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UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, TAMALE

**COMMUNITY POLICING AND CRIME MANAGEMENT IN THE WA
MUNICIPALITY, UPPER WEST REGION OF GHANA**

JOHN PETER OKORO

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES



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**COMMUNITY POLICING AND CRIME MANAGEMENT IN THE WA
MUNICIPALITY, UPPER WEST REGION OF GHANA**

BY

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**THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNANCE AND
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IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD
OF A MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT**



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

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ABSTRACT

The connection between security and development cannot be overstated. This is because human security is a vital objective of development which when not in place can have negative consequences for development. Crime is one of the major precipitators of insecurity globally, and capable of impeding development. The continuous increase in high rate of crime even in the presence of traditional policing is said to have triggered the call for shift from military-based policing to a democratic-based policing, thus, community policing which focuses on preventing crime. The Ghana Police Service adopted this trending approach for crime prevention and management in the country. However, crime rate continue to rise, especially in the Wa Municipality. This study therefore investigated the prospects of Community Policing Approach (CPA) for crime management in the Wa Municipality, Ghana. It specifically investigated common crimes in the area, the effect of crime on development and the effectiveness of community policing strategies and community participation in the Municipality. The research adopted an explorative sequential mixed method in a study of four communities, namely, Bamahu, Dondoli, Kumbiehe, and Mangu, and applied focus group discussions, key informant interviews and a survey for data collection and analysis. First, the results show that stealing (theft), burglary, robbery, assault, threat to harm, unlawful damage, unlawful harm, possession of narcotic drugs, and abortion are the common crimes in the Municipality. Secondly, that crime affect development by creating fear among residents; causing psychological trauma to the victims and relatives; engendering financial bankruptcy/loss of income to the direct and indirect victims; causing loss of properties; adversely affecting private investments, school enrolment and educational achievements ; and reducing trust in interpersonal relationship among community members. Thirdly, that community participation and community policing is not effective in the Municipality due to ineffective strategies, lack of trust and public confidence in the Police. To improve CP, the study recommends revamping of the Neighbourhood Watch Committee (NWC), which existed prior to Community Police Assistants (also known as CPAs) as part of the CPA infrastructure for enhancing trust, cooperation and community participation in community policing.



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To my wife, my children, and my mother



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List of Acronyms

| | |
|-----------|---|
| ATR | African Traditional Religion |
| BJA | Bureau of Justice Assistance |
| BWT | Broken Windows Theory |
| CCFC | Citizen Corps and Freedom Corps |
| CCTVs | Closed Circuit Tele-Visions |
| CDP | Community Development Officers |
| CID | Criminal Investigation Department |
| CJS | Criminal Justice System |
| COPS-USDJ | The Community Oriented Policing Services of the United States Department of Justice |
| CP | Community Policing |
| CPAs | Community Police Assistants |
| CPCMWMQ | Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa Municipality Questionnaire |
| CPF | Community Policing Forum |
| CSO | Community Social Organisations |
| DOVVSU | Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit |
| DFID | British Department for International Development |
| FGD | Focus Group Discussion |
| GPS | Ghana Police Service |
| GSS | Ghana Statistical Service |
| KII | Key Informant Interview |
| RMP | Royal Malaysian Police |
| NGOs | Non Governmental Organisations |
| NPF | Nigerian Police Force |



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| PTSD | www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder |
| RAT | Routine Activity Theory |
| SARA | Scanning, Analysis, Response, and Assessment |
| SARA | Scanning, Analysis, Response, Assessment, |
| SDT | Social Disorganisation Theory |
| UN | United Nation |
| US | United States |
| UWR | Upper West Region |
| WHO | World Health Organisation |
| WMA | Wa Municipal Assembly |

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the general introduction of the research, in particular, the study background, research problem, research questions and objectives. It also provides an overview on the significance of the study, scope of the study, and the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Background of the Study

Unarguably, contemporary global events have drawn attention quite clearly, to the fact that peace and security of life, and that of property are essential to sustainable national development. These are therefore better accomplished where there is good policing system. According to McNamara (1968), security progresses in response to development progression. The position taken here is that no peace, security and sustainable national development will ever be possible in any part of the World, without reasonable institutional mechanism – in form of a strong criminal administration system. In every criminal administration, there exist a tripartite institution – police, court and prison institutions. While police is the first port of call in every criminal administration process, the court is the second and the third is the prison which serves as a correctional institution for the convicted. Weak criminal administration system creates loopholes for crime occurrence. The extent of the presence of these crimes in today's society is significant to their role in communities.

Crime activities beg for serious concern as they often influence the decision of people to live in certain areas. Also, when crime becomes a frequent issue in any community, many other issues like the livelihood of people and the development state and/or process of such community can be affected. According to Havi (2014), many social problems grow out of uncoordinated and disorganised social changes sometimes, especially among those who cannot adjust to ever-changing new environments (Havi, 2014). As social changes continue to emerge, they tend to





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induce social disorganization, including crime. Crime rates vary from one society to another based on the degree of social change in those societies. Nevertheless, the strength of the criminal administration system – the police, the court, and the prison in the societies can increase the probability of reducing incentives for individuals to commit crime in a socially disorganised society.

According to Ake (1981) in Acheampong (2015), security and law enforcement provision within every human settlement in any jurisdiction (a village, hamlet, cottage, town, city, metropolis, mega-polis, etc) has primarily been the preoccupation of the security agencies, particularly, the police service. Police service have been at the fore front in preventing and solving crimes in most countries. These crimes include burglary, stealing, robbery, rape, etc. – disorder that have instantaneous and perceptible impact on the quality of life on the citizenry. To prevent crime occurrence and enhance community development, community members must unite together against all forms of crime, violence, and neglect for the rule of law, with serious partnership commitments with the police in reducing fear of crime, crimes, and insecurity (Wanjohi, 2014). Police agency then must develop a healthy relationship with the members of the communities to be able to constantly address their concerns (Chumba, 2012). The community and police collaboration in problem identification and solving has yielded desirable outcomes in countries where it was first implemented (Lersch, 2007). The practice has been adopted by many countries globally with intention to solve crime issues true preventive mechanism.

However, keeping communities completely free from crime remains somehow impossible especially with the traditional system of policing where policing is centered on curation than prevention. Prevention strategies in crime management have nonetheless, proven to be more efficacious in handling crime issues than the professional/traditional policing strategies. The

curative thinking in crime management tends to have yielded low or no significant result, which could be the reason for the manifestation of high crime rates globally. Be that as it may, crime prevention can be referred to as various endeavours to prevent crime from occurring or ensuring that criminal offending is prevented before the occurrence of the act in the first instance. The common goal is to ensure the occurrence of future criminal acts is prevented. Quintessentially, crime prevention and crime control are not the same. While the former is problem oriented in nature and normally operate outside of the boundaries of formal justice system. The latter is characterised by all programs and policies designed to fight crimes which include making of arrests by police, court disposal, and sentencing (Ordu & Nnam, 2017). According to Waller (2006), prevention can be considered as the 4th pillar of crime reduction in conjunction with the police institution, court, and prison. Consequently, this classification positions crime prevention as an alternative approach to the traditional approaches of crime fighting. Ordu and Nnam (2017) opined that rigorous partnership and collaborative endeavours of both the formal and informal agencies of social control can lead to a near crime-free society since a complete crime free society is utopia. In other words, the idea of partnership and collaboration can lead to a great success in crime prevention and control in the society.

The shortcomings of traditional policing catalyzed the evolution of Community Policing (Acheampong, 2015). Meanwhile, the emergence of community policing (subsequently written as CP) was to address the high crime rates the tradition policing style has failed to address (Lewis & Lewis, 2012) by improving the police-public relationships (Eck & Rosenbaum, 1994). However, CP as noted by Oliver (2000) has become a globally well-known paradigm of contemporary policing. Although, there is no universal agreement on what constitutes CP, CP also known as policing with the community with its root from England, is “both a philosophy (a way of thinking) and organisational strategy (a way of executing) that allows the police and the community to work together in solving problems of crime and disorder” (Degu, 2014:8).



Nonetheless, the thinking of CP was governed by the “ideal of policing as community problem-solving and policing by consent in order to be responsive to the needs and expectations of residents” (Hesketh, 1992:12). It denotes the partnership between the general public and the police agency to address neighborhood-specific problems where the public are involved in decision making processes with the police and are engaged in local problem-solving.

However, there are three main complementary components of CP: (1) community-partnership: with the goal of establishing and maintaining trust (Trojanowicz & Moore, 1988), (2) problem solving: a process of identifying specific concerns of communities and the most appropriate remedies to solve the problems (Goldstein, 1979; hhb 1, 1994), and (3) organisational transformation. The rationale for public involvement is that it has become impossible for police alone to provide and/or maintain safe communities. In this regard, CP has therefore tasked the Police especially in the developed world to change their concentration from crime control mechanism to crime prevention mechanism and problem-solving (Goldstein, 1990) and very recently, in developing countries. Scientific evidence abound to suggest that the police are more effective at reducing crime when the key principles of CP are adopted (Sherman & Eck, 2006). Foot patrols as one of the strategies of CP has been successful in crime reduction (Trojanowicz, 1983) including directed patrols in crime hot spots (Sherman & Eck, 2006). The basic role of CP is hitherto to ensure crime is prevented before its occurrence by repelling broken windows in an already disorganised society.

In Britain, Sir Robert Peel is associated with the origin of CP in London Metropolitan with a focus to prevent crimes (Braiden,1992) which empowered the police as an instrument of government in London city for the services of the communities (Godfrey, 2012). This has consequently exposed the police force to a closer propinquity to the communities than ever before. Several reforms in the Government of London starting from 1900 together with the

nationwide police professionalization move helped to draw the Police Force in London nearer to the community which in turn helped in crime prevention and professionalized the police (Kelling & Moore, 1988). The police management later established a centralised policy which was designed to ensure compliance with standard operating procedures and to encourage professional atmosphere of impartiality (Godfrey, 2012), followed by reinforcement of technological advancements which around the second-half of the 19th century had led to the expansion in the use of automobiles, although precipitated reduction in friendly foot-patrols. Many Telephone contacts with the police (known as 911 systems) was introduced in London in the 1970s which allowed the Police agency to respond faster to crimes and to answer luxuriant numbers of calls from the communities than before (Ibid). The technological advancements made it possible for the officers to respond faster to the community demands. Technological advancement was critical for the success of CP in London.

In America, CP has been in operation since 1970s and become more functional after the September 11, 2001 attack (Godfrey, 2012). The aim was to involve residents in crime prevention efforts. After the 9/11 attack, the government called for better involvement of residents in homeland security through Citizen Corps and Freedom Corps (CCFC) initiative (ibid). The initiative effectively helped to respond to threats of crime and terrorism. Pilot study conducted after the implementation of CP in major cities of America indicated that there were positive results like reduction of fear of crime, improved public versus police relationships, as well as improved prevention of crime (Sozer, 2008).

In Africa, CP was initiated in South Africa, in the 1990's in order for democratizing and legitimizing the police, and also aimed at improving service delivery and tackling of crime issues (Wanjohi, 2014). Police were charged to be accountable and transparent to enable effective partnership with citizens. The mandate and guideline was stated through the South





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African Peace Accord (1999). In Kenya, the official launching of CP was on 27th April 2005 by President Mwai Kibaki, as a strategy for crime prevention “although it was not well implemented” (Wanjohi, 2014 p.4), but there was notable drop in crime during the first initiation. In Uganda, CP came to being in 1989 after its launching at the central region owing to rise in criminal activities such as robbery, rape, murder and other anti-social problems as a strategy to reduce the crimes and also as a response to the wave of urban bombings in the late 1990’s and the early 2000’s, which has yielded a significant result (Godfrey, 2012).

In Nigeria, CP was adopted in 2003 when some selected police personnel were sent to study how CP is practiced in England sponsored by the British Department for International Development (DFID). In 2004, more Police personnel were trained to serve as community development officers in the south-eastern Nigeria, particularly in Enugu state. These officers were tasked to spread the practice of CP to other officers in other states of the federation (Dickson, 2007). It is noteworthy however, that the CP as practiced in the UK is definitely not applicable to the Nigerian context without necessary adjustments given the long-standing antagonism between the police and the public. For instance, Dickson (2007) has noted some challenges bedeviling successful implementation of CP in Nigeria and they include internal resistance by policemen who were benefiting from the traditional policing and who prefer to maintain the *status quo*; not being committed to project by the implementing officers; zero support from members of the public; inadequate support from the government; and poor welfare package/incentives for police officers (Ibid).

CP is a concept that is diverse in nature, which aims at securing a particular community by putting measures in place to understand the community’s particular security needs and developing tailor made solutions to address the needs (Wanjohi, 2014). This notwithstanding, the concept of CP has been criticized by practitioners and seems to be rejected by experts as a

potential solution to addressing neighborhood security and controlling criminal behaviors (Lersch, 2007). This disparity in opinion, appreciation and utilization among many security experts raise several issues that are partially ignored in the recent literature.

Although, Ghana has an improving global recognition as one of the peaceful countries within sub-Saharan Africa, there exist some social vices that have created undesirable impacts on the good name of the country. For instance, Havi (2014) averred that new trends of crimes that emerged in Ghana are slowly but truly gaining root in the country. According to him, these crimes include: serial killings, armed robbery, drug trafficking, fraud, rape, child abuse, prostitution etc. (Havi, 2014), which are already menaces creating negative impacts on the reputation of Ghana. He also opined that increasing rate of these serial killings, armed robberies, cybercrimes, human and drug trafficking, arms trafficking and manufacturing may deter potential investors and other economic activities in the country (Ibid).

To solve these crime menaces, CP was officially launched in Ghana by the Ghana Police Service on August 13, 2011 with the aim of making communities across Ghana safer and more habitable, although, was somehow in place since 2002. However, Daily Graphic on 13th February 2016 reported that, since the launch of CP in 2011 with the notion of empowering citizens to contribute towards ensuring safety in their communities as well as transparency and accountability in the performance of the GPS, the initiative seems to have lost its essence, as a result of which people now take the law into their own hands when a community member errs on the side of law. People have now taken responsibility for their own safety because they believe that the police cannot protect them (Graphic.com.gh, 2016). This research seeks to explore questions bordering on the implementation of community policing in crime management and its effect in development in the Wa Municipality, Upper West Region of Ghana.



1.2 Problem Statement

Ghana as a nation has been spending a huge amount of money to maintain law and order across its regions, yet crime rates have continued to rise (Havi, 2014). Although some track records of success in the fight against various crimes exist, Ghana has continued to undergo insecurity problems especially in the urbanising areas. For example, Ghana Police CID on May 25th, 2018 as published on ghanaweb.com reported that crime rate shot up slightly in the country for the first quarter of 2018. General crime rate across the country increased marginally in the first quarter of 2018. According to the department, robbery, carjacking, defilement, rape, murder, narcotics and human trafficking cases recorded between January and May 21 this year (2018) cumulatively, slightly went up compared to figures from the same period in the last three years. The Director of Operations, CID maintained that robbery cases recorded nationwide within the period rose to 484. In January, a total of 121 cases were recorded but the figure dropped to 92 in February and went up again in March to 98 and again in April with 103 cases before it finally dropped to 70 as at May 21 (GPS, 2018).

On 16th May 2015, the GPS publication on GhanaWeb indicated that during the first quarter of the year (2015), the Upper West Regional Police Command recorded 170 criminal cases. According to the report, it was 15 more than the 155 offences recorded in the same period the previous year. Stealing, robbery and assault cases topped the list of offences committed in the region with the Wa Municipality recording the highest number of cases. Stealing of Motorbike and burglary are reported as the two common criminal activities in the Wa Municipality. For instance, on 27th March, 2018, Wa Municipal Police Command announced to the general public that the command had several motorcycles suspected to have been stolen from their rightful owners by criminals in its custody, adding that the motorcycles would be auctioned should the



owners refuse to claim them within the timeframe provided. In Wa, business owners wake up every morning to the bad situation of burglary on their shops. Student's hostels are not spared either as their attackers also inflict wounds on them, evidenced in the July 2nd 2017 attack, when two young men went to a private hostel to rob students of University for Development Studies, Wa Campus of their belongings. They ended up inflicting severe cutlass wounds on a student who tried to resist them.

Crime affects economic, health, and psychological well-being of victims and can affect society at large (Balcha, 2014). However, crime obstinately resisting efforts to fight it, a move to a more innovative methods of ensuring criminality is prevented instead of punishing it, is imperative. Effective policing strategy must therefore be capable of providing a framework that can permit communities to participate in securing themselves, their properties and their overall interests. As a result CP studies are needed to understand how communities are allowed to be part of their development processes in terms of securing themselves. Some considerable studies conducted on crime and CP globally, have focused on the economic cost of crime using the national GDP (economic growth) to measure the cost, and using recorded crime data from the law enforcement agencies to measure rate, incidence, concentration and prevalence of crime without actually considering the people who are the main victim or potential victims of crime.

Most CP works have concentrated on secondary data and only one or two strategies in measuring the effectiveness of CP without including the communities where the strategies are applied (see Thomas, Gregory, & George Seibe 1996; Dumenyah, 2016; Havi, 2014). This is because most secondary data from the law enforcement agencies may have problems of accuracy, and thus, may not actually represent what is going on in the communities. In some communities, residents already portray police in bad light which in turn created distrust, forcing them to decide what happens to suspects – either to mob or forgive the suspects without involving the Police.

Neng (2012) asserted that “it is with more than a tinge of irony that most scholars of CP seldom concern themselves with theoretical definitions of either ‘community’ or ‘policing’ despite the democratic gloss on models of CP” (Neng, 2012 p.5). He added that definition of these terms is treated in a high-handed manner, because many scholars only pay attention to analysing the best practices of CP and proposing improvements to models which result in repeating and recycling definitions of CP’s key elements, while theoretical forays into the relationships between policing, the police and community are abandoned (ibid). In addition, Neng maintains that such work restricts its focus on “providing strategic guidance to particular police forces seeking academic expertise in implementing the latest round of CP reforms” (ibid). Consequently, most reviews of community policing end up unsuccessfully since the researchers largely belong to the branch of theoreticians who practice a sociology for the police rather than a sociology of the police (Manning, 2005). Meanwhile, most of the CP researchers globally are police sociologists (or criminologists) who work for the police and not police science sociologists (or criminologists) who research on the relationships between policing, the police and the community.

In Ghana, researches have focused on crime incidences or trends in Accra without touching the preventive measures applicable for crime reduction or prevention, for example, the works of Appiahene-Gyamfi (1997, 2003) and Tankebe (2009, 2011). Also, the work of Mahama, Akuamoah, Amedagbui, and Dese (2015) focused on the statistical analysis on the trend and causes of crime in the Ho Municipality. Others have focused on economic cost of crime, for example, Havi (2014) which looked at the national GDP as to whether crime is affecting the growth or not. Most of these studies of crime in Ghana, have also been focusing on police report about crime in major Ghanaian towns, and with this, mention is only made of type of crime prevalent in these locations (Acheampong, 2015), without addressing the subject of CP nor the



link between crime prevention and development. The researches have also focused on the perpetrators and victims of crime but little is done on its prevention and the strategies adopted by the police to reduce the incidence. Except the work of Acheampong (2015) “*Community Policing and Crime Prevention in Edge Cities: Insights from Awutu Senya East Municipality*” which is the only accessible CP research in Ghana presently. However, the work has not looked at how crime is affecting development (the livelihood issues of the community members) and has not identified which of the crimes are reducing and which is increasing or static since the introduction of CP by the GPS. She has also not looked at the basic strategies applicable with the CP concept, as to understand which is working and which is not. This will enable a clear understanding of how CP was adopted, what is not working and what needs to be improved upon.

In the Wa Municipality, only two (2) related works have been spotted to have been conducted in relation to policing. These works include the work of Marfo (2016), “*Sustaining Development through Policing: Wa Municipality in Perspective*” and that of Dumenyah (2016), “*Ghana Police Service and Crime Prevention: Examining the Effectiveness of the Visibility Strategy in Wa*”. However, these two works have focused only on the visibility strategy which is just one of the CP strategies, without addressing others strategies like foot patrols, door to door visit, community forum, distress call number etc.

Finally, the Ghana Police Service in 2011 set up a community policing unit as an effort to keep best practices of CP already adopted in the country since 2002. Since then, information about the success of the unit is muddy. In addition, it remains unclear how CP is applied at the local level and its effectiveness in crime prevention. For instance in 2015, a total number of One Hundred and Ninety-Three (193) Community Police Assistants (CPAs) passed out from the Police Training School in Koforidua as part of efforts to adopt and strengthen CP in Ghana by



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the Government (police.gov.gh, 2018). Subsequently, on 4th May 2018, 4,000 trainees picked from all the ten regions of Ghana passed out in the 5 police training schools of Tesano, Kumasi, Koforidua, Pwalugu and Ho after three weeks of intensive physical and academic training (myjoyonline.com, 2017). These youth have been dispatched to various communities, including Wa Municipality as CPAs, but the outcome of CP in Ghana remains unclear. Therefore, this study concentrates on the implementation of CP and the outcomes in respect of peace, security and development.

1.3 Research Questions

Main Question

The main question of this study is thus: What are the prospects of community policing for crime management and security in the Wa Municipality?

Sub-Questions

1. What are the common types of crime in the Wa Municipality?
2. What are the effects of crime on development in the Wa Municipality?
3. How effective are community policing strategies and community participation in Community Policing in the Wa Municipality?

