the security industry is well regulated, especially in drinking establishments where regulation is lacking. It is the responsibility of the compliance department of this body to ensure that the security industry that operates in drinking establishments is aware of the rules and takes the necessary steps to comply with the rules and regulations governing the occupation of bouncers. The enforcement department endeavours to deal with security service providers that evade compliance and tries to compel them to comply with the law. The effective functioning of this department is vital because its members inspect institutions and, if non-compliance is evident, bring them to book. If their activities are extended to bouncers and drinking establishments, the latter will of necessity choose to comply with the law. However, this department does not currently function effectively (if at all) in the security leg of drinking establishments. Should it expand its operations and enhance its effectiveness, enforced compliance will ensure that bouncers are well regulated, trained, and registered as demanded by law.

Enforcing existing regulatory and legislative frameworks can also create better opportunities for bouncers, such as better salaries and other employment benefits. In a study that was conducted in nightclubs in Durban (Mbhele, 2017), bouncers who were interviewed mentioned that they were paid much less than expected and received no benefits such as health insurance. This was largely due to that fact that many had no training certificate and were not registered as private security officers. Many were also not employed by registered private security companies. It is therefore this study's contention that enforcing the provisions of the PSIR Act will encourage untrained and unregistered bouncers to attend a training college so that they will be able to register with PSIRA which will, in turn, ensure better employment opportunities for them.

The bouncing industry is notorious for dealing with violence and other criminal activities. The Cape Town nightclub security wars that erupted in recent years is a perfect example of this, as security companies battled to gain control in numerous nightclubs in this city in order to sell drugs and engage in other illegal activities (Mail & Guardian, Evans and Mckune, 2012). In 2012, a popular security company that operated in the majority of nightclubs in Cape Town was reported by PSIRA to be operating illegally because it was not licensed. This seems to be a trend in the security niche in this country where many ‘fly by nights’ in this industry lack credibility due to a lack of law enforcement and oversight (Mail & Guardian, evans and Mckune, 2012).

6.3.3.3 Conduct extensive research on the role of bouncers

PSIRA has a research division that conducts empirical studies to gather knowledge and understanding of the private security industry in South Africa. However, no research has been conducted to explore the bouncing industry in South Africa. To fully address the security issues that arise in drinking establishments, PSIRA should conduct research into these matters. The results of such research will enlighten our perspectives on how the bouncing industry functions and how to solve problems that arise from its shortcomings.

6.3.3.4 Encourage equality in the private security industry and in drinking establishments

The bouncing industry is widely known as a male-dominated environment. Most drinking establishment managers/owners and male bouncers do not believe that women can be effective bouncers. This view is discriminatory towards women, and many who wish to enter the industry are not given the opportunity. Furthermore, this stance contravenes the Gender Equality Act No. (39 of 1996) and it is this researcher’s contention that better enforcement of key legislative frameworks that guide drinking establishments will close this gap. The latter Act endorses equal opportunities for people who wish to enter the security field, irrespective of gender and other traditional discriminatory factors.

6.3.4 Additional recommendations for PSIRA

- Provide harsher punishments for non-compliance as this will set an example that will motivate others to adhere to the law.
- Develop a sound working relationship with the SAPS so that its members will willingly assist with the oversight and monitoring of bouncers.
- Educate drinking establishment managers/owners and bouncers on the rules and regulations of PSIRA so that they are aware of the processes and procedures that should be legally adhered to within their space of functioning.

6.4 Conclusion

The discourse alluded consistently to the importance of safety and security in drinking establishments, which is a requirement that is arguably neglected by formal law enforcement agencies. The study findings demonstrated that the private security industry plays a significant role in ensuring and maintaining safety and security in drinking establishments. However, the regulatory body, PSIRA, seems inefficient in maintaining proper regulation and in enforcing adherence to the law in drinking establishments. A number of factors that inhibit this regulatory body from meeting expectations and effectively performing its role as the regulator were highlighted. As a consequence, this gap clearly exacerbated the illegal employment of untrained and unregistered bouncers in the drinking establishments under study.

Non-compliance with the law by drinking establishment managers/owners is an issue of grave concern, particularly as laws are ignored and bouncers are employed indiscriminately. This issue was also openly acknowledged by the South African government when a Minister, Maggie Sotyu, commented on the lack of 'biting' power by the security industry in drinking establishments as a result of its inability to curb the continuous acts of violence and even killings that occur there. It is therefore vital that the enforcement of the law takes its course in drinking establishments by ensuring that bouncers are well qualified and registered. Drinking establishment managers/owners also have a huge responsibility. For instance, they may outsource their security service requirements and thus allow trained private security personnel that are qualified and registered with PSIRA to take care of security issues in their establishments.

The study found that most managers/owners of the drinking establishments under study were not aware of the law concerning the private security industry in South Africa and they therefore took full responsibility by employing and managing bouncers themselves. This practice is against the law, and it is thus a problematic practice as it threatens patrons' and staff members' safety and security. Most bouncers were also not familiar with the PSIR Act and the PSIRA registration requirement and had thus never attended training at an accredited college. Clearly, more has to be done to ensure the efficient implementation of regulations to ensure compliance with the law in drinking establishments.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Informed consent letter



Social Sciences, College of Humanities,
University of KwaZulu-Natal,
Howard College Campus,
Dear Participant

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

My name is Nkosingiphile Mbhele. I am a Criminology and Forensic Studies PhD candidate at the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal, Howard College Campus. I am interested in undertaking an observational study on the culture of Private Security Service Providers in Pietermaritzburg drinking establishments. The study will be conducted in three different communities in Pietermaritzburg. The communities will be those that differ in terms of space, context and developments. The study will take place in nightclubs, shebeens, taverns or any other drinking establishment that exist at the three communities in Pietermaritzburg.

Objectives of and need for the study

1. To investigate the compliance of private security service providers with the law in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg.
2. To investigate the PSIRA requirements that private security personnel in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg meet.
3. To explore the manner in which drinking establishments recruit their private security service providers.
4. To exploring patrons' safety and behaviour in drinking establishments.
5. To explore PSIRA's effort to uphold their mandate as a regulator of private securities especially in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg.

Your drinking establishment is one of my interests. To obtain information, I am interested in asking you a couple of questions. Please put into consideration that:

- Your confidentiality is guaranteed as your inputs will not be attributed to you in person but reported only as a population member opinion.
- The interview/questionnaire may last for about 1 hour and may be split depending on your preference.
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the collected data will be used for purposes of this research only.
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years.
- You have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be penalized for taking such an action.
- The research aims at knowing the challenges of your community relating to resource scarcity, peoples' movement, and effects on peace.
- Your involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial or any other compensatory benefits involved.
- If you are willing to be interviewed, please indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not you are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment:

	willing	Not willing
Audio equipment		

If you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me at:

Cellphone number: 067 027 9218/ 033 260 6166

Email address: nkosimbhele201@gmail.com or mbhelen6@ukzn.ac.za

My supervisor for this research project is Professor Shanta Balgobind Singh, she is located at the School of Applied Human Sciences, Criminology and forensics Studies Department, Howard College Campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Contact details: email: singhsb@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: 031 260 7895 or 083 692 5817 You may also contact the Research Office through:

P. Mohun

HSSREC Research Office,

Tel: 031 260 4557 E-mail: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

DECLARATION

I..... (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the content of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I desire.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

.....

Appendix 2: Ethical approval



UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU.NATAL
 INYUVESI
 YAKWAZULU.NATALI

12 February 2019

Mr Nkosingiphile Modeccai Mbhele 212538866

School of Applied Human Sciences

Howard College Campus

Dear Mr Mbhele

Protocol reference number: HSS/2224/018D

Project title: An Ethnographic Research on the Culture of Security Service Providers in Pietermaritzburg Nightclubs

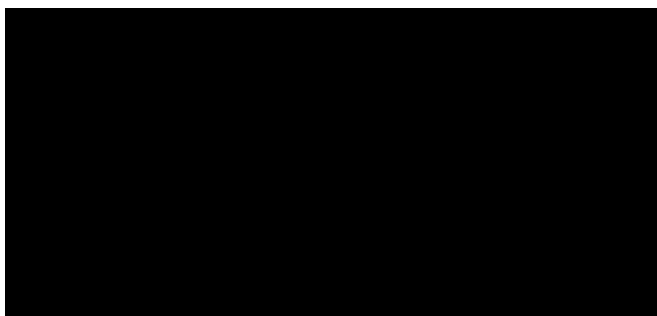
Full Approval — Expedited Application In response to your application received 28 November 2018, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted FULL APPROVAL.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue.

Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis. the

best with your study



Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Chair)

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

cc Supervisor: Professor Shanta Singh cc Academic Leader Research: Dr Maud Mthembu cc

School Administrator: Ms Ayanda Ntuli

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001 , Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3587/8350/4557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4609 Email:

ximbap@ukzn.ac.za | snsmanm@ukzn.ac.za | mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

Website: www.ukzn.ac.za

Appendix 3: Gatekeeper's letter



01 February 2019

To whom it may concern:

Permission to conduct research as part of a PhD Degree of Social Science

Name: Nkosingiphile Modeccai Mbhele

Student no: 212538866

Contact details: 067 027 9218

E-Mail: nkosimbhele201@gmail.com

Dissertation topic: **Investigating the private security service provider's compliance with relevant legislations in selected drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg, South Africa**

Mr. Mbhele is a PhD candidate, whom I am currently supervising towards the completion of his Doctoral Degree in Criminology and Forensic Studies. He is interested in undertaking a project in the area of the culture of security service providers in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg. The envisaged study will attempt to achieve the following objectives:

1. To investigate the compliance of private security service providers with the law in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg.
2. To investigate the PSIRA requirements that private security personnel in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg meet.
3. To explore the manner in which drinking establishments recruit their private security service providers.
4. To exploring patrons' safety and behaviour in drinking establishments.
5. To explore PSIRA's effort to uphold their mandate as a regulator of private securities especially in drinking establishments in Pietermaritzburg.

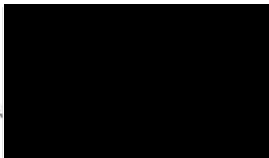
The success of this project will be dependent on evaluating and gathering data by observing the ongoing activities in drinking establishments during late night hours in order to understand

the culture of private securities. Mixed method approach will be utilised with engaging in qualitative and quantitative research which will include open ended questions and close ended questionnaires with the personnel of your organisation. Your assistance in permitting access to your organisation for purposes of this research will be most appreciated. Please be assured that all information gained from the research will be treated with the utmost circumspection. Please also indicate any further conditions or requirements. **Confidentiality and anonymity will be strictly adhered to.**

I humbly request you to please grant him permission to conduct his research at your center. If you require any other information, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Thank you for your assistance in this regard.

Yours sincerely



Prof Shanta Balgobind Singh

Criminology and Forensic Studies

School of Applied Human Sciences

Howard Campus

University of Kwa-Zulu Natal

Durban 4000, South Africa, Tele: +27 31 260 7895 Cell: +27 83 6925817

Appendix 4: Interview schedule for PSIRA staff

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PSIRA STAFF SECTION

A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

- A1 Sex M F
- A2 Age
- A3 Nationality
- A4 Ethnicity
- A7 Level of education: Matric Degree Diploma Other
Specify other
- A8 Length of service at PSIRA.....

- 1. What are the professional and legal implications and challenges facing PSIRA in terms of the occupation of bouncers?**

- 2. What efforts does PSIRA put to ensure that the bouncing industry in drinking establishments comply to the obligations provided by the Private Security Industry Regulatory Act 56 of 2001?**

- 3. Do you think PSIRA is putting enough effort to ensure compliance to the obligations within the bouncing industry in drinking establishment?**

- 4. What are the challenges that PSIRA face in overseeing the work of bouncers in drinking establishments?**

- 5. What would you recommend PSIRA should do to overcome the challenges they face?**

Appendix 5: Interview schedule for managers/owners

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR MANAGERS/OWNERS SECTION

A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

- A1 Sex M F
- A2 Age
- A3 Nationality
- A4 Ethnicity
- A7 Level of education: Matric Degree Diploma Other
Specify other
- A9 Name of nightclub.....
- A10 Location of nightclub Suburb township rural area semi-rural area
- A8 Length of service in this drinking establishment.....

- 1. Who is responsible for the employment of bouncers in this drinking establishment?**
- 2. What is the recruitment criteria for the employment of bouncers in this drinking establishment?**
- 3. How do you ensure that bouncers are skilled and well prepared to provide quality service?**
- 4. What are the key main roles of bouncers in this drinking establishment?**
- 5. Are you familiar with Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority?**
- 6. What is your role as a manager/owner in ensuring the safety of patrons in this drinking establishment?**
- 7. What is your understanding of the role of bouncers in the high/low prevalence of violence in this drinking establishment?**

- 8. Do you employ female bouncers in this drinking establishment? Why?**
- 9. Do you encourage bouncers to be physically strong?**
- 10. Which quality do you consider as the most important quality bouncers should possess?**

(b)

Appendix 6: Question for private security (bouncers)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRIVATE SECURITY (BOUNCERS)

Thank you for availing yourself to answer these questions. Please be ensured that the responses you provide here will be treated with maximum confidentiality and anonymity, and will only serve only for research purposes. Your personal information will not be displayed to ensure the success of confidentiality and anonymity. It would be highly appreciated if you answer all questions with utmost honesty. As a participant of this study, you are not obliged to answer all questions, it is voluntary and should you feel uncomfortable continuing, you are welcome to withdraw.