1.4 Research Objectives

Main Objective

The main objective of this study is to assess the prospects of community policing for crime management and security in the Wa Municipality

Sub-Objectives

The study specifically seeks to;

1. Examine the common types of crime in the Wa Municipality
2. To evaluate the effects of crime on development in the Wa Municipality



3. Assess the Community participation in Community Policing and effectiveness of Community Policing Strategies in the Wa Municipality.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The existing knowledge on the link between crime and development, police, community policing and crime management will be enriched with the relevant information this study will provide. The study will encourage readers to appreciate community policing strategies practiced by polices of other countries in relation to crime management. The study will as well benefit the police service as they will be abreast with the rudiments of CP effectiveness and understand which areas to concentrate on and those that need improvement. The study findings will as well be useful in helping the governments and policy formulators to review the CP related policies, emphasising its strengths and restructuring the weak points in order to make the implementation process more effective for the Ghana Police Service. Academic researchers and others interested in the Ghana Police Service and its model of community policing will benefit from the study. The research shall bring out the strength and weaknesses of community policing as it is practiced in the Wa Municipality that require attention and action by the Upper West Regional Police Command, the Regional Assemblies and the national government. Since the findings of the study will address the CP gap between the police agency and the community in terms of engagement between the citizens and the security agencies, this studies will benefit the communities within the research area.

Lastly, this study will reveal information that would precipitate economic benefit of saving cost in combating serious crime to the Wa Municipality in specific, Upper West Region in particular and Ghana in general when put into effective and better utilization, since crime prevention saves



cost than crime control. It will improve criminal reporting activities by the citizens, as it will increase their confidence level.

1.6 Scope of the Study

Community policing and Crime management are very broad research areas, thus, definition of the scope of the present research is necessary. The study focuses on the common crime and the effect on development in the Wa Municipality and the effectiveness of community policing in crime prevention in the Wa Municipality of the Upper West Region of Ghana. The research therefore seeks to understand the role of CP strategy in crime reduction based on Ghana Police Service implementation of the strategy in the Municipality. However, the research examines the various community policing strategies employed by the Wa Municipal Command of the GPS for crime prevention and reduction. The challenges facing the strategies and the effectiveness of the strategies also formed parts of the focus. It also looked at the public awareness about the community policing concept and the effectiveness of community participation in the implementation of the community policing. Issues like trust, confidence, crime reduction, etc were looked at as indication of community policing implementation effectiveness. The types of crime for the research are also defined. This is because what is crime and how it is punished varies in country context especially those of *mala prohibita* (crimes that are not necessarily evil but rather are crimes because they violate a law instituted in a particular country, example; traffic offence). Nevertheless, this research focuses on those crimes called *mala in se* (universal crimes perceived as evil), examples include: stealing (theft), armed robbery, trafficking, rape, murder, theft, burglary (unlawful entry), assault, battery, etc.

On the research location, the scope is the Wa Municipality. Specifically, four (4) communities within the Municipality, the Wa Municipal Command of the GPS, and the municipal Assembly



were selected for the study. Thus, Bamahu, Mangu, Kumbiehe, and Dondoli are the four communities selected for the study.

1.7 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is generally organised into five chapters; this chapter (chapter one) gives a general background to the study, states the research problem, research questions, objectives of the study, significant of the study, scope of the study, choice of the study area, and the structure of the thesis. Chapter two consists of the review of relevant literature. Chapter Three presents the research methodology. In Chapter four, I present the analysis and discussion of findings, and conclude in chapter five by way of presenting a summary of results, conclusions and recommendation.



CRIME, COMMUNITY POLICING AND CRIME MANAGEMENT

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the literature on Crime, Community Policing, relevant theories on crime and crime management and the conceptual framework.

2.2 The Nature, Concept and Definition of Crime

Every study on any subject requires a clear conception of the subject at the beginning with some kind of definitions so as to do proper justice to the study. First of all, crime is to be understood as an act that occurs geographically – it has specific place, time and reasons of occurrence. It is a human experience and can be said to be as old as the human race. This is because crime can be traced to the breaking of God’s law by Adam and Eve, and the murder of Abel by Cain in the Bible – which attracted punishment to the trio. However, crime has different definitions depending on which perspective one is seeing it from. The word *crime can be said to* originate from the Latin word *crimen* (genitive *criminis*), rooted as *cernō* and Greek κρινω, meaning “I judge”. In law, this simply means charge, guilt, and accusation (Edewor, 2010). Crime therefore can be said to be a breach of a rule or law for which punishment is prescribed by states or some governing authority to deal with defaulter. Nonetheless, Edewor (2010) posited that all breaches of law or rules cannot be considered as crimes. This is because, breaches of contracts and other civil law offenses are different from breaches of state criminal laws. He also opined that, what is labelled crime and the social stigma attached to it are dependent upon the degree of injuriousness at which the activity is to the general population or the State, as well as its ability to cause serious loss or damage to individuals. The label reflects a hegemony of a dominant population, or a consensus of condemnation for the identified activity and justifies a punishment imposed by the State, when the accused person is tried and convicted of a crime (Edewor, 2010).



Typically, crime perpetrators are natural persons, but in some jurisdictions/or moral environments, legal persons and states are also considered to have the capability of committing crime (Ibid).

Crime is a deviant behavior that violates prevailing norms, i.e. cultural standards that suggest how humans should behave in a given society (Lersch, 2007; Havi, 2014). Behaviours which are considered to be inimical to the interest of members of the given society are regarded as criminal act and are embodied in the criminal code in modern complex societies. For instance, the Criminal Code (Amendment) Act, 2003 (Act 646) of the Republic of Ghana outlaws a person from taking the life of another. When a person is found guilty of violating this law, he might be imprisoned for life or pay with his life. However, crime can be defined as any act that violates any criminal law of a country. This is in consistent with the definition of crime provided by the same Criminal Code of the Republic of Ghana which defined crime as any “act punishable by death or imprisonment or fine”. Ishak (2016) also see crime as illegal activities that are against the law of a nation.

Apparently, before an act is considered as a crime, the act should have been found in the statute books as a prohibited act, and the status books must have provided a punishment for such act. Crime is thus a classification created by law or declared as such by the relevant and applicable law, which also provided clauses for punishment of such crime. It is therefore an act harmful not only to individuals but also to communities, societies or the States – a public wrong. However, crime has been seen as a vital part when describing the socio-cultural, political and economic situation of a nation instead of the normal view as being a problem to a given society (Havi, 2014). This position is associated to Emile Durkheim who posited that deviance is an integral part of all healthy societies and not really a pathological aberration in the character structure of particular individuals. According to him, crime exists in every healthy society



which in one way or the other performs some necessary positive functions. He added that crime is normal and a matter of social definition because a society without crime would be impossible. Behaviors considered offensive increases, as society progresses not decreases (Durkheim, 1938). The members of a society condemn behavioural deviations that depart decidedly from prevailing norms and single them out as crimes. Consequently, criminals serve as identifying signs of the limits of permissible behaviour in the society. Be that is it may, a society can be understood by investigating changes in crime and crime rates, using them as index for changes in society and their characteristics (Havi, 2014:3).

Who is a ‘criminal’ is a question only answerable by a competent criminal court of justice. In this regard, a criminal is that person who, after court proceeding and after being proven beyond reasonable doubt is found to have broken the criminal law of the state. An offender cannot be presumed criminal even after being arrested, arraigned, indicted or prosecuted, unless held guilty beyond all reasonable doubt of a particular offence by a competent court of law. Thus, for a person to be classified as a criminal in a competent criminal court of jurisdiction, *actus reus* – the “act of doing something criminal” must be followed by *mens rea* – the “intention to do something criminal (Martin, 2006). Meaning that a physical evidence of the crime said to have been committed, and the determination of the accused’s pre-intention (criminal intent) to commit the crime must be present as ingredients to prove beyond reasonable doubt that the accused is guilty.

To this end, it is imperative to add that criminologists are of the contention that the best way to measure crime is by direct observation or questioning. For instance, Wellford (2009) is of the view that CJS cannot be reliable in measuring the level of crime, especially using police reports, instead the public should be asked directly about their experiences with crime. This is because, most crimes, criminals and victims are not always reported to the police. Besides, most reported

cases die at the police level, and never see the passageways of the criminal courts, talk less of the prison. It is a serious problem when most criminological research violet this perspective and accept easier means of measurement – Police official data (Wellford, 2009).

2.2.1 Classification of Crime

In attempt to define crime, many scholars, criminologists, and state criminal laws have classified crime in different ways, especially based on the weightiness. For example, the Criminal Code (Amendment) Act, 2003 (Act 646) of the Republic of Ghana differentiates between serious crimes and less serious ones – *First degree and second degree*, and *Misdemeanour*. Felony is a term used to describe serious offences, example, Treason, Armed Robbery, Murder, Rape, illegal possession of firearm etc. Misdemeanor refers to less serious crimes, example, nuisance, defacing of property, driving a car that has not been licensed, exposing a child to danger, etc. Felony crimes usually attract a very Spartan punishment, which may ultimately involve imposition of death sentence sometimes. For instance, Section 46 of the Criminal Code provided that, “whoever commits murder shall be liable to suffer death”. In the case of Misdemeanor, the lawbreaker may be asked to pay a few Ghana Cedis as fine or confined to a few month’s imprisonment. The Code further divided felony (felonious crimes) into two – First Degree Felony and Second Degree Felony. First Degree Felony include those crimes that are serious and very injurious to the state (example, Treason, Rape, Armed Robber, etc), whilst Second Degree Felony are those felonious crimes that are less injurious to the state and attract less punishments (example, Assaults, unlawful harm, stealing etc). However, section 70 of the code states that “whoever intentionally and unlawfully causes harm to any person by the use of any ‘offensive weapon’ is guilty of first degree felony”. Meaning that unlawful causing of harm can as well be categorized as a first degree felony when an offensive weapon is used to cause the harm.



Another classification of crime include the work of Sutherland (1940, 1949) in which he differentiated *organized crime* and *white collar crime* (example, embezzlement), from *disorganised and blue collar crime* (example, street crime). While white collar crime is used to describe crimes commonly committed by the upper class or at least, the working class, blue collar crime is normally used to conceptualise street crimes (crimes commonly committed by the lower class). In addition, white collar crime as against blue collar crime is characterised by the “foundation – economic crime committed by a person of respectability and high social status in the course of an occupation – other aspects lack precision” (Kang & Thosuwanchot, 2017). It can therefore be said that poverty and powerlessness is the cause of street crimes while excessive power can be the cause of white collar crimes (Gottschalk & Gunnesdal, 2018).

Mala Prohibita and Mala in se

Another way scholars have tried to classify crime is by separating them into two Latin words: Mala prohibita and Mala in se, also called Malum Prohibitum and Malum in Se when in singular form respectively. *Mala prohibita crimes* - “evil prohibited crimes” are those that are illegal because “legislatures label and identify them as such” (Gordon, 2009:11). These crimes are traffic, seat belt, helmet, parking laws, etc. proscribed by state legislatures. Whilst *mala in se* crimes - “evil in itself” are acts such as “murder and sexual assault, which are almost universally deemed harmful and negative” (Ibid). Gray (1995) opined that “crime is malum in se if it is intrinsically bad, evil, or morally wrong”. And that “crime is malum prohibitum simply because society has labelled it as such, via statutory law”.

2.2.2 Effects of Crime on Development

When we think of global poverty we really think of hunger, disease, homelessness, illiteracy, dirty water and a lack of education, but very few of us immediately think of the global poor’s chronic vulnerability to violence – the massive epidemic of sexual violence, forced labor, illegal detention, land theft, assault, police abuse, and oppression that lies hidden underneath the more visible deprivations of the poor (Haugen & Boutros 2014:12).



Crime and insecurity are development issues. For example, the World Bank report (2007) has it that “high rates of crime and violence have both direct effects on human welfare in the short run and longer-run effects on economic growths and social developments (World Bank, 2007). Development is human-centered phenomenon, which begins and ends with humans (Marfo, 2016). It cannot be de-linked from that of (public) safety as no meaningful development can take place amidst insecurity (Ibid). As noted by Brown et al. (2007), progress is impossible in the midst of insecurity as institutions cannot function, people cannot plan for the future, and education and sanitation take a backseat. It could be deduced that effective policing strategies targeting public safety in any social setting, is bedrock of any sustainable development.

In 2004, the World Health Organisation conducted a research on the economic effects emanating from interpersonal violence which indicated that exposure to violence have economic impacts on individuals and national economy, arguing that experience of violent crime can result in victims suffering direct and indirect financial losses (Havi, 2014). They listed the costs to include “loss of productivity associated with death or injury, the costs of medical care and legal services, as well as the non-monetary losses such as the lost investment in human capital, and the impact of the psychological harm inflicted on the victim”. Relatedly, Ishak (2016) submitted that the effects of criminal activities include costs incurred – immediate impact (direct costs) and long-term effect (indirect costs). He therefore listed fear of crime, lower level of life satisfaction, psychological problems, decreased quality of life and other non-monetary costs as examples of indirect costs (Ishak, 2016). Specifically, in the context of this research, effects of crime on development is looked at in the following ways:

Fear of Crime: crime creates fears to direct and indirect victims, causing anxiety and sleeplessness among residents. Fear of crime is seen as an after-effect of crime itself. For instance, Henson (2011) submitted that fear of crime (although was ignored in mainstream





www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh criminology up until 1960's) is one of the major consequences of crime. People who have been victims of crime fear being victimized again and again, whilst those that have not been directly victimized fear as a result of stories of the victimized – they fear being victims of their friend, neighbours or relatives' horrible experiences. It has been agreed that all criminal events – irrespective of its seriousness, serve as an initial aversive stimulus that produces fear (Paulsen & Robinson, 2004). For example, some residents tend to respond to crime by reconfiguring their activity pattern when they perceive the area in which they live to be dangerous, weak in social control, poor surveillance, and inadequate security (Skogan, 1986; Landman, 2012). Notwithstanding the material costs of crime, “the fear of physical or emotional harm is of greater concern for most people” (Ishak, 2016). Fear of crime also destroys individual health and community cohesion, “heightens the attractiveness” of hardline “crime control strategies” (Warr, 2000; Stafford *et al.*, 2007; Simon, 2007). The impact has also been manifested in the use of burglar proofs, special locks, alarms, dogs, CCTV cameras and security guards as extra security measures especially in the high income neighbourhood of big cities (Palmer *et al.*, 2005). Fear of crime is a dilemma that affects community negatively in terms of community social cohesion, and people withdrawing from the public square. According to Skogan (1990), fear of crime contributes to the cycle of decay in urban neighborhoods. It reduces communal effort in fighting against crime, especially at the neighbourhood level (Wyant, 2008; Scarborough *et al.*, 2010), and as well impacting heavily on community viability most especially when it comes to economic activities since people will not be willing to enter perceived danger zones to engage in their daily routine activity (Skogan, 1986; Landman, 2012).

Psychological Trauma: this is said to be a type of damage to the mind that occurs as a result of extreme distress. Crime is however capable of causing psychological trauma to the victims. According to Cohen (2005), crime precipitates pains, sufferings and reduction of qualities of

lives of the victims, far exceeding any physical damage. In every incidence of crime, many group are affected – both direct and indirect victims suffer the aftereffect. An incident of crime can touch hundreds of people and last a lifetime. For instance, murder crime can cause the family of the victim to lose income for a lifetime if the victim was the bread winner of the family. Violence crimes in the home, although mostly are not reported, result in physical and psychological injury, which are mainly suffered by women and children (Robinson & Keithley, 2000). However, crime activities are capable of affecting psychological health of the victims both directly and indirectly. Psychological health are influenced indirectly through social integration. Crime have negative impacts on social interaction among neighbours and on participation in local activities within communities. These negative impacts include increase in isolation and psychological harms. On the side of direct effect, Adams (1992) is of the view that crime activities have direct effect on psychological health of people because such activities are stressful actions that can have strong effects on the perceived quality of lives, as well as feelings of self-efficacy (Adams, 1992).

When crime creates physical and psychological injuries, the injuries can last long, and sometimes, can be permanent. Robinson & Keithley (2000) opined that common property crimes (theft and burglary) can have significant psychological impacts on individuals and affect living standards, especially in poor communities where crime is high. Victims of crimes frequently experience pervasive psychological distress and subsequently mental health problems. Some scholars recognize these psychological effects as Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). Crime-associated PTSD is however emerging as an accepted term in the study of crime and psychological health. The symptoms associated to PTSD are intrusive memories, depressions, sleep disturbances, memory impairments, hyperarousal and other psychological disturbances that often lessen in severity and disappear overtime, even with no treatment (Kirkland & Mason, 1992; Riggs et al., 1995). Nevertheless, it is agreed that



symptoms persist for long term and cannot be resolved without treatment among one-third of those who suffer PTSD.

Financial Bankruptcy: it is a truism that crime affects development by causing loss of income to victims and their relatives across the globe. According to Ishak (2016), crimes cost local communities, local and national governments and the private sectors a great deal of money. He explained that crime causes individuals to start taking preventative measures that are costly, such as constructing burglar proofs, buying of “burglar alarms, installing Closed Circuit Tele-Visions (CCTVs) or taking taxis instead of walking at night” (Ishak, 2016:5). In a related vain, the work of Meera (1990) discovered that theft crime that involve capital goods increase costs to victims, because they can decrease future earnings. The cost of crime are in different form depending on the type of crime and the victim, either individual or society. Some cost are cost borne as a result of medical bills whilst some are cost borne as a result of repairing some damages (unlawful damages) due to crime. According to Ishak (2016:5), direct costs include medical costs, legal policing, lost wages resulting from physical injuries, cost of prevention, and government cost for law and regulation.

Loss of Properties: in most cases, victims of crime loss their properties to perpetrators of crime. This is evidenced in the most property theft crimes like motorbike snatching, car snatching, and many other properties of suitable targets like phones, handbags, including theft of business goods, etc. In Malaysia, for instance, Ishak (2016) opined that the commonest crimes based on reported cases are snatch thefts that target people’s valuable properties, and that it is in the increase. According to him, the database of the Royal Malaysian Police (RMP) indicates that the rate of property crimes (reported) in the country has always exceeded the rate of violent crimes. The New straits Times (2016) reported that Malaysia’s crime index recorded a 4.6% increase between January and April owing to increase in property crimes (Ishak, 2016).



Death Casualties: crime is one among the security complications threatening humanity across the globe (Nwankwo & Okolie-Osemene, 2016:1). Nations across the globe grapple to contain the rise of homicide incidences and other crimes that have high tendency of causing deaths of victims like kidnaping, drug and human trafficking, rape, armed robbery, illegal gun running and many other form of death causing crimes. The U.N Office's 2011 report on Drugs and Crimes, revealed that homicides worldwide were estimated at 468,000 and more than one-third (36%) was assessed to have occurred in Africa, 31% in the Americas, 27% in Asia, 5% in Europe and 1% in the tropical Pacific region (United Nations, 2011). Although they are other factors like economic crises that are capable of causing the rise in incidence of crime globally, it is reported that more than 25% of homicides in America; and approximately 5% in both Asian and European countries are related to organised crimes and the activities of criminal gangs (ibid).

Public Investment: crime affect development when it becomes a problem to public investment. When crime rate is high, it reduces the level of countries' domestic and foreign investment. Havi (2014) averred that investors understand crimes as signs of social instability and can drive up the cost of doing business. The higher the crime rate in a country the lower the country's productive level (Havi, 2014). Relatedly, Rios (2016) submitted that crime is capable of reducing number of tourists that visit regions, capable of discouraging business investments, and stifling economic growth. He added that, when crime incidence increases in an area, it reduces the number of sectors operating in that area, limits economic diversifications, increases market concentrations, and diminishes economic complexity. His work further conservatively revealed that any increase of 22.5% in the rate of homicides reduces by one the number of different sectors that produce in an area. Also, his text analysis with a substantial data that targeted identification of where criminal organizations operate, indicated that any increase of 9.8% in criminal presence eliminates one economic sector (Ibid).



Private Investment: another critical area of crime effects on development is the impediment to private investment. Violence crimes exert high levels of qualms, low returns of expectations, high production costs, and many other encumbrances which posit negative impacts on the productive capacity of nations globally. For instance, considering the prevalence of violence crime in Jamaica, Campbell (2011) averred that incidents of violent crimes can “deter and dissuade investors from selecting Jamaica as an investment hub” owing to the obvious implications of violent crimes on the country’s productive capacity. Acevedo & Garcia-Perez (2015) investigated the role of crimes in the determination of future private investments in the countries of South America. They found that crime and violence affect attractiveness to private investment – internal and external in South America. They also found that crime has a negative effects in the rate of private investment by at least 0.287% to 0.322%, for each 1% increase in country-specific crime levels. However, they concluded that the effects may be higher since crime has medium term effect on the present value of private investment rates, and that these effects would be transferred across years.

Barrier to Educational Attainment/Achievement: some persons are forced to drop out of conventional education programs due to their own criminal behaviour or delinquency. Such persons normally start off with in-school suspensions, which evolve into out-of-school suspensions and, ultimately, to expulsions (Gordon, 2009). In addition, it is prudent to mention that crime (example, sexual assault/harassment, theft, robbery, etc) precipitate high school dropouts and other problems. MacMillan & Hagan (2004) are of opinion that students affected by crime suffer academically, while Ringwalt, Ennett, and Johnson (2003) stated that such students have poorer school attendance rates. School safety and students’ protection are very strongly connected to crime. In the words of Gordon (2009):

[...] the more crime a school has, the less safe the students are going to feel, and the less secure they feel, the less they will learn. When students have to worry about their safety on



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a daily basis at a school, the academic experiences very often get left behind. [...] learning becomes secondary very quickly when a child has to worry more about death than failure in the classroom (Gordon, 2009:23).

The work of Rohm (2014) lends evidence that violent crimes (e.g. rape, robbery, etc) have a strong negative effect on academic achievement while non-violent crimes (e.g. drug possession, prostitution, etc) do not.