Please try to answer all questions, and try to answer with honesty. If you need clarification on some questions, the researcher is available to enlighten you.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

A1 Sex M F

A2 Age

A3 Nationality

A4 Ethnicity

A5 PSIRA registration Active Inactive

A6 Level of PSIRA qualification completed: Grade A Grade B Grade C Grade D Other None

Specify other

A7 Level of education: Matric Degree Diploma Other

Specify other

A8 Length of service in this nightclub.....

SECTION B

Recruitment

1. I got into the industry through:

- (a) An open post, and I sent in my CV
- (b) My friend told me about the job
- (c) The owner/manager of the nightclub recruited me
- (d) I was recruited from the gym

2. To be a bouncer you need:

To be physically fit
To have friends who are already bouncers

- (c) To be trained, qualified and registered with Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority

3. Upon employment, my employer asked for:

- (a) My Identity Document (ID)
(b) My qualifications and PSIRA number
(c) My residential address

4. I got into this job because:

- (a) I love it
(b) I just need to get an income
(c) I am a student
(d) I can't get another job

5. I was screened and interviewed upon recruitment:

- (a) True
(b) False

6. I work for:

- (a) 1 nightclub
(b) 2 nightclubs
(c) 3 nightclubs
(d) More than 3 nightclubs

7. I am employed by:

- (a) A nightclub
(b) A private security company
(c) Self employed

8. I earn between..... A month:

- (a) 1k and 2k

(a)

- (b)
- (b) 2k and 3k
- (c) 3k and 4k
- (d) More than 4k

Masculinity

9. To be a good bouncer:

- (a) I need to be masculine
- (b) I need to be a good fighter
- (c) I need to be friendly with patrons
- (d) I need to be calm in violent and aggressive situations and better handle the situation without harming anyone

10. Being fit and strong is the most important characteristic of a bouncer:

- (a) True
- (b) False

11. The employer requires bouncers to maintain our physical fitness:

- (a) True
- (b) False

12. I believe if I was not physically fit the nightclub would not hire me:

- (a) True
- (b) False

13. Being a bouncer is a man's job:

- (a) True
- (b) False

14. I have worked with or have known female bouncers:

- (a) True
- (b) False

15. I think females would not make a good bouncer:

- (a) True
- (b) False

16. A physically fit female would make a good bouncer:

- True
- False

17. I use my muscles and big body to:

- (a) Discipline misbehaving patrons
- (b) To intimidate patrons
- (c) To be able to solve fights
- (d) I do not use my body in my duty

Relationship with patrons

18. Patrons love the way I do my job:

- (a) True (b) False

19. Patrons greet me when they see me in the nightclub:

- (a) True
- (b) False

20. I believe the primary job of a bouncer is to:

- (a) Protect the properties of the nightclub
- (b) Keep the patrons safe
- (c) Discipline misbehaving patrons

21. If a patron is violent towards me or other patron, i:

- (a) I try to calm down the patron
- (b) I manage the situation by being violent with the patron as well
- (c) I talk some sense to the patron
- (d) I throw the patron out of the nightclub

22. I occasionally get involved in fights with patrons:

- (a) True
- (b) False

23. A punch is important to knock some sense into a misbehaving patron's head:

- (a) True
- (a)

(b)

(b) False

24. I do not fight with patrons at all:

(a) True

(b) False

Private security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA)

25. I know PSIRA

(a) True

(b) False

26. I am aware of PSIRA's obligations to private securities.

(a) True

(b) False

27. As a bouncer, I am not regulated by PSIRA or any regulatory body, I am independent:

(a) True (b)

False

28. I am a registered with PSIRA:

(a) True (b)

False

29. PSIRA inspectors monitor our activities or duties as bouncers:

(a) True (b)

False

30. PSIRA is important to us as bouncers:

(a) True (b)

False

31. Bouncers do not need to register with PSIRA because we are independent from PSIRA:

(a) True

(b) False

Skills

32. I believe I am well skilled as a bouncer to ensure safety and security in nightclubs:

- (a) True
- (b) False

33. I still require training because I struggle to maintain a safe and secure environment in nightclubs:

- (a) True
- (b) False

34. I was well trained and skilled before commencement of my duties as a bouncer:

- True
- False

35. I attended and completed training in a PSIRA accredited college:

- (a) True
- (b) False

36. I do not need any skill training as a bouncer because this is an easy job:

- (a) True
- (b) false

(a)