Crime affect interpersonal relationships of community members by decreasing trust already existing among them: Vila (1994) posited that “crime amplifies mistrust, feeds prejudice, and generally degrades social cohesion” (in Murphy, 1995). In fact, efforts to control crime through the CJS intrude into people’s private lives more and more, threatening personal freedoms of the people. In a more deteriorated neighbourhood, people keep guns within reach, thus, “a knock on the door evokes terror, causing a stranger in need of assistance to be ignored” (Murphy, 1995).

Local Communities and National Governments: crime cost not only individuals who directly loss their property, goods, health and lives to the criminal activities, but also cost the local communities and of course the national government indirectly and perhaps more damaging. This is supported by Ishak (2016) who posited that crime does “not only affects the victims but also threatens the non-victims and society as a whole”. By the way, criminal laws of states provide that states are the primary victims of crime, whilst the individuals are the secondary victims. If crime is seen as the breaking of criminal laws, then it is directly committed against the body that made the law and not the individual (human or animal) victims, whenever it occurs. According to Cohen (2005) the “impact of crime is the economic loss to society”. Be that as it may, insecurity tends to contribute to a weakening of the capacity of already socially disorganised neighbourhoods or communities to develop collective efficacy for crime fighting,



creating vulnerability which sometimes makes the individuals within these communities to take charge of his or her life's protection.

In addition, Havi (2014) assessed the effects of “crime rate on the economic performance in Ghana using VAR approach”. His findings indicated that both the variables, “nominal GDP per capita and crime rate are integrated at first order”. On applying Johansen’s co-integration test, the results show existence of only “short run relationship between both variables”. The findings further show that “correlation coefficient between nominal GDP per capita and crime rate was negative at 0.7826 and significant”. He concluded that the previous records of Ghana crime rate had negative s on the current nominal GDP per capita and that it is elastic. Using Granger Causality Test, the work indicates that crime rate caused economic performance, which he suggested that efforts to reduce crime rate in Ghana will improve nominal GDP per capita.

2.3 Understanding the Concept of Community Policing

Informal mechanisms and sanctions seemed insufficient for creation and maintaining of a desired social order, which resulted in formalised “systems of social control” by states. With the institution of agents of states like Police and legal institutions, states are able to force citizens to kowtow to behavioural codes and of course punish those that do not. The formal social order now becomes remedy and sanction that constitute the present day CJS. Overtime, the agents of the states (Police) became bedeviled with challenges due to consistent increase in crime rate globally. Thus, the need for a change of policing style arises, causing a paradigm shift from the professional or traditional approach (military-like approach) to a more friendly and problem-solving approach. CP approach is proactive in nature as it is characterised by visionary approach, it constantly look ahead and focusing on intervening before the crime is committed unlike the professional approach.



Notwithstanding, CP remains one of the social science concepts with a lot of misconceptions and wider scope in definition. This problem arising from the definition poses a challenge to the law enforcement agencies despite the increasing popularity enjoyed by the concept. This is because CP is frequently conceptualized according to the need and aspiration of where it is adopted. Another point in the conceptual imbroglio is implicit in the philosophical values underpinning the concept. Philosophy, *inter alia*, can be said to be a set of values of an individual or culture (Davies, 1979), and/or personal attitude (Morehead & Morehead, 1981) which may be responsible for the conceptual problem adorning the term CP (Greene & Kebede 2012). Nigerian case is a typical example, there, most police agents and largest members of the public although seem to perceive CP as a model to engender better relationship between the police and community, misconstrue it to be “managed through a departmental function, rather than a policing philosophy that is focused upon providing best quality service and therefore should inform each and every police activity” (DFID, 2000:12). However, in most communities where CP have been introduced, shift from the professional approach to CP was characterized by [re]introducing foot patrol and the police officers returning to the neighborhoods.

According to Kasali & Odetola (2016), CP is an evolving concept which comprises a diversity of philosophical and practical approaches. CP is therefore seen as a popular contemporary policing approach that responds to the decline in public confidence in police; and growing evidence that police forces could not fight crime by themselves alone (Fridell, 2004; Skogan, 2006). According to Balcha (2014), CP is a philosophy (a way of thinking) and an organisational strategy (a way of carrying out the philosophy). His assertion is in tandem with the thinking of Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux who maintain that the philosophy of CP relies on the belief that people are needed to make input into the policing processes by the Police agency, in form of participation and supports. The philosophy also rests on the belief that solutions to contemporary community security problems demand freeing both public and the police to



explore creative and innovative ways to address neighborhood concerns beyond a narrow focus on individual crime occurrence.

The prime objective of CP is centered on positive relationship between the police and the community, achievable through community engagement, and by giving emphasis to collaboration and prevention. To Coquilhat (2008), there are four elements of an ideal CP that include (1) philosophical dimension – the ideas and beliefs that underlie CP (2) strategic dimension – translates philosophies into action (3) tactical dimension – translates philosophy and strategies into concrete programmes, tactics and behaviours (4) organisational dimension – support changes to promote CP. However, crime prevention in practice entails identifying the “communities’ safety needs through consultation, sharing both the decision making and the responsibility of securing the communities; applying a problem solving approach; educating and building the capacities of both parties to enable a problem solving approach (Ndukui, 2009). To Skogan (2006), CP has three core elements, thus, involving of citizens, problem-solving, and decentralization.

CP concept ensures positive interactions with all elements of the communities to improve the general negative nature of policing already introduced by the traditional approach, enriched through media campaign technique, shop front based officers and accessible mini-stations (Kasali & Odetola, 2016). It is a policy and strategy that is focused on achievement of more effective and efficient crime control, reduction of fear of crime, improvement of quality of life, improvement of police services and police legitimacy, through a proactive reliance on community resources that seek to change crime causing conditions. This calls for a greater accountability of the police agency, greater citizens’ share in decision making and greater concerns for civil rights.



Furthermore, for CP to be successful, it demands organizational [re]structuring and training to support the concept (Skogan, 2006). CP also demands that the implementers set clear mission statements since it can provide opportunities to the police to determine which broad goals of CP they can focus on at a time, and can also encourage police to develop practices that will enable those goals to be achieved (Mastrofski, 2006).

Kasali and Odetola (2016) opined that for Police to nurture police-community collaboration in tackling community issues, the agency must seek community input, achievable through different methods, like *door-to-door visits* by police officers to the citizen's residences, mail-out surveys, and residential block meetings or community fora (Kasali & Odetola, 2016).

2.3.1 Elements of Community Policing

CP philosophy accentuates the principle of crime prevention and a way of finding lasting solutions to crime problems through fundamental policing practices. This necessitates new thinking from police officers and new commitment from citizens. Police is required to strike a strong relationship with the community, building confidence and trust among each other. Fundamental to CP are three indispensable and complementary components that focus on crime prevention and organisational improvement. These include community partnerships, problem solving, and organizational transformation (see figure 2.1).



Figure 2.1: Elements of Community Policing

Source: Community Oriented Policing Services, US Department of Justice (COPS-USDJ), 2014

Community Partnerships

CP enables citizens to partner with local police to combat crime more actively in their neighbourhoods. Community Partnerships, also called collaborative partnerships, is one of the elements of CP that connotes a relationship between Police agencies and community members, including various organisations within the catchment areas, aiming at developing solutions to various crime problems and to increase trust and confidence in police. CP like other development philosophies, requires that the people including (ordinary people) who are the owners of the development process are given the opportunity to participate in how they are being policed. The range of potential partners is huge, and these partnerships can be used to achieve two interconnected goals of building solutions to problems through collaborative problem-solving and improvement of public trust (USDJ, 2014). The concept of Community Partnership ensures that the citizens play roles in identifying and solving public safety issues. For instance, the Kenya Police on its website affirms that CP is an approach to policing which rests upon partnership between the police and the community (www.kenyapolice.go.ke). Furthermore, Fridell (2004) is of the view that for Police to play significant roles in CP, they “should not be separated from” the community “but rather joined in partnership with the community”. This is because crime problems can only be addressed with community participation, since residents of the communities where crime is committed are living among the perpetrators and may know them, and probably might have detected something suspicious. In the case of developed World, agents of police are seen as friends, members of the police force actively ask for help from members of the community where crimes are committed and



99% of the time they are sure to get some reasonable tips that will help in solving the riddle (Trojanowicz, et al,1992). The COPS-USDJ (2014) submits that for CP to be effective, the constituted law enforcement agency (Police) should be able to partner strongly “with other Government Agencies, Community Members/Groups, Nonprofits/Service Providers, Private Businesses and Media” (see figure 3 below).



Figure 2.2: Element of Community Policing: Community Partnership

Source: COPS-USDJ, 2014

Other Government Agencies: to enable effective CP implementation, Police should be able to get together with other elements of government organizations to identify community security concerns and offering alternative solutions. The agencies can be legislative institutions, prosecution body, probation and parole, public works department, neighbouring law enforcement agencies, health and human services, child support services, and schools (USDJ, 2014). *Community Members/Groups:* Partnership with community members and groups is very crucial in community policing. For instance, USDJ (2014) suggests that citizens living, working, or otherwise having interest in the community’s wellness (example, volunteers, activists, formal and informal community leaders, residents, visitors and tourists, and



commuters) are to be regarded as valuable resources for identification of security concerns of their community. *Nonprofits/Service Providers*: Groups like “advocacy and community-based organisations” (CBOs) can provide security services to the communities and help to advocate policing and other safety strategies. Therefore integrating them in the partnership circle can bring about effectiveness of CP, as they can be powerful partners. The groups can be composed of persons with common interests and can include such organisations like victims group, service club, support group, advocacy group, community development corporations, and the faith communities (USDJ, 2014). *Private Businesses*: Private business group (profit based enterprise) cannot be left out in the wellness of their communities. They have high stake and can be key partners because apart from the fact that they can provide good information on the modus operandi of criminals as potential victims, they usually bring significant resources to bear in addressing problems of mutual concerns. *Media*: A very powerful apparatus by which communication with the communities is made effective is the media. The media can assist with the issues relating to publicizing CP strategies and/or concerns and available solutions, like government services, police and community agencies, including new laws/codes to be enforced. Additionally, the media can have a significant impact on public perceptions of the police agencies, community leaders, crime problems, fear of crime, and the concept of CP (ibid).

Problems-Solving

This is another component of CP which was defined by the US Department of Justice (USDJ) as “the process of engaging in the proactive and systematic examination of identified problems to develop and evaluate effective responses” (USDJ, 2014). CP accentuates proactive problem-solving in a systematic and routine fashion. Problem-solving technique helps police organisations to proactively identify public safety problems and develop solutions to them, instead of responding to the problem when it has occurred already. A major conceptual drivers



for helping police officers to think about problem-solving in a well-structured way is the SARA – scanning, analysis, response, and assessment problem-solving model (see figure 2.4)

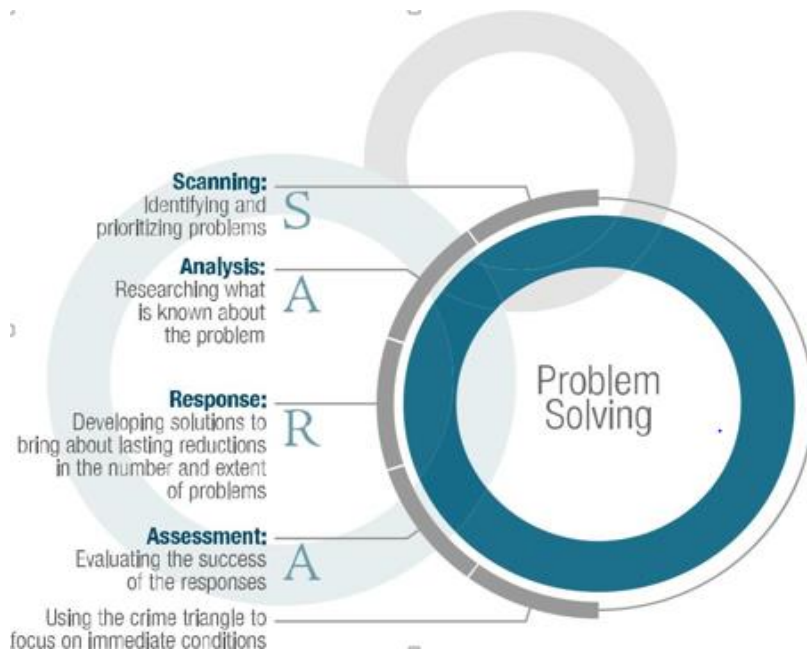


Figure 2.3: Element of Community Policing: Problem Solving

Source: COPS-USDJ, 2014

Scanning: Identifying and Prioritising Problems. According to the US department of justice, the objectives of scanning are to identify basic problems, determine the nature of those problems, determine the scope of seriousness of the problems, and establish baseline measures for solving the them (USDJ, 2014). An all-encompassing list of stakeholders for the selected problems is usually identified in this stage. The security problems concerning the police and the community can be identified in different ways, including understanding various incidences that are occurring in similar forms. The security or crime problems can be a kind of behavior, “a place, a person or persons, a special event or time, or a combination of any of these” (ibid).

Analysis: Researching what is known about the problem. This is the “heart of the problem-solving process” of which aims are to come up with an understanding of the dynamics of the problems, develop an understanding of the limitations of current responses, establish



correlation, and develop a clear cause and effect. As a segment of the analysis, it is necessary to investigate as many as possible about all aspects of the crime triangle by asking who, what, when, where, how, why, and why not about the victims, offenders, and crime locations (ibid).

Response: Developing solutions for lasting reductions in the number and extent of problems.

Response stage of SARA model involve “developing and implementing strategies to address identified problems by searching for strategic responses that are both broad and uninhibited” (USDJ, 2014:5). The response is expected to be logical, tapping from the lessons learned during analysis and have to be tailored to the specific problems. The response can be channeled towards total elimination of the problems, substantial reduction of the problems, lessening the amount of harm caused by the problems, or improvement of the quality of community cohesions (ibid). *Assessment: Evaluating the success of the responses.* Assessment phase checks whether the response strategies were successful by understanding if the problem reduced and if the response contributed to the reduction (USDJ, 2014).

Using the Crime Triangle to Focus on Immediate Conditions (Victim/Offender/Location):

Visualizing associations among the victims, offenders, and locations (the crime triangle) plus those factors that are capable of having impacts on them are the primary focus of many crime problem-solvers in an attempt to understand crime problem (USDJ, 2014). For example, as depicted in figure 2.4, capable guardians (security guards, teachers and neighbours) for victims, handlers (parents, friends) for offenders, and managers (business merchants, park employees) for locations are very important aspect of problem-solving approach (ibid).





Figure 2.4: Crime Triangle

Source: *COPS-USDJ, 2014*

In application of community policing strategy, once the main concerns of the people have been identified, problem-solving will thus demands analysing information about the crime problems to understand who is being victimised and how, when and exactly where the problems occur and what environmental (or other) conditions are capable of influencing crime occurrence. Upon establishing or understanding how the problem is occurring, tailor-made solutions can jointly be developed and implemented by the police agency and the community members (USDJ, 2014). The police and the members of the communities work together for success definition and to measure the impact of their efforts.

Organisational Transformation

Organisational transformation or organisational management, or simply, organisation change management is the third component of CP centric to [re]aligning Police organisations and strategies to the new paradigm of policing. The USDJ defined organizational transformation as the “alignment of organizational management, structure, personnel, and information systems to support community partnerships and proactive problem solving” (USDJ, 2014:6). Managing change properly here demands recognising the need for change, a clear communication of



vision statement that change is possible, identification of concrete steps required for positive change to occur, developing a good understanding of the benefits of change, and creation of an organisation-wide commitments to change. The focus of CP here is on the way Police are organized and managed including making infrastructural changes to support the philosophical shift behind CP. Organisational transformation helps police agencies to apply modern management practices in order to increase efficiency and effectiveness. CP therefore demands changes in organisational structures to institutionalise its adoption and infusion throughout the organisation's department, the way it is managed and organised, its personnel, and its technology inclusive.

Agency Management: CP model enables police institution to infuse CP principles in all the departments by ensuring a number of critical changes in climate and culture, leadership, formal labour relations, decentralized decision making and accountability, strategic planning, policing and procedures, organisational evaluations, and increased transparency (USDJ, 2014). *Climate and Culture:* changing the climate and culture by ensuring proactive orientation that values systematic problem-solving and partnerships (ibid). *Leadership:* agency leaders serve as role models, capable of taking risks and building concerted relationships for CP implementation. They should be able to use their positions to influence and educate others about the concept, constantly emphasising and reinforcing CP vision, values, and mission within their organization. *Labour Relations:* Involving labour groups in organisational changes can guarantee support for the imperative changes in implementing CP. *Decision Making:* effective CP demands decentralisation in both command structure and decision-making. Decentralised decision-making allows frontline-officers to take responsibility for their role in CP. When officers are able to provide solutions to the community problems and taking risks, they will ultimately feel accountable for such solutions and shoulder greater responsibility for the well-being of the community. *Strategic Planning and Policies:* Police organisations requires a





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 written statement stating clearly the department wide commitment to CP, including a plan that can match operational needs to available resources and expertise. The ‘mission statement’ components of the organisation and the core-values should be simple and widely communicated. *Organisational Evaluations*: this is conjunctive to the normal indicators of police performance, that is, arrests, response times, and crime rates. CP demands for widening of police measurement outcomes to encompass better community satisfaction, less fear of crime, the alleviation of problem, and improvement in quality of lives. *Transparency*: If the community is to be a full partner, the police agency need mechanisms to share information that are relevant on crime and social disorder problem and police operation with the communities (USDJ, 2014:7). *Organisational Structure*: organisational structure helps to ensure that local patrol-officers have power to make decision and can be accountable for their actions, achievable through long-term assignment, developing of officers who are generalists, and by appropriate use of special units. *Geographic Assignment of Officers*: long-period assigning of agency officers to ‘specific neighbourhoods or areas’. Geographic deployments plan helps to improve customer services and facilitates more contact between police and residents, thus establishing a strong relationship and mutual accountability” (ibid). *De-specialisation*: achieving CP goals demands multitask-ability, in other words, police agents should be capable to handle multiple responsibilities and to adopt a team method for collaborative problem-solving and partnership with the community. Although there is a need to establish a special unit for CP operation, CP calls for the entire agency, not just by special units. *Personnel, Resources and finances*: CP principles should be ingrained in all the agency personnel systems, which include recruitments, hiring, selection, and retention of all law enforcement agency personnel, from sworn officers to civilians, volunteers inclusive (USDJ, 2014). *Recruitment, Hiring, and Selection*: Police should have a way of incorporating CP ingredients into their recruitments, selections, and hiring processes. Description of jobs should recognise CP, problem-solving responsibility and



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encouraging the recruitment of officers who have a “spirit of service” instead of only a “spirit of adventure” (USDJ, 2014). CP agencies as well should be able to seek community involvement in the recruitment process by identifying “competencies and participation in review boards” (ibid).

Training: CP agencies are required to take training and retraining very serious. This training must be at all levels, example, “academy, field, and in-service”, that supports CP principle and tactics. The training methods should be able to “encourage creative thinking”, and “proactive orientations, communication and analytical skills, including techniques for dealing with quality of life concerns and maintenance of order (ibid). Personnel needs training for identification and correction of conditions capable of leading to crime, and for raising public awareness, and engaging communities in finding solutions to problems. *Information Systems (Technology):* CP should be information intensive. However, technology can play a critical role in the provision of access to quality information. Accurate and timely information can make problem solving approach more effective and can ensure that officers are informed about the crime and community conditions (USDJ, 2014). *Quality and Accuracy of Data:* information should be as good as its source. CP demands agents to put reasonable safeguards in place to enable collection of adequate information from various sources in a systematic fashion. The information gathered can be sent into a central system that is linked to all other ones and further linked to one another, check for accuracy can be made as it is necessary for effective strategic planning, problem-solving, and performance (ibid).

2.3.2 Effectiveness of Community Policing Strategies

CP has been adjudged effective in Edmonton, Detroit and Japan (Bayley, in Ndukui, 2009). For instance, in Edmonton, Canada; the police departments analyzed “calls for service” and got what they called “21 major hot spots of crime and disorder”, areas police received more calls



www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh requesting for assistance and where patrol activities concentrate most. It is revealed that each of these hot-spots had a constable deployed there as “primary agent of policing, supported by mobile patrols in the traditional way” (ibid). One of the constable’s duties is to set up a police office, recruit volunteers from/within the community to help the police diagnose crime problems of the community, and to come up with action plans to meet the problems that residents of those ‘hot spots’ consider critical (ibid). CP officers employed foot patrol at regular bases in the communities. However, vehicles given to them were mainly for “transportation from the police station to wherever they work” (Ndukui, 2009:21). In Detroit, U.S.A; CP program begun in the 1976 with “ninety-three mini-stations” and has almost covered the whole Detroit. The 93 stations were purely dedicated to crime prevention activities within the communities and the deployed officers were not answering calls for service, but rather working with the communities to promote CP program arrangements established as ‘Neighbourhood Watch’. According to Ndukui (2009), the mini stations relied mostly on volunteers from the communities for help in the implementation and promotion of CP. Also, the Japanese CP model, reformed after World War II although relied on “older traditional elements”, was centered on ‘16,500 *koban*’, or mini police stations, distributed all over Japan. However, out of the total number of the kobans 6,500 operated in cities and towns whilst 10,000 were in rural areas. At least a neighborhood police station of this type exists within 6 or 7 blocks of every urban resident in Japan. However, fewer than 50% of all people requiring police services in the area prefer going to the police in person instead of calling through the telephone. Officers in these *Koban* and *Chuzaiso* do many things to ensure crime prevention in the areas, including regularly patrolling on foot and responding to residents’ requests for service (Ndukui, 2009; Meutia, 2016). The police officers were making visit twice per year to every home and businesses in the communities, they knock on doors, pulling out information on what crime problems the

residents face which were basically used for promotion of crime prevention and offering of security inspections. These efforts have yielded a lot of results (Meutia, 2016).