(b)

Appendix 7: Questionnaire for patron respondents

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PATRON RESPONDENTS

Thank you for availing yourself to answer these questions. Please be ensured that the responses you provide here will be treated with maximum confidentiality and anonymity, and will only serve only for research purposes. Your personal information will not be displayed to ensure the success of confidentiality and anonymity. It would be highly appreciated if you answer all questions with utmost honesty. As a participant of this study, you are not obliged to answer all questions, it is voluntary and should you feel uncomfortable continuing, you are welcome to withdraw.

Please try to answer all questions, and try to answer with honesty. If you need clarification on some questions, the researcher is available to enlighten you.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

- A1 Sex M F
- A2 Age
- A3 Nationality
- A4 Ethnicity
- A5 City
- A6 Location
- A7 How long have you stayed here?
.....
- A8 Level of education: Matric Degree Diploma Other
Specify other
- A9 Occupation

Attendance of drinking establishment

1. Are you a regular in this drinking establishment?
 - (a) Yes
 - (b) No

2. Do you feel safe in this establishment?
 - (a) Yes
 - (b) No

3. How many times do you attend this drinking establishment a month?

- (a) Once
- (b) Twice
- (c) Thrice
- (d) More than thrice

4. You enjoy attending this drinking establishment because;

- (a) It is safe
- (b) The staff is kind
- (c) There is no violence
- (d) There is violence in other nightclubs
- (e) For other reason please

specify.....

Safety of drinking establishment

5. How safe do you feel when you are in this drinking establishment?

- (a) I do not feel safe at all
- (b) I feel slightly safe
- (c) I feel safe
- (d) I feel very safe

6. What makes you feel less or more safer?

- (a) The patrons
- (b) The bar staffs
- (c) The bouncers
- (d) The environment

7. Have you ever witnessed violence and aggression executed in this drinking establishment?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

8. Have you ever witnessed violence and aggression executed by a bouncer to a patron in this drinking establishment?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

9. Have you ever witnessed violence and aggression executed by a patron to a bouncer in this drinking establishment?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

Bouncers as maintainers of safety and security

10. How would you describe bouncers in this drinking establishment?

- (a) Welcoming
- (b) Aggressive
- (c) Violent
- (d) Friendly

11. Do you feel safe with these bouncers around? Why?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

Please elaborate below

.....
.....

12. What do you know about the profession of bouncer's occupation?

- (a) They only need to be active members of security professional body (Security Association of South Africa)
- (b) Must only be physically fit and strong
- (c) Must be registered with Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA) and belonging employed by a registered private security company

(d) I know nothing about the work of bouncers

13. Have you witnessed bouncers in this drinking establishment being kind and friendly to you or other patrons?

(a) Yes

(b) No

14. How often have you witnessed bouncers in this drinking establishment being aggressive and violent towards patrons?

(a) Never

(b) Sometimes

(c) Always

15. How would you describe your experience with bouncers?

(a) Violent and aggressive

(b) Kind and friendly

(c) Professional and competent

(d) I cannot say

16. Overall, would you say you are happy in a manner in which bouncers conduct their duties in this drinking establishment?

(a) Yes

(b) No

Patron behaviour

17. Have you ever been in a drinking establishment fight?

(a) Yes

(b) No

18. Have you ever been in an aggressive or violent situation with a bouncer caused by you?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

19. Have your friends been in an aggressive or violent situation with bouncer caused by them? (a) Yes

- (b) No

20. When you have had too much to drink, do you;

- (a) Quit drinking and go sleep
- (b) Have a break and continue a couple of minutes later
- (c) Just continue drinking
- (d) You never feel like you have had enough

21. When you are intoxicated, and a bouncer confronts you, do you;

- (a) Adhere to what the bouncer is telling you
- (b) Confront the bouncer back with aggression and violence
- (c) Stay calm
- (d) You usually don't remember because you too intoxicated

22. Do you find it hard to behave when you have had an excessive amount of alcohol?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

23. How would you describe your drinking behaviour?

- (a) I drink 6 alcoholic drinks measured at approximately (500ml)
- (b) I drink 12 alcoholic drinks measured at approximately (500ml)
- (c) I drink 18 alcoholic drinks measured at approximately (500ml)
- (d) I do not drink at all

Other.....