Mwaniki (2016) maintains that community residents may not like to involve themselves in any activities with the Police when they are afraid or suspicious of the agency, but when in contrary, they can be very comfortable to provide information on criminal activities in their area. That is to say that issues of confidence and trust very essential in understanding effectiveness of CP. It is also revealed that the use of distress call contact (911 in the case of America) may increase – residents will report a lot of crime incidences during the early period CP is implemented, as “community confidence in police capability rises and community trust increases” (Mwaniki, 2016). The increase and decrease of the calls overtime provides quantitative measures of the effectiveness of CP (ibid). For example, literature revealed that distress calls in the pioneering Flint of Michigan (foot patrol district) dropped 43% during the experiment period (Robert, 1993).

Vehicle Patrol: Intensive Vehicle patrol is one of the CP strategies for crime reduction. According to Meyer and Van (2011), patrolling neighborhood with vehicle, seven days a week, is the key component of London Police crime reduction strategy. Each member of the patrol group used his/her private vehicle, and patrol equipment (amber patrol lights and signs) collected from patrol stations in the area (Meyer & Van, 2011). The authors also revealed that only 18% of crimes were committed during times when patrollers were on duty, whilst the rest 82% took place when there were no patrols. It is therefore clear that criminals avoided the area during patrol period. That is to say that criminals adapted by purposefully targeting their victims when no patrollers were active. In order to address this gap, the neighbourhood watch arranged additional patrols and asked patrollers to change their normal patterns with intention to send out a message to criminals that residents are preparing for a 24 hour patrolling schedule (ibid).





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Foot and Bicycle Patrol: like vehicle patrols, foot patrols seem to have impressive value in the mind of residents. In other words, the strategy gives impression of security in the neighbourhood (Trojanowicz, 1986), improves citizens' satisfaction with the police and the police image. Foot patrols is adjudged the oldest form of police patrols for crime prevention (Godfrey, 2012). However, the use dropped in the few centuries prior the emergence of CP tool which later intensified it as one of the effective strategies for crime prevention. The location has to be small enough so that the patrollers can have the opportunity to patrol it several times per shift. However, to cover large areas, a combination of foot patrol and bicycle patrol (park and walk) or other personal transport system is needed for effective crime prevention (Godfrey, 2012). Jones and Tilley (2004) and Ratcliffe et al. (2011) (cited in Karn, 2013) have equally show that in the United Kingdom, foot patrols have helped reduce personal robberies, and in Philadelphia, targeted foot patrols were found to have significantly reduced violent crimes respectively. According to Jackson and Bradford (2009), foot patrols were launched in Newark (of New Jersey) in the beginning of 2008 and took the shape of walks around their targeted communities where groups of between 12 and 30 neighbours walked around streets in the neighborhood. They indicated that good level of crime prevention was recorded, that was not alone, good relationships among neighbours were fostered as a result of the walks. It was as well helpful in recruiting new members from the communities and in identifying crime risk or security gap which are not easily detected through car patrol, like broken fences or stolen man holes (Jackson & Bradford, 2009).

Visibility Strategy: Police visibility is deemed to have a suppressive effect on crime and besides, boosts public sense of safety. Even though there are no randomized experimental studies on a large scale concerning the actual effects of visibility policing on crime reduction, yet, as noted by Koper & Mayo-Wilson (2012), studies conducted in US and Colombia suggested that directed or concentrated patrols in high firearm crime areas can lead to reduction in gun use and

firearm related violence. Studies conducted by Police Foundation (1981) and Ratcliffe et al. (2011) respectively suggested that directed patrols or increase patrol time especially at micro geographic area or crime hot spots help reduce fear of crime and violent crime. Nonetheless, increase police patrol time or frequent physical presence of the police in a given crime spot or community, has the capacity to reduce crime and enhance the public sense of safety which is a foundation for any development.

Door to Door Visit and Community Forum: to start CP, one has to start a Community Policing Forum (CPF) (Mwaniki, 2016). Apart from regularly patrolling on foot in order to prevent crime, increase trust and public confidence, police agents should as well pay visits to each home and businesses in their communities (at least twice a year) knocking on doors and asking what problems people have. Such occasions are utilised to promote crime prevention and to offer security inspections (Ndukui, 2009). In Chicago, CP program was begun in 1993. That period, CP was aggressively marketed by the community organisations and police officers facilitated through walking into the targeted neighbourhoods once a month, knocked on doors, talked to the residents, and enquired from them their security challenges. Owing to this strategy, level of awareness of CP presence increased from 61% to 79% among adults. 61% were aware of the community forums, whilst 28% attended at least one forum in the previous year. The agency were reported to be very active in beseeching the communities to be involved in solving the quality of life issues that are germane to their community (Tillman, 2000). Participants were revealed to have attended in average, “four meetings per year”. And more than half of the citizens contacted the police whilst 80% thought police presence helped and were treated politely and 70% were satisfied with the general outcome (ibid). Furthermore, CPF can be regarded as the meeting of different groups comprising the Police Officers and committees of local leaders, residents, and community-based organisations with the aim of identifying and solving problems in their communities (ibid).



Street sheriff programme: in the case of Newark, Jackson & Bradford (2009) posited that in the pursuit of effectiveness of CP and to have as many neighbours as possible in partnership, the neighbourhood watch management committee resolved to appoint “street sheriffs” from the community. A street sheriff is a community safety champion at street level, as well as a recruiter of new members (Jackson & Bradford, 2009). They added that the “role of the street sheriff is to take care of the safety needs of residents in a street”. Also, townhouse complex sheriffs have been assigned as safety champions in townhouse complexes. The function of the street sheriff is to mobilize residents to support the neighborhood watch and to promote safety awareness in streets.

2.3.3 Challenges Facing Implementation of Community Policing

Despite the successes of CP in many countries, achieved through CP core principles, there are some challenges encountered especially in the informal settlements. Unfriendliness, lack of trust, low confidence, low awareness/sensitisation, and many other impediments existing between the police and community members can hamper successful implementation of CP. That is to say that, when partnership is low (officers make decisions alone) CP implementation can be hampered, as such situation creates room for corruption among the officers. At the global level for example, Newham (2004) found that poor relationship between the community of Kliptown in South Africa and the police exists. He maintains that mistrust exists between the CP Force representatives and certain sections of the community owing to apathy and corruption on the neck of many police officers. Police officers were taking bribes from criminal suspects known to be robbers and drug dealers in the area (Newham, 2004 in Ndukui, 2009). According to Pelser (1999), lack of basic resources like “trust, education, incremental resources, full partnership”, inadequate personnel largely undertrained and under-skilled, hierarchical organisation of staff which impedes individual innovations and the continuing lack of a coherent and integrated training, deployment, developments and succession strategies geared



towards enhancing local level service delivery are challenges facing CP implementation in South Africa (Pelser, 1999).

In Tanzania, the national police force is under-resourced (Spuy & Rontsch, 2008) while in Uganda, there is “limited community consultation and limited training and training materials” (Makara, 2008 in Ndukui, 2009). Other challenges include lack of proper training of CP officers, lack of/low understanding of the concept by the stakeholders handling the implementation process, and inability of the trainers and implementers of the concept to differentiate CP from traditional/professional policing. Indisputably, literature shows that the desirable goals of CP can be compromised if the practitioners and/or implementers are not adequately trained (Uganda Police Force, 2017). This is evident in Kratcoski and Noonan’s (1995) study on “attitudes of rank-and-file officers”. Their study was conducted at two police departments where CP training was not introduced before CP implementation and was found out that many of the officers who participated in the implementation did not understand the concept of CP, and many of the responses from the officers appeared to be guarded, noncommittal, or negative. The research indicated that 63.3% of the officers of one department stated that the Mini-Station Program was not important and that 60.6% of officers of the other department believed the same (in Kasali & Odetola, 2016). Consequently, they recommended that CP training must be made an “integral part of the police academy program”. Be that as it may, CP training is a key factor affecting the success or failure of CP programs (Kasali & Odetola, 2016). Issues of resistance also exist among police agencies – they see the concept to be unfavourable to them. It is obvious that when a new change is to be implemented in an organisation, employees feel threatened, and thereby try to resist the change. Nigerian case is an example. According Alemika and Chukwuma (1998), there is widespread corruption, poor quality Police officers, lack of adequate training, hostile police public relationship, and the ill-equipped police are the major challenge bedeviling CP in Nigeria. Most officers of the NPF





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engaging in CP training have been faced with challenges of departing from the traditional form of policing in terms of relationships and partnership with communities, making their relationship with the communities to be considered uncordial (Dickson, 2007).

In the case of Ghana, the work of Acheampong (2015) shows that the major challenges facing CP in Ghana hovers around inadequate human and material resources. Her qualitative data revealed that “*Community Policing is expensive and they lack adequate funds to provide the needed logistics such as bicycles, motor bikes and vehicles, as well as the personnel to do an effective policing of the communities*”. The research also found that “poor collaboration between local government agencies was also a challenge for CP activities”. In addition, she maintained that “the community themselves were apathetic in developing strong partnership with the police, whilst the police revealed that they are reluctant to give the needed information concerning any suspicious events that occur within their neighbourhood due to the social cohesion that exist among them” (Acheampong, 2015:98). Again, “poor spatial planning of settlements and access routes within neighbourhoods” have been identified as challenges facing CP, especially foot patrol strategy in Ghana (ibid). Other challenges capable of inhibiting success of CP in Ghana can be inherent in the mode of adoption of the philosophy. This is because, CP in Ghana lack beat officers to take charge of the implementation per communities as practiced in other places, especially in the developed countries. In Ghana, CP is practiced by recruiting some individuals at national level through the National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP), an agency under the ministry of Youth and Sports, and deployed back to their original communities as community police or community police assistants (CPAs). This is accompanied by deploying one or two CP desk officers to the various district commands to enable interaction and partnership with the CPAs and the community stakeholders. The duty of the CPAs is to report crime to the police. They also alert the police when and wherever they

spot any crime scene. However, this method can undermine CP philosophy as it has no much different from the traditional policing mechanism where police relax at the police stations waiting for crime to be reported before taking action.

2.4 Relevant Theories on Crime and Crime Management

CP is a democratic police administration philosophy with three core and very crucial elements: residents' involvement (also known as community partnership), problem solving, and organisational transformation (decentralization or organisational Management). All the three elements are very important and related, but residents' involvement (partnership) is especially critical because it is the basis of the theoretical foundation of CP (Skogan, 2005). However, a perfunctory review of literature shows that, notwithstanding successes of CP, there exist no scientific (logical, predictable, or refutable) theory that explains, predicts and refutes the practices of CP. This is because the mainstream CP literature begins with a basic observation which informs every theory throughout (ibid). This basic observation is therefore inherent in the 'social disorganisation theory'. The study of CP is very broad, ranging from the conditions conducive for crime occurrence to crime occurrence, and to measures suitable for crime prevention by making the environment of crime less conducive. As a result, multiple theories are needed to explain the process. However, many theories have been used by many scholars to explicate the practices of CP globally. These theories include inter alia: Social Disorganisation theory, Broken Window Theory, Community Implant Hypothesis Theory, Routine Activity Theory, Democratic Theory, Communitarian Theory, Participatory Theory, Collective Efficacy Theory, etc. However, literature indicate that all of these theories have been studied as offshoots of 'socially disorganised neighbourhood'. It is, nevertheless, necessary to adopt the most relevant among the above as it is difficult to use one theory to explain the study of CP considering its vastness. This section therefore, will lean on three of the theories to



underscore the study at hand. They include the Social Disorganisation, Broken Window, and Routine Activity theories

2.4.1 The Social Disorganisation Theory (SDT)

SDT was propounded by Clifford Shaw & Henry D. McKay in 1942 which is based on the notion that disorganised neighbourhoods cause crime because “informal social controls broke down” and “criminal cultures emerge”. Their collective efficacy to fight crime and disorder is lost (Sozer, 2008). According to Shaw and McKay, the consequences of urbanisation and its impact on crime rates have received greater academic attention particularly in the developed world (cited in Lersch, 2007). For example, residential areas of juveniles known as Chicago courts were examined using spatial maps by Shaw and McKay (1942). They found that ‘rates of crime’ weren’t uniformly spread “across time and space” in Chicago. Rather, crime was observed to concentrate in some parts of the city and ‘remained relatively stable’ across diverse areas in spite of the populations of people that were continuously changing per area. Neighborhoods observed to have high crime rates, consistently remained high irrespective of diverse racial or ethnic group that resided per time. However, groups prone to crime moved to areas with low crime rates in the city, “their rate of criminal activity decreased” in order to match with the low rates characteristics of that area. Owing to this result, Shaw and McKay concluded that crime was a function of neighbourhood dynamics, and not necessarily a “function of the individuals” within neighbourhoods.

The Police agency understand social disorganisation as an embodiment of responsibility for addressing the social menace that affect quality of life and social disorder problems for prevention of more serious and potential crimes, and that action must be taken specifically to improve the capacity of neighborhoods to employ informal social control. SDT emphasizes the importance of organising neighbourhoods in the ‘change processes’, primarily to develop

formal social control elements within the neighborhoods and not just increasing enforcement by police agents. Communities can be [re]organised through partnership and problem solving tactics obtainable by walking into the communities, talking to local business owners or investors regularly to help in identifying their problems and various concerns, pay visit regularly to citizens in their various homes, diagnose their security challenges, offer security advice, help to organise and support neighbourhood watch groups for the communities and regularly organising community forum.

SDT is said to be “narrower in scope than the overreaching CP philosophy and fits well within the CP context” (Wanjohi, 2014:35). Unlike CP, social disorganisation does not attempt to identify specific organisational changes in law enforcement agencies that are necessary to institutionalise crime prevention as a police interventions (ibid). Though the critics of the theory argue that it fails to measure its primary construct of social disorganisation, including, enquiring from citizens how many of their neighbors they know by their name and how often an eye is kept on children in peer groups who engage in activities unsupervised. Positioning the theory within the wider CP concept will help to advance the organisational changes necessary to make social disorganisation interventions successful and to enhance sustainable development.

2.4.2 The Routine Activity Theory (RAT)

The RAT was propounded by Lawrence E. Cohen and Marcus Felson in 1979 published in the *American Sociological Review* as “Social Change and Crime Rate Trends: A Routine Activity Approach”. They focused on destructive crimes, defined as illegal acts that cause direct damage to persons and society at large. It also involve stealing persons and/or properties of another. They argued that opportunities for crime are likely to be made present and accessible during routine activities in a socially disorganised neighbourhood so that when (1) a potential offender meets (2) a suitable target in the absence of (3) a capable guardian (Cohen & Felson, 1979),



crime will most definitely occur. The three elements are the necessary ingredients that make it possible for crime to occur. They influence and interact with each other within an environmental setting, which are also influenced by other forces in the external environment. The external environmental forces which are pertinent to crime prevention strategies are either situations that are inherent or beyond the control of the individual, such as weather, time, season, terrain, etc. or situations which can be influenced by man such as poverty, ignorance, injustices, fear, etc. both situations influences everyday life. To that effect, a potential offender is regarded as the main actor of crime, and of course, “some individuals in modern society are potential offenders” (Clarke & Weisburd, 1994). A suitable target is “something that might appeal to an offender” (Felson, 2006). Whilst a capable guardians are effective deterrents for an offender; for example, security guards (formal or informal) patrolling an area (ibid). Thus, destructive crimes must occur when willing or motivated offenders come in contact with a vulnerable target that can be surpassed in a time and space context. In other words, the theory examines how work, recreation, spending patterns and everyday involvement in routine activities contribute to the likelihood of a motivated offender to commit crime (Lersch, 2007). The Routine Activities Approach, however, operate at the level of society or organization and the main idea is centered on how crimes can be discovered and how to prevent an opportunity conducive for their occurrence by neutralising potential offenders.

However, the theory was criticized for taking offenders as given (control theory of Hirschi, 1969). In response, Felson’s later works in 1986 took into consideration informal social control of offenders (Felson, 1986; Acheampong, 2015). Consequently, the new work introduced a two-step account of the control theory. These accounts include how society establishes social bonds and as a result, attaches a ‘handler’ to each individual; and the task of identifying exactly who is breaking the rules. As development increases, opportunity for crime presents itself and people tend to migrate from rural areas to where development has taken place, where no one

recognises them in order to explore crime opportunities, break the rules and leave unnoticed. To this end, Cohen and Felson explains that a *guardian* supervises a *suitable target*, while Felson's new routine activity approach explains that a *handler* supervises the likely offender (see figure 2.5, section 2.5.2). Apparently, the two versions indicate that direct physical contact between the guardian/handler and the suitable targets/likely offender can discourage crime occurrence. Hence, for any social control to be effective in any society, keeping suitable targets close to capable guardians and likely offenders close to intimate handlers is imperative (Acheampong, 2015).

2.4.3 Broken Window Theory (BWT)

This theory was popularized by James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling (American criminologists) in an article (*Broken Window: The Police and Neighbourhood safety*) which appeared in the March 1982 edition of *The Atlantic Monthly*, based on the supposition that “disorder and crime are linked in a developmental sequence” (Prabhu, 2010:63). BWT is an elaboration of RAT in the sense that the broken of windows occurs owing to lack of capable guardianship in a socially disorganised neighbourhood where informal social control has been lost or weak. Hence, “a socially organised society is an exact replica of families caring for their homes, confidently interrogating intruders and suspicious behaviours, and ensuring stability with less in and out movement within the community” (Acheampong, 2015:25). The theory explains that when a motivated offender broke a window in a building, and the broken window is further abandoned or left unrepaired, motivation of the offenders goes higher, and consequently, more or the rest of the windows are broken. However, this motivation is stimulated by the absence of capable guardianship and the signal that no one cares in the community due to the unrepaired window, therefore, breaking more windows may not result to any official punishment. Signs of disorders that lead to broken windows may include “street drunks, drug peddlers and addicts, attack of pedestrians by panhandlers and physical unsanitary





conditions like masses of litter all over the neighbourhood are signs of community deterioration, which leads to breakdown of informal community control and social organisation” (Wilson & Kelling, 1982, in Acheampong, 2015:25). Vandalism of windows can occur in any community as far as the sense of mutual regards and the obligation of civility are relegated by action that seems to signal lack of common concerns. According to Wilson and Kelling, neighborhoods where properties are abandoned, “weeds grow, windows are broken, and adults stop scolding ill-disciplined children cause families to move out and unattached adults to move in” (Prabhu, 2010:63). In response people start using the streets less frequently, making the streets to become vulnerable and prone to criminal invasions. In this way, when the community withdraw from the streets, more disorders like drugs trafficking, prostitutions, and muggings, surface. BWT is a driving force in every CP programme, owing to the belief that un-attended behaviour can lead to breakdown of community social control, and subsequently to crime. Wilson and Kelling, suggested that the police agencies should “pay urgent and serious attention to disorder and order maintenance policing” (in Prabhu, 2010:63).

Furthermore, the BWT depicts public order offences like vandalism and rowdy behavior as capable of creating a downward spiral of neighborhood deteriorations and fear of crimes which lead to more deteriorations and more serious crimes unless checked by the communities. In addition, steady occurrence of little crimes portray impressions that *nobody cares* about the security wellbeing of the communities and that both the citizens and the police agencies have lost security control of the communities. The theory suggests that when police presence increases in a community and when informal rules of conducts are enforced in the community, a less chaotic and safer atmosphere can be achieved. When residents are involved in the activities that partners security wellbeing in their community, rate of crimes can decrease (Palmiotto, 2000). BWT is incorporated into the concept of CP because collective efforts by

both the police and the community members can reduce the rate of crime in the community, especially when the two groups see each other as partners in development.

In line with the Nigerian adage that says “the insect that destroys the vegetable resides right inside the vegetable,” the BWT assumes that most neighborhood crimes are more often than not perpetrated by offenders who reside near the victims; as a result, crime can be regarded mainly as a local problem which can best be solved locally. The theory is very useful in explaining the synergy between the police and the community in crime detection but contemporary developments have belittled the effectiveness of the theory as some crimes are perpetrated by people who are not domiciled in the environment of the crime. An example is cyber-crime, where victims are not necessarily close to the criminals; in fact they are usually miles away from one another.

Notwithstanding, some scholars and criminologists are of different view, challenging the Broken Window theory. For instance, Taylor’s (2001) book (*Breaking away from Broken Windows*) tried determining the source of civilities and finding out if they erode urban life overtime or not. Taylor’s view is that zero tolerance and order to maintain police strategies that target reduction of fear of crime, “may be misdirected and should not be adopted axiomatically” (Taylor, 2001 in Prabhu, 2010:64). He argues that scholars should rather interpret incivility as an offshoot of an “economically disadvantaged neighborhood”, instead of treating it as an indicator of a disorderly and disorganised neighbourhood, so that crime fighting can be seen as more important than grim fighting for long-term reduction in crime (ibid). In the same way, Sampson and Raudenbush (1999) (cited in Prabhu, 2010) argued that disorders and crimes are both indicators of the same explanatory process, which “share common structural and social origins”. They maintained that the causes of crimes are rather the “structural disadvantage and





weak collective efficacy”, i.e. the “ability of a community to regulate its own conduct” (www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh (Lombardo & Lough, 2007 in Prabhu, 2010:64-5).

2.5 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is an analytical tool with variations and contexts used to make conceptual distinctions and to organise ideas. It is used to organise devices in empirical research. However, this section presents the conceptual framework of this study starting from the theories to the variables and to the outcomes of CP. The conceptual framework for this empirical work show that the *presence and good practice of community policing strategies like patrol strategies, door-to-door, community forum, and community empowerment strategy, effective community participation through good level of cordiality between the community leaders and the Police Service, awareness of presence and knowledge of CP functions, trust and public confidence* are signs that there is an effective community policing. From figure 4.5, it can be said that crime prevention, reduction, public safety, and development through community policing are grounded on Social Disorganisation Theory, Routine Activity Theory, and Broken Windows Theory which encourage reorganising disorganised neighbourhood to prevent crimes before they occur. Based on the diagram, the arrows show relationships or connections between each concept and variables. Although, Routine Activity and Broken Windows are offshoots of Socially Disorganised Neighbourhood, they are aligned at same level for easy understanding and applicability of the framework. In this sense, *motivation and opportunity for crime occurrence* presents itself in a disorganised neighbourhood where informal social controls broke down; during routine activities where capable guardians are absence making it possible for potential offenders to meet suitable targets (Cohen & Ferson, 1979); and that when a window in a building is broken by a motivated offender, and the broken window is further abandoned or left unrepaired, motivation of the offender goes higher, hence, *crime occurrence*. However, *crime occurrence induces development*, which calls for

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intervention, thus, the emergence of *community policing*. Furthermore, community policing has three components which include community partnership whereby the Police Service is expected to build partnership with community members and various community groups, community chiefs, NGOs, private business and media; organisational transformation whereby the Police Force require agency management, organisation restructuring, and personnel information system in order to [re]align to the new policing style and community needs; and problem solving which demands that the Police Service become proactive through scanning, analysing, responding to problems and assessing results. To achieve effective community policing implementation, these components are further driven by community policing strategies and effective community participation. Finally, effective community policing should lead to crime prevention, crime reduction, public safety, and aid development (see 4.5 below).



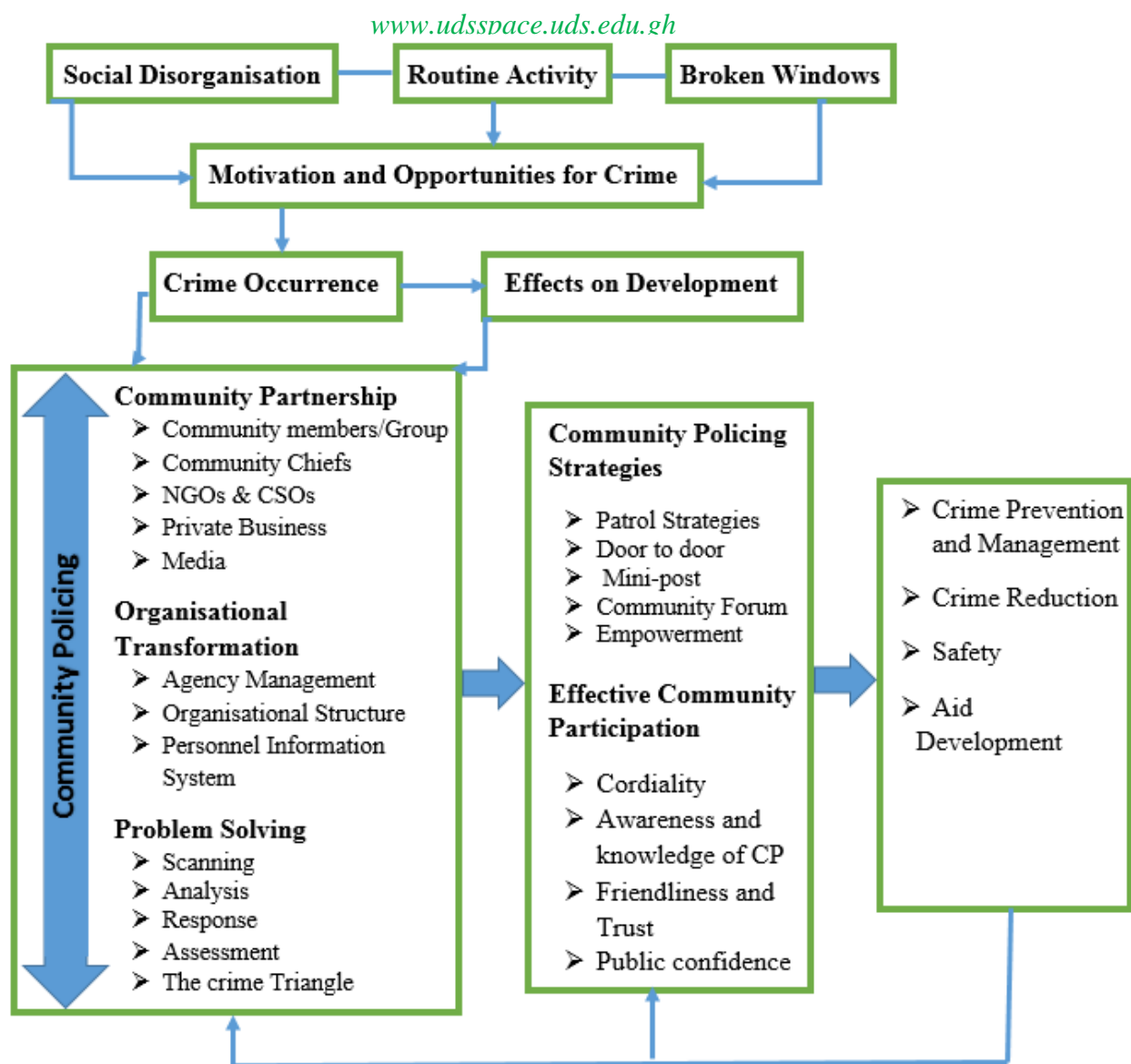


Figure 2.5: Conceptual Framework of Community Policing

Source: Author's construct, 2019



RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the profile of the study area, and research methodology. The profile comprises an overview of the Ghana Police Service in the Municipality and a description of the Municipality. The essence is to describe the study area and thus, the context in which I conducted the study. The second part is the methodology and this comprises the research design, the philosophical underpinning, data sources, the sampling procedure used in determining the sample size, description of research instruments, validity and reliability of instruments, methods of data collection, method of data analysis, ethical considerations, and the challenges of the study.

3.2 The Ghana Police Service and Municipal Police Command

In terms of security provision, there exist both formal and informal arrangement in ensuring community safety and protecting lives and property globally, Ghana inclusive. In the context of an increasing population in Ghana, especially in urban areas of the country, increasingly complex society with upsurge of commercial and private property, the role of the state, and particularly the police has become crucial (Atuguba, 2007 in Acheampong, 2015). Ghana has embraced constitutional democratic dispensation which espouse rule of law and administrative justice. As established under article 190, with a stated organizational structure under article 200 of the 1992 Constitution of The Republic of Ghana, the Ghana Police Service (GPS) constitute the primary state agency mandated to protect lives and property and also charged with the responsibility to maintain law and order. Specifically, Article 200 (3) of the constitution states that “the Ghana Police Service shall be equipped and maintained to perform its traditional role



of maintaining law and order in the country”. Article 41 (i) enjoins citizens to cooperate with lawful agencies in the maintenance of law and order.

Historically, traditional (professional) policing was introduced by the British Colonial government to the Republic of Ghana (Gold Coast, then) in 1821 (<https://police.gov.gh>) with the aim of ensuring “trade security and the protection of the colonial apparatuses” (Tankebe, 2009). Before this period, policing in form of maintenance of law and order was managed by the “traditional authorities such as the local headsmen and chiefs, who employed unpaid messengers to carry out the executive and judicial functions in their respective communities” (<https://police.gov.gh>). The operations of the traditional authorities were largely within the domain of crime prevention and apprehension of people who broke traditional laws and customs (CHRI, 2007 in Acheampong, 2015). In the year 1894, the Police institution was made official with the passing of the Police Ordinance, giving legal authority for the establishment of a Civil Police Force which is now known as Ghana Police Service. The force was later split into institutions called General, Escort, Mines and Railway Police around 1902, legalised by the Police [Amendment] Ordinance of 1904. Although dropped and replaced with “Customs Excise and Preventive Service” in 1942, the Marine Police was created in 1916. The CID was constituted in “1921 with the finger print section fully operational in 1922”. The Police Reserves Unit was constituted in 1948, empowered to “combat riotous mobs, following the 1948 riots in the country”. In June 1950, the wireless and Communications Unit was established which saw the “formal opening of the Police Information Room in Accra by the then Governor of the Gold Coast, Sir Charles Noble Arden Clark”. However, 1952 saw to the large recruitment of African people into the “Police Force as junior officers”. Around that same year, the women branch of the service was constituted and empowered with the responsibility of handling “Juvenile crimes and offences committed by women”. The motto of GPS was later formed as



“Service with Integrity” (<https://police.gov.gh>). As stated in the Police Service Act, 1970 [Act 350] of Ghana the functions of the GPS are as follows;

- Crime detection and prevention
- Apprehension (arrest) and prosecution of offenders
- Maintenance of law and order
- Due enforcement of the law (<https://police.gov.gh>).

However, the police as an institution of the state has been faced with the challenges of changing its modus operandi from that of curtailing human rights and oppressing individual seen as a threat to the colonial and military regimes, to an institution that is discharging its role to maintain law and order under a constitutional and democratic dispensation since 1992 (Atuguba, 2009). The GPS operates under a unified command, with the Inspector General of Police (IGP) as head, who is also the administrative head of the service. Moreover, other administrative roles have been devolved to other echelons of the GPS including Commissioner of Police, Deputy Commissioner of Police to other ranks of the command (Boyuo, 2012). In addition, the GPS also have various units for specialized functions including collation of data at national levels. In all, they are 13 units, thus, include Criminal Intelligence Unit (CIU), Criminal Data Services Bureau (CDSB), Domestic Violence and Victims Support Unit (DOVVSU), and Commercial Crime Unit (CCU), Community Policing Unit (CPU) etc. In pursuit of effective and efficient administration, the GPS has been decentralized into various levels, thus, the Regional Command, Regional Division Command, District Command, Police Station and Police Post (see figure 3.1). The police station and police post constitute the common physical unit of the GPS and by virtue of the population distribution and concentration of activities, there are more police stations in urban areas than in the rural areas, and in most cases rural settings have more police posts (Boyuo, 2012). Police stations and police post serve as the first point of call for crime reporting and primary source of crime data. When it comes



to crime recording, information entries are made in the Station Diary at every police station and include crime information such as crime occurrence and location, complaints, accidents, information on persons arrested and information on police engagement with community (Boyuo, 2012). This data, particularly on reported crimes are compiled and submitted to the various Commands starting from the District Command right through to the national level. Following independence, attempts were made to make the police more efficient and responsive to the needs of the Ghanaians. These attempts were made through legislative reforms and organizational restructuring (CHRI, 2007 in Acheampong, 2015). For instance in 1958 the first Ghanaian head of Police was appointed. However constitutional changes provided much power to the executive and thus allowed the president to wield much control over the police, especially regarding appointment to key positions within the police hierarchy. On the other hand also, the police began to engage in politics following its involvement in the 1966 coup as well as other subsequent coup d'états.

In this regard, one finds that police activities at the community level or civil policing, was much less of a focus compared to engagement in political activities and organizational (re)structuring. Much change has taken place within the GPS particularly since the inception of the 4th republic in 1993. A clear example is the Archer Commission reforms in 1993 (1993). Most reforms attempted have largely focused in areas that will make the police much more efficient and effective. This involves reforms that will change the traditional policing methods that focus on excessive use of force, illegal arrest, widespread corruption and failure to respond to complaints (CHRI, 2007 in Acheampong, 2015).



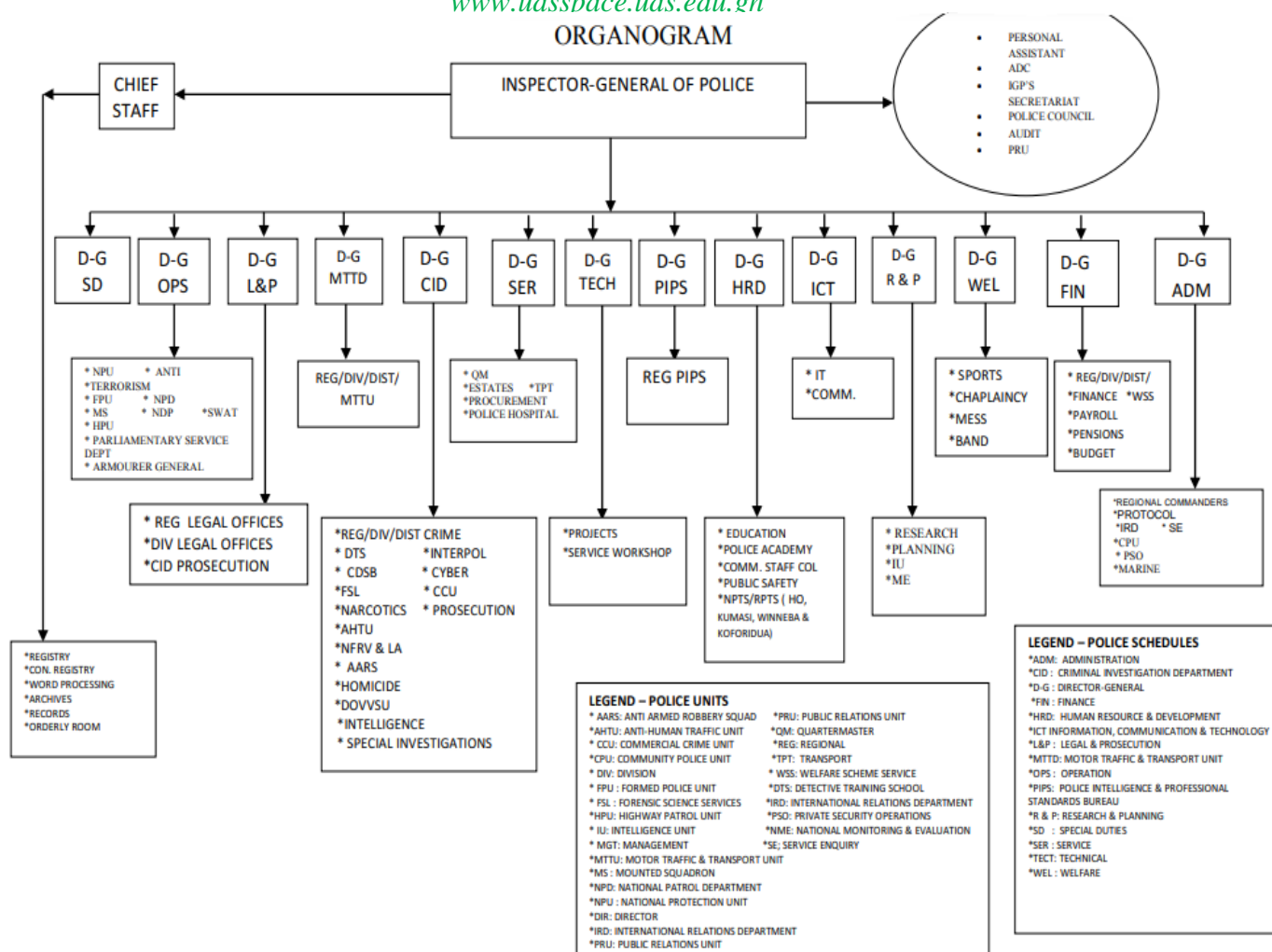


Figure 3.1: Ghana Police Service Organogram (Source: police.gov.gh, 2019)

Moreover calls have also been made to make the police more accountable to the law, the community and be representative of the community it serves. In relation to this, the GPS has established a community policing unit, with its experimental focus on selected areas of the Greater Accra region.

The approach of the unit has commonly been in three form:

- a) Combined sensitization, outreach and Anti-crime Educational talks
- b) Formation of Neighborhood Watch Committees

- c) The employment of Community Protection Assistants (CPAs) under the National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP).

In the Upper West Region, the total police strength stood at 999 (Wa Regional Records on Personnel File, 2015 in Dumenyah, 2016). In the Wa Municipality, the total number of personnel according to the 2015 record on personnel and nominal roll from the Regional Police Orderly room also called Registry is 704. This is made of personnel from the regional headquarters, the Rapid Deployment Force (RDF), National Patrol Department/Police Visibility Unit (NPD/PVD), Highway Patrol Unit (HPU), Regional Criminal Investigations Department (RCID), Audit Unit, Financial Department, Regional Police Clinic, Regional Motor Traffic and Transport Department (RMTTD), Court Unit, Quartermaster Stores, Regional Band Unit, Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit (DOVVSU), Anti-Human Trafficking Unit (AHTU), and Communication Unit (Information Department).

The Regional Police Command implements police strategies such as patrol, guard duties at the Bank and essential including power and fuel stations, internal and highway patrol, motor traffic and road safety, stop and search (barrier duties), crime detection and investigations among others to ensure effective administration of law enforcement activities in the municipality. The various units and departments to ensure the success of the above mentioned strategies include Regional, Divisional and District orderly room, Motor Traffic and Transport Department (MTTD), the Audit Department, Stores (Quarter Master's Stores), the Rapid Deployment Force, the Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit (DOVVSU), Anti-Human Trafficking Unit (AHSU), Court Unit, Radio or Signal Unit, CID (Regional, Divisional, District and Station), Police Clinic and the National Patrol Department (NPD) (implementing the police visibility strategy) among others.



As at third quarter ending September, 2015, the Police strength in Wa was 704 with 490 males representing 70% and 214 females representing 30% of the total police population in the municipality (Upper West Regional Police nominal roll file, 2015). Crime in Wa is fairly managed by the police despite minimum resources. Some of the common crimes recorded by the police include; stealing, murder, robbery (Highway, town, home), causing harm, rape, defilement, assault and failure of parents to provide the needs of the children (failure to provide the necessities of health and life among others (see appendix C). Also there are accidents cases as well as traffic offences such as reckless riding or driving, driving or riding without license, and riding without crash helmet. As a result emerging new trend of crime, the Municipal police command and other stakeholders instituted crime prevention strategies like the rash hour patrol (which is mostly carried out on market days), foot patrol, Police Visibility Strategy, and traffic control, tent city (police post) among others at the various sections of Wa.

3.3 Description of the Wa Municipality: The Study Area

This study was conducted in the Wa Municipality – one of the Municipalities in and the capital of the Upper West Region of the Republic of Ghana. Upper West Region is one of the sixteen (16) regions in Ghana. Other regions include; Ashanti Region, Bono Region, Bono East Region, Ahafo Region, Central Region, Eastern Region, Greater Accra Region, Northern Region, Savannah Region, North East Region, Upper East Region, Volta Region, Oti Region, Western Region, and Western North Region. However, this chapter discusses the profile of the Wa Municipality (research location). It describes the historical background, economic, educational, cultural, climate, crime features etc. of the area. The nature of the physical and cultural landscape of geographical spaces plays a very significant and influential role in determining their processes, trends of crime and development. The Wa Municipality is no exception, as the agglomeration of business activities, and the concentration of population





play a significant role in www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh its social organisation and crime trends. However, to comprehensively understand the crime issues and policing activities in the municipality, it is necessary to examine the historical background, the political and administrative setup, the demographic characteristics and the economic activities of the Wa Municipality. Specifically, Wa is a township and the capital of Wa Municipal District with a population of 102, 446 and 2012 settlement (GSS, 2012; Dumenyah, 2016). Currently, Wa Municipality has population of 126,609 population based on 2018 projection, 62,239 male and 64,370 female (GSS, 2019). Wa town has several Mosques, a museum, and the Wa-Na Palace. The geography of Wa is remarkable for the dramatic monadnock Sombo Mountain which is situated around Kaleo and visible from much of the Wa Township. The town serves as a transportation hub for the Upper West Region with major road that lead north to Hamile, northeast to Tumu and the Upper East Region. Wa Township has Airstrip called Wa Airport.

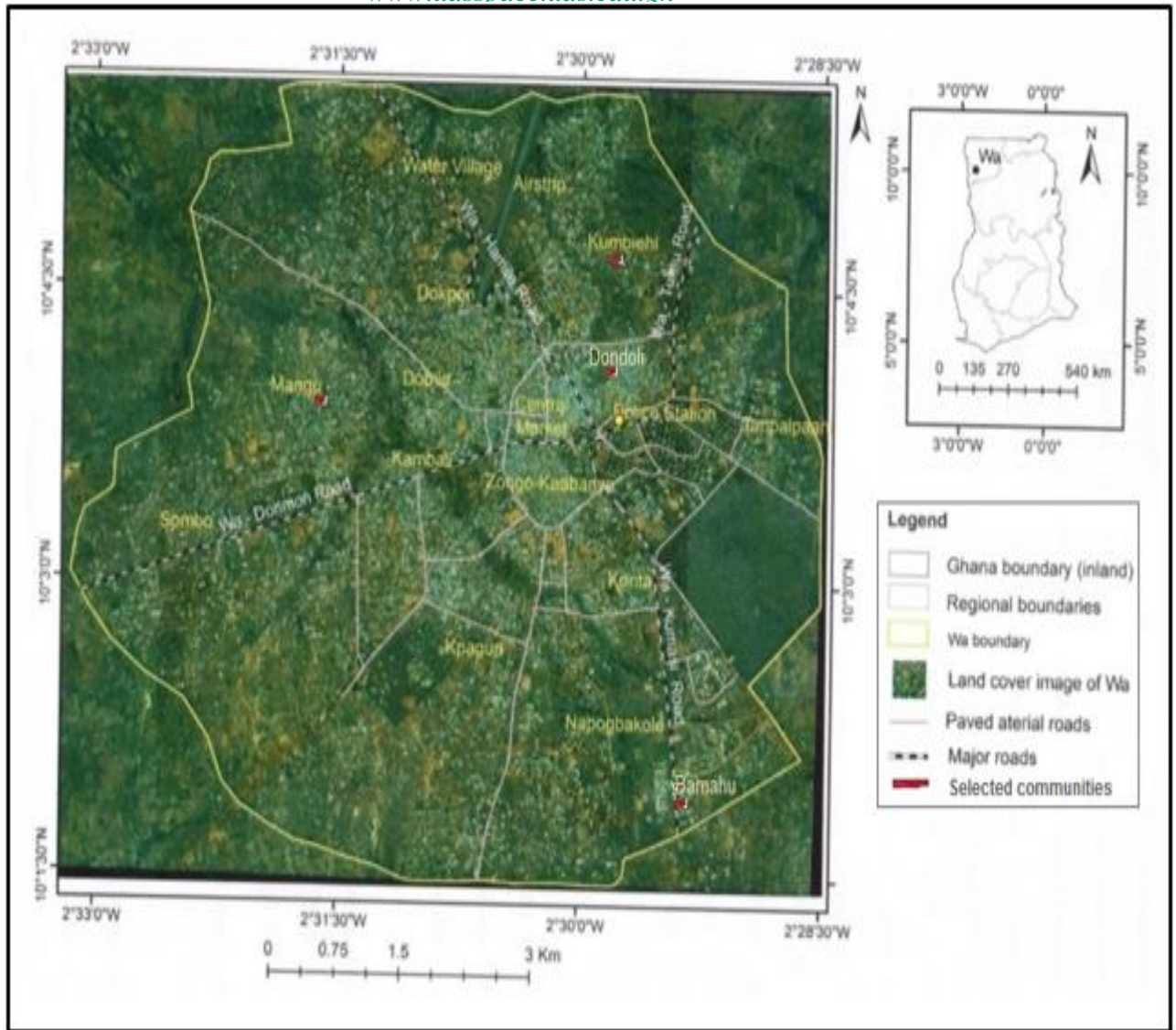
Historically, the Wa municipal area started as a kingdom in the 16th and early 17th century originating from the movement of various kinship groups at different times (Salih, 2008). Oral tradition affirms, that the movement of these people into Wa resulted from chieftaincy disputes among kinships and the trans-Saharan gold trade at the Lobi or Black Volta goldfields (ibid). More significantly, the arrival of three major estates, *Nabiili*, *Tagrahi* and *Limanhi* together with the *Tengdaamba* set up a nucleus which laid the foundation of the Wa kingdom with Wa town serving as the centre (ibid). According to Salih (2008), these kinship groups within the kingdom created a central traditional political authority and an ‘ethno-cultural’ group known as the *Waala* people with the *Waali* language. Consequently, the Wa province was distinguished from the town in that, the Wa town served as the metropolis of the kingdom and stood as a strong commercial centre (ibid). Conversely, the provincial Wa included the kingdom of Wa and its peripheries such as Wechiau, Dorimon, Manwe and Chakalli among

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others (ibid). The kingdom saw an accelerated development and growth with the Wa town serving as a commercial centre and transit points for merchants travelling between Mali and other Northern states across the country (ibid). Coupled with this was the centralized traditional political system of the kingdom located in the Wa town which made the area a stronger metropolitan area. These factors led to the immigration of various populations with different nationalities and religious orientations into the Wa town (ibid).

However, based on the administrative demarcation of the country in the colonial and post-independence era, Wa was originally part of the then Northern Region until 1960 when it was carved out as part of the newly created Upper Region. This elevated Wa to a new political status of district capital of the then Wa district within the Upper Region. Although part of the then Upper Region, and functioning as a district capital, there existed huge inequality in development and growth between the area and the rest of the country. As a result, the Upper West Region was created on 14th January 1983 by the then government with the aim of closing the development gap existing between the area and other parts of the country (GSS, 2002a). In pursuance of the decentralization policy introduced in 1988, a Legislative Instrument (LI) 1800 created the Wa Municipal Assembly from the then Wa district in 2004 (Amoah & Yahaya, 2013).





Map 1. The Wa Municipality (Research Location)

Source: Adapted and modified from EDS Ghana (2015) Research and Consultancy Service, Wa, Ghana (in Demenyah, 2016)



Lying within latitude $1^{\circ}40'$ and $2^{\circ}45'N$ and longitude $9^{\circ}32'$ to $10^{\circ}20'W$ (ibid) and with a land size of 234.74 square kilometres (occupying 6.4 percent of the total land coverage of the region), the area currently serves as a Municipal and Regional capital for the Upper West Region (WMA, 2013). It is bordered by Nadowli District Assembly in the North, the Wa East District Assembly in the East, Wa West District Assembly to the West and South (WMA, 2013). Map 1 shows the physical location of the study area.

According to the GSS (2013a), Wa Municipal Assembly lies within the Savanna high plain which is surging with an average height between 160m and 300m above sea level. Besides, the gentle nature of the landscape shows that the topography does not pose any hindrance to physical development and agricultural activities (UNDP, 2010). The Municipal area is drained by two main rivers, Sing-Bakpong with tributaries to the south and the Billi with its tributaries to the North (GSS, 2013a; UNDP, 2010). However, the available streams are seasonal and mostly dry up during the dry season and hence do not support agricultural activities, domestic activities and construction works during these seasons (WMA, 2012 cited in GSS, 2013a; UNDP, 2010).

The Wa Municipal area falls within the general climatic patterns of the Upper West region with two main climatic conditions, the dry season and the wet season (GSS, 2002a). The dry season, the Harmattan, spans from November to April and is characterized by long windy, cold and hazy conditions and intense hot weather conditions (GSS, 2013a). These conditions are as a result of the north-eastern trade winds which blow over the area. The dry season often records high temperatures between 40°C and 45°C which may result in the risk of Cerebrospinal Meningitis (CSM) and dehydration (MOFA, 2014). The area, however, has only one rainy season (GSS, 2013a) spanning between April and October and characterized by short and stormy rainfalls. The annual rainfall volume recorded in the area is between 840mm and 1400mm, which is sparsely distributed over the months (MOFA, 2014).

Additionally, the area lies within the guinea savanna vegetation belt containing grass with drought resistant trees such as shea, baobab, dawadawa and nim (GSS, 2002a). Several economic benefits are derived from the trees and the grasses found in the area. For example, the trees felled are used as fuel woods and in building kraals for cattle and for fencing gardens (GSS, 2002a). Besides, the shea fruits are harvested to produce shea oil and shea butter. More





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significantly, the dawadawa fruits are used to prepare food in most homes. The climatic conditions further favour the raising of livestock such as guinea fowls, sheep, goats and cattle (GSS, 2002a). The soil type within this area such as the savannah ochrosols, the tropical brown yeast, terrace soils also support the cultivation of cotton and variety of grains, such as millet, maize, rice, sorghum, and tubers, such as yams (GSS, 2013a).

Although the Municipality is the most urbanized in the region, agricultural activities, contributing about (70%), dominate the economy (WMA, 2013). This is followed by commerce 9 percent and 3 percent industry (WMA, 2013). According to recent census report of 2010, the service sector however employs majority (51.3%) of the population followed by the agricultural sector which also employs 30.2 percent of the population while the industry also employ 18.4 percent (WMA, 2013; UNDP, 2010). The pattern of the economy therefore depicts a typical characteristic of most municipal economies in Ghana (UNDP, 2010). Other economically vibrant activities which employ the population and contribute to the economy include; pito brewing, agro industry, edible oil extraction, processing and packaging and tourism (WMA, 2013). The major means of transport in the Municipality is motorcycles, followed by a vehicle population of over 300 commercial and private cars. It is acknowledged, that the use of the motorcycle reduces traffic congestion, however, it causes increasing road traffic accidents in the town (WMA, 2013). Although the Tourism and Transport sectors of the economy are not well developed, it is noticed to have a potential for growth and development (UNDP, 2010; WMA, 2013). According to the UNDP-Ghana (2010), the trend of the economic activities has not changed much since 2000. That notwithstanding, a major development and dynamic growth potential of the city in future has been attributed to its unique location which can be developed as the North Western corridor gate-way to landlocked countries such as Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger and Chad.

The Wa Municipality, although situated in the least urbanized area in the country, is rapidly experiencing an increasing population growth. According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, the Wa Municipal Area has a population of 107, 214 (2013) representing 15.3 percent of the total population in the Upper West Region. Although the Wa Municipality is considered an urban area, it also has a rural population of 36,163 representing 33.7 percent of the total population in Wa (GSS, 2013a). A comparison of the 2000 and the 2010 population censuses revealed that the population of Wa Municipal Area has also increased from 98,675 to 107, 214 (GSS, 2013a). Following the trend of the national population, the Wa Municipal area also has a dominant female population of 54, 218 as compared to the male population of 52, 996 representing 50.6 percent and 49.4 percent respectively (GSS, 2012). According to the UNDP-Ghana (2010), the longer life expectancy of females compared to that of males and the higher out-migration of the male population outside the region in search of ‘greener pastures’ could play a significant role in such trends. The sex ratio of the population further shows that the youth between the ages of 20-24 representing 14.7 percent dominate the population (GSS, 2013a). This is explained by the operation of the tertiary institutions: the University for Development Studies, the Wa Polytechnic and the College of Education in the Municipality (GSS, 2013a). Besides, the rapid influx of migrants from near and far towns into the Municipality in search of jobs also account for the youthful nature of the population (GSS, 2013a). In addition, the predominance of the youth in the area as noted by UNDP (2010) could be attributed to the cultural values of the people that include large families, polygamy, the absence of family planning and early marriages.

3.4 The Research Methodology

Research design can be said to be a systematic way of solving research problem(s) identified by the researcher. It comprises the “various steps that are adopted in studying the problem”

(Kothari, 2003). Meanwhile, it is a general plan or conceptual structure of how a researcher goes about answering the research questions and the objectives, including the specification of data collection techniques and the process of data analysis. This study employed *Explorative Sequential* type of *Mixed Methods Approach* utilizing *Descriptive Research Design* to establish the common crimes, effects of crime on development and the role of CP in crime prevention in the Wa Municipality, Upper West Region of Ghana.

3.4.1 The Research Design

Descriptive Research Design

Gay in Okoro (2016) defined descriptive design to involve collecting data with the objective of testing hypothesis or answering research question(s) concerning the current status of subject(s) under study. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) noted that descriptive design is a design that seeks to obtain information that describe existing phenomenon by asking individuals about perception, attitudes, behavior and values. Descriptive survey is useful in preliminary and exploratory studies as it allows researchers to gather information, summarise, present and interpret it for the purpose of clarification (Orotho, 2005 in Wanjohi, 2014). The use of descriptive statistics to analyse a survey data applies when understanding the characteristics of organisation(s) that follow(s) certain common practices. Kothari (2003) argues that a descriptive study aims at describing relevant aspects of phenomenon of interests from individuals, organisation, industry-oriented, and/or other perspectives. Descriptive research is time advantageous – quick and cheap, provides descriptive roles, and also examines associations (Wanjohi, 2014). This design was therefore adopted based on this claim. Also looking at the research questions; 1. What are the common types of crime in the Wa Municipality? 2. What are the effects of crime on development in the Wa Municipality? 3. How effective are community policing strategies and community participation in community





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policing in the Wa Municipality? These are all ‘what and why’ questions, which can best be addressed using descriptive research design.

Exploratory Sequential Mixed Method

According to Creswell (2014), mixed method approach combines quantitative and qualitative forms of research. The choice of this approach was based on the understanding of the inherent weaknesses associated with the use of either a quantitative or a qualitative approach (Creswell, 2014). Quantitative survey data was used to boost up the results of the qualitative study and to fill the gap where qualitative study may miss to touch. Thus, triangulation of data presentation from the two sources will lead towards sound analysis and research findings. In addition, the choice of the method of triangulation was to cross-validate and complement both the qualitative and quantitative data (Teye, 2012). Mixed methods research design can be defined as “a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and “mixing” both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study or a series of studies to understand a research problem” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011 in Creswell, 2012:535). The main assumption inherent in the use of this method where quantitative and qualitative methods are combined is that it provides a “better understanding of the research problem and question than either method by itself” (Creswell, 2012:535), which makes the design a unique and an advanced method procedure.

One of the advantages of this method is that the “procedures are time-consuming”, and require “extensive data collection and analysis, and such time requirements may require that the researcher participate in a research team when using it” (ibid). Additionally, mixed methods research goes beyond collection of two distinct – qualitative and quantitative strands of research, to “merging, integrating, linking, or embedding the two strands” (ibid) of research. Furthermore, mixed methods study can be conducted “when one type of research (qualitative



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or quantitative) is not enough to address the research problem or answer the research questions” (ibid).

However, in achieving the research objectives and answer the research questions, this study specifically adopted *Exploratory Sequential Mixed Methods Design* – “design in which the researcher first begins by exploring with qualitative data and analysis and then uses the findings in a second quantitative phase” (Creswell, 2014:276). The strategy helps to develop better measurements with specific samples of populations and to see if data from a few individuals (in qualitative phase) can be generalised to a large sample of a population (in quantitative phase) (ibid). Using this method, Creswell (2012) affirmed that it allows researchers to initially explore views of respondents (or participants) by listening to them rather than approaching a topic with predetermined sets of variables. The method is appropriate when a researcher does not know or do not have his/her research variables before going to the field. Qualitative interviews or discussions are first conducted here to understand the issues of the research at hand and then design appropriate variables for survey (quantitative phase) afterwards. apparently, looking at the nature of the study location and the objectives of the study, it becomes important to adopt the design. The location is totally a new environment to the researcher and many issues like how the houses were numbered in the case of selecting respondents and others factors were unclear. In this case, going for qualitative data first helped to familiarize the researcher with the issues in the communities. Also, outcome variables for the objectives were not very clear, which also calls for collecting qualitative data and analyze first to understand the variables, how to design the tool, and how to administer it.

Nevertheless, its shortcoming is implicit in its extensive data collection demand, coupled with the luxury of time required for the process.

3.4.2 The Philosophical Underpinnings

Scholars have agreed that mixed methods research has its own philosophical underpinnings (Creswell, 2012; 2014). These include pragmatism, dialectical, and transformative worldview (ibid). However, the philosophical underpinning of this methodological triangulation is pragmatism (Mannino, 2014). Apparently, *pragmatism* as a philosophy of mixed method infers the use of procedures that work for a particular research problem under study and the use of multiple methods to solve a research problem. Contrasting positivism of a quantitative methodology and constructivism of a qualitative methodology, pragmatism rejects the “either-or” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) and offers the logical solution of “what works” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) by using both deductive and inductive logic. Mixed-method research, therefore, offers a more complete analysis and greater validity (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Mannino, 2014). The study of community policing and crime management is however too complex for a single research method. Consequently, the study like other complex human phenomenon, was best explained through the use of combined data collected in different ways. In this study, focus group discussions and key informant interviews (qualitative) helped to source rigorous information that further helped to design the quantitative strand of the data collection. The quantitative analyses measured variables generated through survey questionnaires to quantify common crimes, crime effects on development, community policing strategies, and the effectiveness of the strategies, including the community-police collaboration. Due to the intricacy of this mixed methods study, a notation system is used to describe the design and a procedural diagram created to illustrate (see figure 3.1) and describe the designed methods, procedures and products (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The notation for this methodology as designed by Morse (1991) is depicted below as:



QUAL → quant = findings www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh

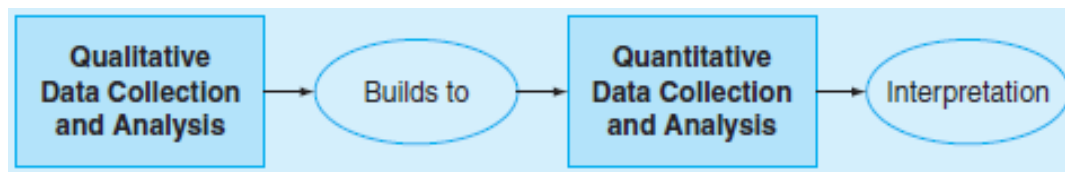


Figure 3.2: Explorative sequential mixed method research (Creswell, 2014)

3.4.3 Study population and sampling study sites

The Selection of study area and communities

Wa Municipality is one of the cities Ghana Police Service is implementing community policing, yet it has been experiencing increased crime level. It was expected that, after the introduction of community policing, the crime level in the study area should reduce. The Municipality has recently been faced with motorbike snatching, robbery, rape, and gang rape especially of the University for Development Studies (UDS) students and instance justice being meted to suspected criminals by the public, indicating loss of confidence in the police. These turn of event call for questions as to whether or not Ghana Police Service implementation of the community policing for crime prevention in the Municipality as well as building public confidence are effective.

However, there are over 20 communities in the Wa Municipality. These communities include: Wa, Kpong, Charia, Bamahu, Dandafura, Nakori, Busa, Kperisi, Goohi, Sing, Boli, Jonga, Kolikpara, Piisi, Chansa, Mangu, Dorbile, Kpaguri, Kpalinye, Konjiahi, Kumbiehe, Danko, Chegli, Gberu, Dondoli, Tampalipaani etc (GSS, 2010; 2013). This study selected four communities since considering the population size of the Wa Municipality, it was not possible to work with the entire population; hence a sample as a representation of the population was used. The selection of the four study communities (Bamahu, Dondoli, Kumbiehe, and Mangu) was done using purposive sampling technique. The four communities were selected because



of their nearness to the Wa-Township, and because of the rate of crime associated to them. For instance, Bamahu and Mangu were selected as high crime area whilst Kumbiehe and Dondoli were selected as crime low area based on the information provided by the Ghana Police Service of the Wa Municipal Command. Before the selection of the communities, the Wa Municipal command of the GPS was approached to ascertain the crime characteristics of the electoral areas (communities) within the suburb of Wa Town. Accordingly, three (3) top high crime communities were provided (i.e. Mangu, Bamahu, and Kpaguri) whilst three communities with lowest crime rate were also provided which included Dorbile, Dondoli, and Kumbiehe. The former and the later were arranged in the descending order of high crime and low crime respectively, and the first two communities were selected from the former, while the last two were selected from the later for the research. The mixture of the high and low crime areas in the study helped in understanding the common crimes, the effects of crime on development and the effectiveness of CP strategies and community participation in crime prevention in the study area.

Sampling frame and sampling unit

For this study, the sampling frame are the Ghana Police Service of the Wa Municipal Command, Community Police Assistants, and because, CP is a collaborative policing which involves the Police and the community they police, the community was considered the most critical part of the frame. Four communities from the Wa Municipality were selected for the study which include Mangu, Dondoli, Kumbiehe, and Bamahu electoral areas. The total population of the four communities selected for the study is 11,062. Out of this number, Bamahu has 4,068; Dondoli 2,168; Kumbiehe 740; and Mangu 4,086 (2018 projection from GSS, 2019).



The following identified groups that formed the unit of analysis which helped the study in looking at the crime problems and the CP strategies in the Wa Municipality include:

- The Crime Department of the Wa Municipal Command;
- The Community Police Assistants (CPAs) in the Municipality;
- The four selected communities (Mangu, Dondoli, Kumbiehe, and Bamahu) where the chiefs, Imams, Assemblymen, Opinion Leaders, and other community stakeholders who are critical to the safety and wellbeing of the communities were identified;
- The Wa Municipal Assembly where the Municipal Chief Executive (MCE) is the target
- The University for Development Studies, Wa Campus.

3.4.4 Data Collection Methods: Sources, Techniques and Instruments

In addressing the overall objective and research questions of the study, data were generated from both primary and secondary sources. Meanwhile, this study dwells heavily on the primary data gathered through key informant interviews, focus group discussions and questionnaire. As for primary sources, information was sourced through focus group discussions (FGDs) and key informant interviews for the qualitative strand and community-based survey for the quantitative strand. The secondary data were gathered through review of relevant materials such as crime statistics (Police reports), Ghana Statistical Service materials, archive documents, books, journals, bulletins, magazines and web sites. The KII and the FGD techniques involve a one-on-one interviews and discussions on the topic with police agency, community policing assistants (CPAs), assemblymen, traditional authorities and other stakeholders whose activities impact on the community policing, crime management and development issues in the Wa Municipality. The primary data for the qualitative strand was collected through focus group discussion (FGD) and key informant interview (KII) guide, while a structured questionnaire was used for the quantitative strand. The narratives from the



qualitative strand informed the instrument developed for the quantitative strand and how to administer it. Voice recording was used alongside notes taking to ensure that all information provided was captured, which was with the consent of the respondents. With respect to secondary information, documents such as crime annual reports, state legal instruments, and other related literature were consulted. Face to face interviews helps researchers to establish good rapport and cooperation with potential participants. This technique yields highest response-rates in research. Face to face interview was employed. The methods and instruments are further discussed below:

Focus Group Discussions

Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) are known as intensive interactions that involve people of a homogenous group made up of between 6 and 12 persons which give the researcher the opportunity to elicit information that is of particular interest in a particular area that otherwise would have been very difficult to obtain with other methods. FGDs provide the researcher deep insights into why human beings think feel or behave in a particular manner. For the purpose of this study, Focus Group Discussion guide was designed to specifically elicit information from three (3) groups aged between 16 and 60. The first group was the CPAs deployed to various communities in the Wa Municipality (10 of them in one group). The second group include women selected from different works of life per each community, and the third is men selected in same way. That is to say, in every community, 2 sets of focus group discussion were held – one group for women and the other for men. This is because, crime is a problem that does not exclude any sex, although may have different ways it affects the both sexes. In all 9 FGDs were conducted.



Key Informant Interviews

Semi-structured interview was used to solicit responses from the 24 identified key informants. The key informants interviewed include the officers in charge of crime and community policing unit, the Wa Municipal Chief Executive (MCE), the heads of the Community Policing Assistants (CPAs), the chiefs, assemblymen and the opinion leaders of the selected communities, the Campus Principal of the University for Development Studies, Wa Campus. These key informants were selected because they are representatives of the people and therefore can speak to the subject matter. Thus, key informant interview guide was developed based on the objectives of the study to solicit information from the 24 key informants. The study utilises purposive sampling technique in selecting the 24 Key Informants for interviews.

Survey (Quantitative Strand)

The quantitative strand of data collection for this study is based on community-based survey, using a structured questionnaire. Probability sampling technique (stratified) was employed in this second face of the study to select 180 survey participants who were served face to face.

Stratified Sampling for Sample Size Determination

To arrive at a reasonable sample size for the quantitative strand of the study, a stratified sampling technique was considered in the selection of respondents from the study areas. “Stratification is used when the population reflects an imbalance on a characteristic of a sample’ (Creswell, 2012). In this study, the population was stratified into the four selected study communities in the municipal, as the first stage of the sampling process.

After this stage, the proportionate sampling technique was adopted to choose respondents from each community into the sample size and in the third stage simple random sampling was employed to get the desired population. 180 sample size was taken bearing in mind time,



convenience, and resource factors as well as data manageability and representativeness, which are paramount and need to be taken into consideration in the selection of a sample size for research work

The proportionate number of respondents from each unit (community) required for the study was determined. This was about 1.627192% (i.e the total number of 180 sample size was divided by the total number of population (11,062) in the 4 communities selected for the study, and the fraction was later expressed as a percentage) (Ghosh, 1992; Sarantakos, 2005; Beni, 2012). The number of respondents in each community was multiplied by 0.01627192 to obtain the number of respondents to be sampled from each unit. This technique was used because it guarantees desired representation of all the elements in the population, see table 4.1 below.

Table 3.1 Sample frame

| Community (Unit) | Population (GSS'2018 projection) | Proportion |
|-------------------------|---|-------------------|
| Sample | | |
| Bamahu | 4068 | 4068 x 0.01627192 |
| Mangu | 4086 | 4086 x 0.01627192 |
| Dondoli | 2168 | 2168 x 0.01627192 |
| Kumbiehe | 740 | 740 x 0.01627192 |
| Total | 11,062 | 180 |

Researcher's construct, 2019

For this study, the researcher administered structured questionnaire to the members of the selected communities to solicit responses from them regarding their knowledge, awareness, and judgement of the common crimes in their community, the effects of the crimes, and the effectiveness of community policing implementation on crime prevention. Specifically, this survey tool was christened 'Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa



Municipality Questionnaire' (CPCMWMQ) and was partitioned into four sections (Section A – D). Section A consists the background characteristics of the respondents, Section B elicited questions consistent with the objective one using 4 Likert-typed composite scale to score the common crime crimes in the study area, Section C elicited questions about the objective two using 4 Likert-typed composite scale to assess the effect of crime on development in the study area, and Section D contains the objective three, where effectiveness of CP Strategies and community participation in crime management were sought using both 4 and 5 Likert Scale type, in composite form, while the rest were treated individually.

Desk Review of Secondary Data

This study also reviewed existing literature conducted by earlier writers that are related to the study. Secondary data is the already existing write up or documents meant for other purpose(s) but seen to be relevant to the study at hand. For this study, the sources of secondary data include; books, journals, published and unpublished thesis, magazines and web sites, Ghana Statistical Service reports, crime statistics and other police reports relevant to the study.

3.4.5 Total Sample Size for the Study

The total sample size for this study include 24 key informants facilitated through a key informant interview (KII) guide, 9 focused group discussion (2 per community (8 persons per group) and 1 with the CPAs) using focused group discussion (FGD) guide, and the 180 respondents through a structured questionnaire.

Summary of Methods and Sample Distribution

1. Key Informant Interview (KII): this was conducted at all level, thus, 24 Key informants were identified for the study. The breakdown is as follows: 8 Polices (Ghana Police Service) of the Wa Municipal Command, 2 Community Police Assistants, 1 Staff of the UDS-Wa



Campus, 1 Municipal Chief Executive (MCE), 3 community Chiefs (1 each from Bamahu, Mangu, and Kumbiehe; no Chief at Dondoli), 4 Assemblymen (1 per community), and 5 opinion leaders (Bamahu 1, Mangu 1, Dondoli 2, Kumbiehe 1).

2. Focus Group Discussion (FGD): Conducted at the community level and the CPAs. In total, 9 FGDs were conducted. CPAs 1 (10 persons in the group), women group 4 (1 group per community and 8 persons per group), Men group 4 (1 group per community and 8 persons per group), making total of 74 participants in the 9 FGDs.

3. Community-based Survey: 180 respondents were selected from the four selected communities (see table 3.1).

3.4.6 Method of/Techniques and Tools for Data Analysis

The ultimate test of CP is achievable through investigation of the state of local crime levels after an adoption and implementation of CP practices, specifically checking whether crime levels have falling or not and to understand the level of improvement of public trust and confidence, including cordiality issues between the agency and the community (Roth, Roehl & Calvin, 2004). The qualitative data for this work was organized into themes and discussed to establish trends and patterns in accordance with the research questions, whilst the data from the survey was analysed using descriptive statistics. Each strand of data was carefully checked and cleaned of errors and sorted before analysis. The quantitative data was collected using questionnaire dominated with 4 point modified Likert scale of strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (DA), and Strongly Disagree (SD) which were used for composite items, and were treated as interval scale. The scale is presented as; SA = 4, A = 3, DA = 2, SD = 1. Nevertheless, others which are non-composite in nature (and vary in terms of Likert points) were analysed as ordinal scale. Why 4 point instead of 5 point? Steinmetz (2019), argue that neutral or undecided is not really the psychological midpoint between the agreements versus disagreement tendencies. He also argued that undecided or neutral should not attract number



at all as undecided means exactly no response as he or she does not know. Undecided means that the person is missing for that variable which complicate analysis. Moorer (2019) in his own view see assigning '3' point to 'no opinion' or 'undecided' as complicated because "no opinion or undecided" simply means '0'. In addition, since neutral or undecided lies at the center of agreement and disagreement, data are always skewed to the center, and what sense does it make to say that 'majority of the respondents' are apathetic or undecided to questions put to them? 4 point was therefore used to avoid such confusion.

Likert scale was devised in order to measure 'attitude' in a "scientifically accepted and validated manner" in 1932 (Edmondson, 2005; McLeod, 2014). It is originally known as a set of statements (items) presented for real or hypothetical situations under study through which participants are asked to indicate their level of agreements with the given statements (items) on a metric scale (Joshi, Kale, Chandel & Pal, 2015).

The argument inherent in the use of Likert scale has precipitated two divergent schools of thoughts. Joshi et al (2015) posited that one school from the statisticians view point considers Likert scale as ordinal and other from social science view point treats it as Interval scale. The Statisticians' (first school) argument is that choices or responses on Likert Scale are arranged in some ranking order which cannot show the relative magnitude and distance between two responses quantitatively, and as a result cannot be treated as interval scale. The second school interpret this impasse from a different standpoint, stating that when the researcher's aim is to 'combine' all the items in order to generate a 'composite' score for an individual rather than separate analysis of single item responded by all individuals, then this individualistic summative score (for all the items) of a participant shows a sensible realistic distance from the individual summative score of another individual; hence, can be labeled as 'interval





estimates' (Carifio & Perla, 2007; Boone & Boone, 2012; Joshi et al, 2015; Chikaire, Ajaero, Ibe, Orusha & Onogu, 2018; Norman, 2010).

To this end, if a researcher wishes to combine many items in order to generate a composite score (Likert scale) of a set of items for different participants, then the assigned scale will be an interval scale. Thus, "the measures for central tendency and dispersion for an interval scale are mean and standard deviation. As opposed to, if researcher wishes to analyze separate item (no composite score; Likert type scale), the assigned scale for such data set will be ordinal" (Joshi et al, 2015) whereby median or mode can be used as the measure of central tendency.

However, to set a target for this work, the 4point Likert scale of SA 4, A 3, Disagree 2, Strongly Disagree 1 were added ($4+3+2+1 = 10$) and divided by 4 (i.e. $10/4$) to obtain a discriminating mean value or cut-off point of 2.5. Therefore any item among the composite items that scores a weighted mean of 2.5 or above will be considered as agree or a strong factor. Hence, frequency counts, percentage, and mean were used to analyse the survey data.

3.4.7 Research Validity and Reliability

Unlike in laboratory studies where it is easy to perform an experiment and get it replicated by the same method to get exact result, it is often not easy to get the same thing done in the field of social research when dealing with people whose behaviour change with the change in circumstances. To ensure reliability and validity of research findings, Sarantakos (2005) advises researchers to adopt what he calls the triangulation – the use of multiple research tools to generate data from different viewpoints to authenticate research findings. In line with Sarantako's assertion, this research work employed FGD, KII, and questionnaires to generate data meant to complement each other and supplemented by the review of secondary data. Prior to the actual data gathering (field work), the questionnaire undergone intensive review and

pre-testing on small samples from all categories of the respondents. This was done primarily to check whether the potential respondents can understand each question properly and estimated the time required to fill out the schedule, and to check appropriateness of the content. Upon receiving feedback from the pretest, some amendments were made prior to ultimate duplication. During the field work, all efforts were in place to maintain data quality through intensive supervision. However, two enumerators who were familiar with the study area and can speak the local language were recruited and trained on the objectives, methods of data collection and interviewing techniques.

3.4.8 Fieldwork Challenges

In the course of the study, a number of impediments were encountered. These impediments had to do with data collection processes. It includes the tedious processes of getting respondents, most especially, Police officers, and the leaders of the various communities. It took many days to get them for the solicitation of the views on the research questions, while convincing them was a whole lot of work, as they had to be strongly assured of the confidentiality of any information the researcher was collecting. During the survey face at the community level, most respondents were uncomfortable to respond as they found the crime topic very sensitive, especially, the females. Some of the questions therefore had to be rephrased and inferences made out of the responses given.

Up to Nine (9) questionnaires were filled by people who have not stayed up to 2 years in the study area and therefore not considered, coupled with 2 questionnaires in which the respondents were not traced. Because of the large size, 11 new questionnaires were reprinted and redistributed to the affected places. This process was time consuming, although explorative sequential mixed-method is naturally tedious and time consuming.



3.4.9 Ethical Considerations

A research introduction letter from the Faculty of Planning and Land Management of the University for Development Studies-Wa Campus was collected as an ethical control. It helped to ensure authenticity of the researcher and research instrument, and to instill confidentiality assurance to the research participants. Hence, confidentiality and privacy of the participants were protected by keeping the information they provided confidential. The researcher sought the voluntary and informed consent of the respondents before conducting key informant interview, the focus group discussion, and the administration of the questionnaire. Finally the consents of the key informants and the focus group discussants were sought before voice recordings were made. The benefits of the research were explained to the respondents, and research permission was sought. In addition, pictures were taken with consents especially those attached as appendix D.



DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the research methodology, which included how data was collected for this work. This chapter presents an analysis and discussion of the findings. The chapter is organized in two main parts: analysis of data and discussion of findings.

4.2 Data Analysis and Presentation

This section presents an analysis of the data, drawing on both qualitative and quantitative data. The analysis addresses the question of the common crimes, the effect of crime on development and the effectiveness of community participation in community policing and community policing strategies in crime management in Wa the Municipality.

4.2.1 Background Characteristics of Respondents

This section presents the characteristics of the survey respondents only. The characteristics of the qualitative participants are not considered in this section since majority of them preferred anonymity, and therefore, their biodata are not included here. It is necessary to state that the first demographic characteristic considered in this study is gender. This is because of the importance of gender issues in most development studies or interventions nowadays. In the context of this research, crime and community policing affect all sexes, ages, regions, occupations, married and single, educated and uneducated. However, to be able to speak to the issues of this study, residents of age 16 and above were considered. Table 4.1 presents an analysis of the respondents by sex, age, marital status, occupation, religion, education, and the length of stay in communities.



Table 4.1: Frequency (F) and percentage (%) distribution of the demographic characteristics of the survey respondents

| Variable | (F) | (%) | Variable | (F) | (%) |
|-------------------|-----|-------|----------------------------|-----|-------|
| Sex | | | Marital Status | | |
| Male | 97 | 53.89 | Single | 62 | 34.44 |
| Female | 83 | 46.11 | Married | 94 | 52.22 |
| | | | Divorced | 10 | 5.56 |
| | | | Widowed | 14 | 7.78 |
| Age | | | Religion | | |
| 16 – 25 | 42 | 23.33 | Islam | 100 | 55.56 |
| 26 – 35 | 49 | 27.22 | Christianity | 76 | 42.22 |
| 36 – 45 | 26 | 16.11 | ATR | 4 | 2.22 |
| 46–55 | 30 | 16.67 | | | |
| 56 – 65 | 19 | 10.56 | | | |
| 65 and above | 11 | 6.11 | | | |
| Occupation | | | Years of Stay in Wa | | |
| Public Servant | 30 | 16.67 | 2-6 | 74 | 41.11 |
| Farming | 42 | 23.33 | 7-11 | 26 | 14.44 |
| Trading | 46 | 25.56 | 12–16 | 21 | 11.67 |
| Student | 40 | 22.22 | 17-21 | 25 | 13.89 |
| Others | 22 | 12.22 | 22 and above | 31 | 17.22 |
| Education | | | | | |
| Primary | 16 | 8.89 | | | |
| JHS | 33 | 18.33 | | | |
| SHS | 57 | 31.67 | | | |
| Tertiary | 51 | 28.33 | | | |
| No Education | 23 | 12.78 | | | |

$N = 180$

Source: Field Survey, 2019

From table 4.1 above, it can be observed that 53.89% of the respondents were males constituting majority response over 46.11% females. For the marital status, 52.22% of the respondents were married forming majority response over single (34.44%), divorced (5.56%), and widowed (7.78%). In terms of religious affiliation, 55.56% of the respondents were Muslims constituting majority response over 44.22% Christians, and 2.22% African



Traditional Religion (ATR). The table also shows that respondents who aged between 26–35 constitute the majority response (27.22%) over 23.33% of respondents who aged between 16–25, 16.11% of 36–45, 16.67% of 46–55, 10.56% of 56 – 65, and 6.11% of respondents who aged 65 and above. The occupations of the people were also considered, and the result show that: the majority of the respondents are traders (25.56%), followed clossely by farmers (23.33%), then students (22.22%), others (12.22%), and public servants (6.67%). Another importnat demography considered is the educational status of the people of which the results show that 31.67% respondents have SHS forming majority of responses over those who attended tertiary education (28.33%), JHS (18.33%), No Education (12.78%), Primary education (8.89%). Finally, years respondents stayed in the Municipality was as well considered. This is because, only people who have stayed at least 2 years in a place can be able to testify whether an intervention like community policing implementation is yeilding results or not. They should be able to tell the difference between the previous year and the current year in terms of crime reduction in the Municipality. Thus, 2 years and above of stay was considered which indicates that respondents who stayed between 2 – 6 years in the Municipality constitute majority of the responses (41.11%), followed by those who stayed between 7 – 11 years (14.44%), then 22 years and above (17.22%), 17 – 21years (13.89%), and 12 – 16 years (11.67%).



4.2.2 Common Types of Crime in the Wa Municipality

This section analyzes the common types of crimes in the Wa Municipality, starting with survey data and thereafter, corroborating with qualitative data. The survey data is presented and analysed through a 4 point Likert-type scale of strongly agree, Agree, Disagree, and Strongly disagree with assigned values of 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively. The values were added and divided by 4 to obtain a discriminating mean value or cut-off point of 2.5. Therefore any

item among the composite items that scores a weighted mean of 2.5 or above are considered as agree or a strong factor while those items with weighted mean less than 2.5 are considered disagree or weak factors. Hence, frequency (f) counts, percentages (%), and mean (\bar{X}) were used to analyse the data collected. Table 4.2 presents analysis of the survey data on common types of crimes in the study area.

Table 4.2 Common Types of Crime in the Wa Municipality

| Item | Strongly Agree | | Agree | | Disagree | | Strongly Disagree | | Mean (\bar{X}) |
|---|----------------|-------|-------|-------|----------|-------|-------------------|-------|--------------------|
| | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | |
| Stealing | 76 | 42.22 | 67 | 37.22 | 20 | 11.11 | 17 | 9.44 | 3.12 |
| Robbery | 47 | 26.11 | 61 | 33.89 | 38 | 21.11 | 34 | 18.89 | 2.67 |
| Armed Robbery | 22 | 12.22 | 58 | 32.22 | 52 | 28.89 | 48 | 26.67 | 2.30 |
| Rape | 26 | 14.44 | 37 | 20.56 | 51 | 28.33 | 66 | 36.67 | 2.13 |
| Assault | 65 | 36.11 | 59 | 32.78 | 34 | 18.89 | 22 | 12.22 | 2.93 |
| Threat to Harm | 38 | 21.11 | 55 | 30.56 | 53 | 29.44 | 34 | 18.89 | 2.54 |
| Causing unlawful Damage | 48 | 26.67 | 66 | 36.67 | 37 | 20.56 | 29 | 16.11 | 2.74 |
| Threat of Death | 32 | 17.78 | 43 | 23.89 | 51 | 28.33 | 54 | 30.00 | 2.29 |
| Causing Unlawful Harm | 45 | 25.00 | 54 | 30.00 | 60 | 33.33 | 21 | 11.67 | 2.68 |
| Defrauding by false pretense | 23 | 12.78 | 39 | 21.67 | 52 | 28.89 | 66 | 36.67 | 2.10 |
| Possession of Narcotic Drugs | 68 | 37.78 | 73 | 40.56 | 22 | 12.22 | 17 | 9.44 | 3.07 |
| Act tending to disrupt peace | 22 | 12.22 | 35 | 19.44 | 70 | 38.89 | 53 | 29.44 | 2.14 |
| Trespassing | 19 | 10.56 | 32 | 17.78 | 61 | 33.89 | 68 | 39.78 | 2.01 |
| Murder | 21 | 11.67 | 30 | 16.67 | 58 | 32.22 | 71 | 39.44 | 2.01 |
| Cruelty to Animal | 28 | 15.56 | 43 | 23.89 | 46 | 25.56 | 63 | 35.00 | 2.20 |
| Escape from lawful custody | 10 | 5.56 | 13 | 7.22 | 62 | 34.44 | 73 | 40.56 | 2.01 |
| Illegal Possession of Offensive firearm | 23 | 12.78 | 42 | 23.33 | 50 | 27.78 | 65 | 36.11 | 2.13 |
| Defilement of a child under 16 | 26 | 14.44 | 29 | 16.11 | 73 | 40.56 | 52 | 28.89 | 2.16 |
| Impersonation | 17 | 9.44 | 31 | 17.22 | 71 | 39.44 | 61 | 33.89 | 2.02 |
| Abortion | 60 | 33.33 | 57 | 31.67 | 41 | 22.78 | 22 | 12.22 | 2.89 |
| Rioting | 18 | 10.00 | 23 | 12.78 | 63 | 35.00 | 76 | 42.22 | 1.91 |
| Causing public nuisance | 39 | 21.67 | 43 | 23.89 | 47 | 26.11 | 51 | 28.33 | 2.39 |
| Kidnapping | 14 | 7.78 | 26 | 14.44 | 74 | 41.11 | 66 | 36.67 | 1.93 |
| Forgery | 26 | 14.44 | 40 | 22.22 | 55 | 30.56 | 59 | 32.78 | 2.18 |
| Arson | 32 | 17.78 | 38 | 21.11 | 57 | 31.67 | 53 | 29.44 | 2.27 |

N = 180.

Scale: Strongly agree = 4, Agree =3, Disagree =2, Strongly disagree =1, cutoff point = 2.5

Source: Researcher's Survey, 2019



From the analysis (Table 4.1), the results reveal that Stealing – also known as Thievery or Theft (mean score 3.12) and Possession of Narcotic Drugs ($\bar{X} = 3.07$) are the major crimes in the Municipality. These are closely followed by Assault ($\bar{X} = 2.93$), and Abortion ($\bar{X} = 2.89$). Other forms of crime with significant occurrences include Robbery ($\bar{X} = 2.67$), Threat to Harm ($\bar{X} = 2.54$), Causing unlawful Damage ($\bar{X} = 2.74$), and Causing Unlawful Harm ($\bar{X} = 2.68$).

The qualitative results corroborate the survey findings in many ways. For instance, the Wa Municipal Commander (frequently called the District Commander) who participated as a key informant in the study indicated that some crimes are common in the area and some are not. In his words: *“Stealing, Burglary, Robbery, and Assaults are the commonest crimes here....stealing is the most prevalent.....rape although handled by DOVVSU occurs but it is not frequent”* (DESUPOL-WA DIST, 27.01.19).

Another key informant, a Chief Inspector who doubles as the Rotational Personnel and the Community Policing Desk Officer of the Upper West Regional Command has the same view but disagreed on Robbery and Burglary being common in the municipality when he said that:

Assault and Stealing are the most common crimes in the Wa Municipality. Robbery is not rampant, but assault and stealing, and when we say assault we mean fighting, quarrel within families, and within the community, and when we say stealing, we mean stealing of motorbikes, goats, and other petty-petty things. We have rape cases.....that is why we have DOVVSU who normally take care of those issues, and as a community policing desk officer, I know the objective, the objective is to ensure there is peace within the community. When there is an issue, we educate them and transfer the case to DOVVSU because they specialise in the woman and family issues. Burglary is there but it is not one of the major issues, major ones are the assaults and stealing (Chief Inspector, 24.01.19).



However, the above statement speaks to the fact that Police crime statistics or information from the Police agencies are not enough to understand the prevailing crimes in their communities. Police agencies, especially where community policing philosophy has not been well implemented, only get to know crimes that have been reported to them, but are incognizant of many crimes going on in communities. For instance, burglary (breaking by the use of force with intention to steal crime) is one of the prevailing crimes in the various communities as indicated by the community members (although merged together with stealing, and ‘attempting to steal’) but has not been mentioned or has been rebutted by the Police as a common crime in the area. This is evidenced in the interview with one of the key informants, the Naa (Chief) of Mangu community who revealed that:

Theft, breaking of houses, drug, smoking or alcoholism are the common types of crime in our community. They break people houses, they pick people motorbikes, people accessories, animals, phone and other gadgets if they have access to it. I have a friend who stays here, they have attacked him severally, but they have never been successful in taking his property, they broke through his window.....the second time through his other window the first was his tenant they attacked. As for the man, they first came into his fence, they jumped into the fence and they were pipping through the window, he realised people were around, he put the barb wire across so that these thieves will not be able to get access to his house again. The last attempt of the thieves, he got injury, they try picking his phone from his window, he jumped to collect it from them, he failed down and injured his knee...up till now, he is still not walking well, that was three weeks ago (KII, Mangu, 28.02.19).



Also, during a focus group discussion session with the Community Police Assistants (CPAs), one of the discussants indicated that breaking into houses, assaults, threat to harm, stealing of children, stealing of animals like cattle, goats, and drug abuse are the common crimes in his community. He added that rape cases were recorded in the community some years ago, but it is no longer in existence now, as he was retiring, another discussant posted to *Kumbiehe* cut in, with a statement: “rape just occurred in my community yesterday, I reported the case to



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the Police Station....like my colleague said, cases of stealing is everywhere.....they snatch people phones, motorbikes, purse, and even with weapons sometimes” (FGD, CPA, 15.02.19).

The Assemblyman of Kumbiehe Community – a key informant, during an interview, disclosed that:

Stealing of motorbikes in people houses, goat and sheep,...anytime the place is dark they will block people and snatch their motorbikes or sometimes they will just catch and snatch your backs, these are the major issues they have been reporting to me. Breaking of houses and shops are regularly occurring also. They cut people windows to have access.....sometimes they stand behind the window and pick your belongings with stick. Rape is not our problem here, except that our girls are getting pregnant too much making them to drop out of school. Tramadol is also a problem here...both girls and boys take it, especially boys. The criminals are always around Magazine area every night (KII, Kumbiehe, 18.02.19).

Another key informant, Bamahu Assemblyman, like the previous person, disclosed during an interview that theft is the most common crime in his community. In his words:

We experience a lot of crimes here, I can say we have armed robbery issues, theft issues, and stealing issues. There is no rape case here because I have not been reported to that there is a rape here within Bamahu. There used to be burglary here but nowadays, it has gone down.....nowadays the commonest thing we have like they attack someone on the road, that is, you will be moving, they snatch from you, like you keep your motorbike, they take it away. Some of them have gun and knives. They snatch student's backs, laptops, phones sometimes they break their rooms and take away their properties. Crime has not been very serious here before, but the presence of the University motivated them. Sometimes, some of the perpetrators are students themselves. Breaking used to be during holidays when the students are not around....are not on campus, when they return, their properties are gone (KII-Bamahu, 09.02.2019).

In support of the Assemblyman's claim, a key informant from the University for Development Studies, Wa Campus situated at Bamahu (the Assemblyman's constituency) who was interviewed revealed that they are three major incidences of crime that are creating insecurity atmosphere for the school and the students:

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1. Armed robbery where a victim is accosted with either a weapon that can hurt and to compare the victim to oblige and yield to demands from the perpetrator. Armed robbery in the sense that, whether you have a cutlass or a gun or a knife once you pull out and use, it is described as armed robbery. 2. Physical attack on the body of the victims, 3. Theft. No rape case has actually been reported to me as Principal. ...females have been attacked but not rape, some are blackmail but not frequent, it might include demanding sex, but cases that have been brought to me, sex has not been granted. There is only one case of suicide that has been recorded (KII-Bamahu, 11.02.19).

In Dondoli Community, the Assemblyman disclosed that theft is the major crime harrying the community and the lives of the residents. He added that some of the community boys form camps in which they use to attack others or to defend themselves against attack from another camps. According to him:

We have theft.... our major problem here is theft. Another one is community fighting among themselves...they form camps and fight against each other.... it is called camps fighting, they recently came with scissors and fight themselves. Stealing of goats, breaking rooms and collecting money, mobile phone, motorbikes and other things. They also break shops to take people goods and other properties (KII-Dondoli, 13.03.19).

Also a focus group discussion section with men group at the same Dondoli summarises thus:

These days it is in the day times, they can block you on your way and snatch your phones. They collect people's motorbikes, and can beat you if you don't have money to give them. They will tell you give me your phone all I will kill you, and for your life, your life is more important, you will just give it to them like that.Dondoli and Kumbiehe have magazine, and that's where the criminals stay. They also stay at that mountain side when you pass that shrubs. They steal people animals and take them there to kill and eat. Police know they are there, but it seems they are friends to police....we know the criminals, but we cannot arrest them because we fear of being attacked by their groups. They sit with girls together in the evening timeso the girls too are part of them (FGD-Dondoli, 16.03.2019).

Collaterally, the time series based secondary data collected from the Ghana Police Service of the Wa Command (annual crime report statistics) show that Assault and Stealing are the major crimes in the area. Table 4.3 presents the crime report from 2015 to 2018 showing the common

types of crime in the study area. The table contains selected crimes that have continued to occur overtime in the Wa Municipality.

Table 4.3 Annual crime report of the Ghana Police Service, Wa District Command

| Reported Crime/Years | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 |
|--|------|------|------|------|
| Assault | 299 | 256 | 245 | 253 |
| Stealing | 412 | 489 | 495 | 462 |
| Offensive Conduct - breach of peace | 30 | 27 | 23 | 22 |
| Threat of Harm | 46 | 49 | 46 | 55 |
| Causing unlawful Damage | 33 | 34 | 48 | 22 |
| Threat of Death | 25 | 23 | 19 | 28 |
| Causing Unlawful Harm | 11 | 10 | 13 | 15 |
| Defrauding by false pretense | 41 | 51 | 60 | 88 |
| Robbery | 42 | 18 | 41 | 45 |
| Murder | 7 | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| Attempted to commit murder | 3 | 3 | 0 | 1 |
| Failure to provide for health and life | 2 | 18 | - | 21 |
| Rape | 2 | 7 | 9 | 5 |
| Defilement of a child under 16 | 22 | 15 | 21 | 17 |
| Abduction of a female under 18 years | 9 | 7 | 5 | 4 |
| Unlawful Entry | 19 | 7 | 4 | 7 |
| Possessing forged document (counterfeit) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Possession of Narcotic Drugs | 0 | 2 | 3 | 9 |
| Attempting to commit stealing | 8 | 11 | 16 | 16 |
| Act tending to disrupt peace | 4 | 4 | 8 | 4 |
| Trespassing | 3 | 4 | 4 | 11 |
| Cruelty to Animal | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| Escape from lawful custody | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 |
| Illegal Possession of Offensive firearm | 0 | 4 | 2 | 3 |
| Possession of Forged Note Currency | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 |

Source: Wa Municipal Police Department Annual Report File (2015 - 2018)

To understand the rate of crime occurrence in the table 4.3, the first two major crimes (Assault and Stealing) are isolated and represented using chart (see figure 4.1), whilst the next six second highest in the table are separated and represented using chart also. These include



Offensive conduct, Threat of harm, Unlawful damage, Threat of death, Defrauding by false pretense, and Robbery, (see figure 4.2).

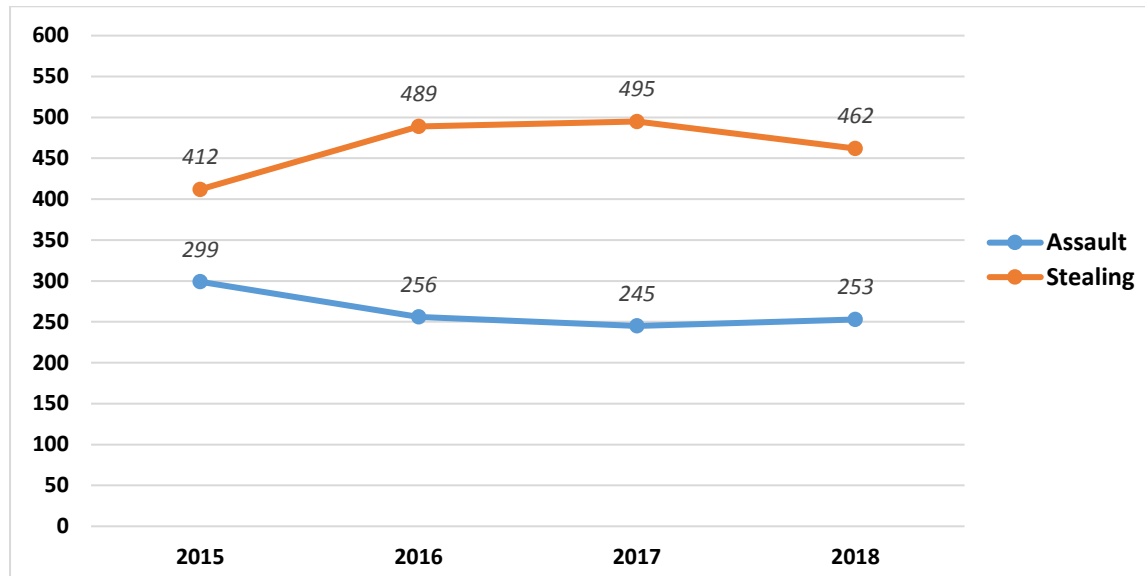


Figure 4.1: Annual stealing and Assault report of the Ghana Police Service, Wa District Command

Source: Wa Municipal Police Department Annual Report File (2015 - 2018)

From figure 4.1, apparently shows that Assaults and stealing are the major crimes in the study area. Looking at the figure, it can be seen that Assault cases declined from 299 in 2015 to 256 in 2016, and to 245 in 2017 before rising a bit to 253 in 2018. This indicates that Assault cases have decreased since 2015 to 2018. Whilst Stealing increased from 412 in 2015 to 489 in 2016, and to 495 in 2017 before declining to 464, which indicates that instead of decreasing as a result of the presence of community policing in the study area, stealing cases continued to rise.



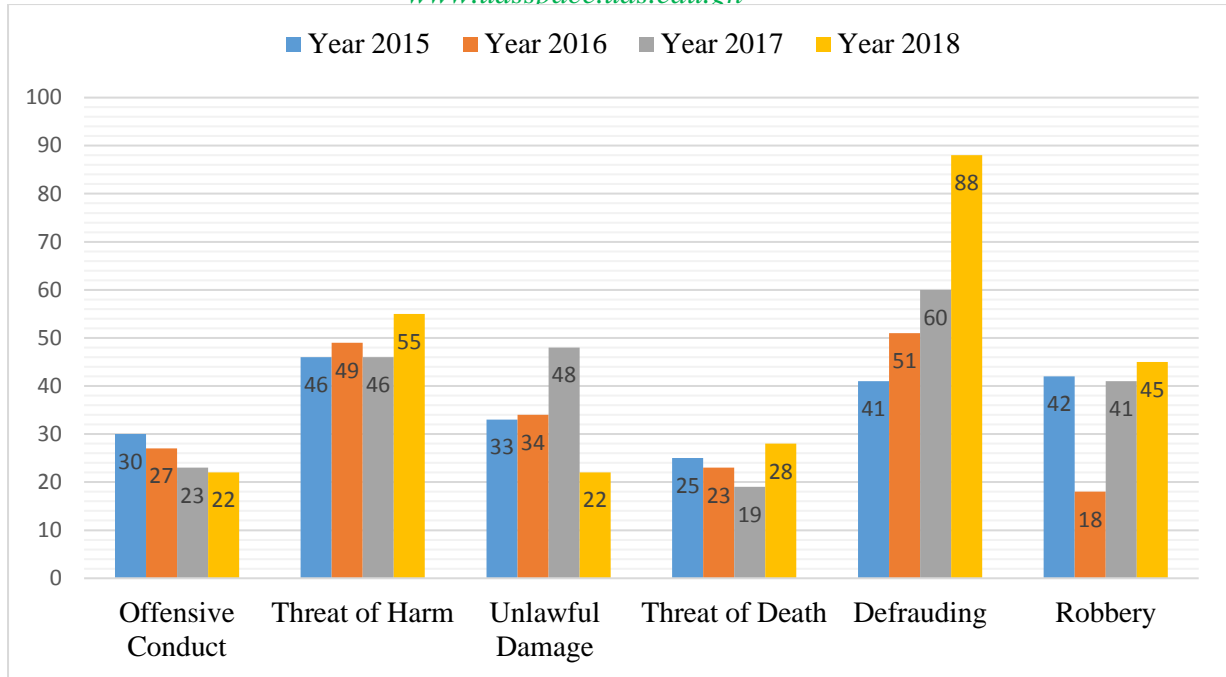


Figure. 4.2 Annual crime report of the Ghana Police Service, Wa District Command

Source: Wa Municipal Police Department Annual Report File (2015 – 2018)

From figure 4.2, it can be seen that there is no regularity in the decline of crime, instead, some have steadily increased. For instance, Offensive conduct declined from 30 in 2015 to 27 in 2016, to 23 in 2017 and to 22 in 2018. Threat of harm rose from 46 in 2015 to 49 in 2016, and reversed to 46 in 2017, and then shoot up to 55 in 2018. Unlawful damage continued rising from 33 in 2015 to 48 in 2017, and declined to 22 in 2018. Threat of death was irregular as it declined from 25 in 2015 to 19 in 2017, and then shoot up 28 in 2018. Defrauding by false pretense increased steadily from 41 in 2015 to 51 in 2016, to 60 in 2017 and to 88 in 2018. This is about 115% increase when compared to the 2015 record. Robbery declined from 42 in 2015 to 18 in 2016, shoot up to 41 in 2017, and to 45 in 2018.

It is now visibly clear through the strong data triangulation (the interview, the survey, and the secondary data) that Assaults and Stealing are the most prevailing crimes in the Wa Municipality. However, from the analysis, the main crimes in the study area include: stealing,



robbery, assault, threat to harm, unlawful damage, unlawful harm, abortion and possession of narcotics. The perpetrators target motorbikes; animals like goats, cattle, turkeys, chickens; phones, students and worker's laptops; money; women purses; student bags; goods of private business owners; and other accessories. Also, children have been stolen in some locations. In most of the stealing cases, shops and houses are being burgled which in turn causing property damage – unlawful damage. In the same vain, the finding shows that most of the robbery cases manifest inform of snatching properties of residents effected by blocking their targets at lonely locations, and sometimes, in the day time. In the process of robbing their targets, perpetrators inflict injury on their victims, and may issue threat of harm, and/or pull out their weapons (Gun, cutlass or knives) to scare their victims.

4.2.2 The Effect of Crime on Development in the Wa Municipality

This section analyses how the common crimes identified in the previous section affect the lives and activities of the people in the Wa Municipality. Like the previous section, this section adopts a 4 point Likert-type scale to analyse the survey data on the effect of crime on development in the study area (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4 Effect of Crime on Development

| Item | Strongly Agree | | Agree | | Disagree | | Strongly Disagree | | Mean (\bar{X}) |
|---|----------------|-------|-------|-------|----------|-------|-------------------|-------|--------------------|
| | F | % | f | % | F | % | F | % | |
| Create fears which in turn causes anxiety and sleeplessness among residents | 56 | 31.11 | 71 | 39.44 | 24 | 13.33 | 29 | 16.11 | 2.86 |
| Cause psychological trauma to the victims and relatives. | 68 | 37.78 | 50 | 27.78 | 40 | 22.22 | 22 | 12.22 | 2.91 |
| Cause financial bankruptcy (loss of income) | 49 | 27.22 | 82 | 45.56 | 21 | 11.67 | 28 | 15.56 | 2.84 |
| Cause loss of properties | 75 | 41.67 | 80 | 44.44 | 18 | 10.00 | 7 | 3.89 | 3.24 |
| Cause death | 30 | 16.67 | 46 | 25.56 | 56 | 31.11 | 48 | 26.67 | 2.32 |
| Affect public investments | 36 | 20.00 | 49 | 27.22 | 42 | 23.33 | 53 | 29.44 | 2.38 |



| | | | | | | | | | |
|--|----|-------|----|-------|----|-------|----|-------|-------------|
| Affect private investments | 69 | 38.33 | 65 | 36.11 | 34 | 18.89 | 12 | 6.67 | 3.06 |
| Affect educational achievements | 45 | 25.00 | 50 | 27.78 | 48 | 26.67 | 37 | 20.56 | 2.57 |
| Affect school enrolments | 35 | 20.56 | 56 | 31.11 | 53 | 29.44 | 36 | 20.00 | 2.50 |
| Affect interpersonal relationship among community members by decreasing existing trust | 63 | 35.00 | 70 | 38.89 | 31 | 17.22 | 16 | 8.89 | 3.00 |
| Cause financial cost to the community and the government | 41 | 22.78 | 55 | 30.56 | 46 | 25.56 | 38 | 21.11 | 2.55 |

$n=180$.

Scale: Strongly Agree = 4, Agree = 3, Disagree = 2, Strongly Disagree = 1, cut-off point = 2.5

Source: Researcher's Field Survey, 2019

From the analysis (Table 4.4), crime affects life and development in many different ways.

First, crime creates fears which in turn causes anxiety and sleeplessness among residents ($\bar{X} = 2.86$), and also psychological trauma to the victims and relatives ($\bar{X} = 2.91$). Furthermore, crime leads to financial bankruptcy/loss of income ($\bar{X} = 2.84$), loss of properties ($\bar{X} = 3.24$), and affect private investments ($\bar{X} = 3.06$). In addition, crime adversely affects educational achievements ($\bar{X} = 2.57$), school enrolments ($\bar{X} = 2.50$), interpersonal relationship among community members by decreasing existing trust ($\bar{X} = 3.00$), and causes financial cost to the community and the government ($\bar{X} = 2.55$).

This is congruous with the revelations from the key informants and other participants in the research field. For example: the Assemblyman of Bamahu when probed with the question of how crime affect development in his community, revealed as thus:

Crime affects development in the sense that sometimes people fear to come with their businesses here because of crimes. You know when there are businesses then there are developments but if businesses are low development becomes low. When it happens like that and people don't come, unemployment rate will be high....you know if people come with their businesses, they will employ people. It affects education too because there are some teachers they wouldn't want to come.some of the teachers have been affected. It affects students too....students themselves sometimes they don't want to come, and



when students are affected, they will not encourage their friends or family members to come. It equally creates a very bad name to the community (KII-Bamahu, 09.02.19).

In the same vain, a key informant from the UDS Wa Campus revealed that crime in the Municipality creates atmosphere of insecurity that can affect students and public investment like the University in the area, including reduction of student enrolment. According to him, the identified crimes:

Contribute to an environment of insecurity, and when it happens the biggest problem is that it affects the campus, the university's brand image. It has sometimes been described as reasons why there are reduction in student numbers. I don't have the scientific evidence to back up that claim but in any case, when you don't have very good stories coming out to the world about you, then you are in trouble. We presume that it may have an impact on our brand identity and the willingness of the prospective students to choose UDS Wa Campus as a destination. We are only presumptuous. The students are affected and the evidence is there. SRC have come here few times to complain about the school environment and the insecurity environment. Ghana Muslim Association (GMSA) have come here and actually they decided to visit the Bamahu Chief to complain to tell him that they as Muslim students think that Bamahu is a Muslim community and Muslims are not giving a good image of the religion and thought that they should react. Also, CRC once planned to organise students for a demonstration, but we convinced them to drop the idea (KII, UDS, 11.02.19).

The above statement confirm the fact that crime does not only affect direct victims, but can also affect others indirectly. It creates fears and capable of affecting investments – both private and public. It spiflicates image of communities and institutions, and consequently, people try to avoid such communities and/or institutions. Crime also make people lose their hard earnings, make both direct and indirect victims go bankruptcy. Victims of crime do not only suffer physical body injury, they also suffer psychological trauma as their psychological health are being devastated. The relatives of the direct victims are not left out, they are the indirect victims – they are traumatized too, it also cost them money and time until their own



recuperates. This is in tandem with the information gathered during a focus group discussion session with the women group at Mangu where one of the discussants submitted that:

The criminals are disturbing us here....they entered my house when I went to the market and they took away my money, my cloths, my shoes, many things. And this money is not mine. It is people own, people contribution, we do contribution in our sales, I collected my turn to help my business, now they took it. How do I pay back? Please you people should help us (FGD, Mangu, 02.03.19)

Another discussant in the group also revealed that their goats and sheep were stolen when the perpetrators discovered that no person was home. Similarly, another person disclosed that her friend's mobile phone was snatched in the day time when she returned home and was trying to open her door. They also disclosed that people shops are indiscriminately being broken and their goods stolen, and that these incidences take place both in the day and night time. One of the women lamented how she spent money in the hospital when her daughter was raped at an uncompleted building when she went to buy something during late evening. In her words:

Last year, my daughter was raped, she is gone to buy something outside there. They dragged her to one uncompleted building and raped her there. She was 14 years old, she fell sick later and we took her to hospital. We told Police and they said they will get them.....since that time we never heard from them (FGD, Mangu, 02.03.19).



In Bamahu, a similar focus group discussion with women group also confirmed that residents and business owners are affected by crimes, as one of the discussants (a student) disclosed that her phone has been snatched two times, and that she once returned from travel and was greeted by an empty room – all her properties have been taken away by the criminals. In the same vain, another member of the group revealed that the perpetrators few years ago, tactically and in stepwise, robbed everybody in her hostel, raping one girl in the process. A business woman in the group also disclosed that although she has never been a victim, she has seen her

fellow business people being robbed and their shops burgled, whilst their properties and goods have been taken away.

In addition, an opinion leader interviewed at *Kumbiehe* opined that crime affect people businesses in his community, and that it has crumbled people sources of income. Thus:

When it happens, sometimes your business will go back. For instance if they go into your house and take the money you use for your business, your capital, your business will collapse. So it affects people business, and animals.somebody business is to rear animals. Like my uncle, his business was to rear animal, he had 7 turkeys and they just cleared all of them. Now he doesn't have even a small one now. It will take him a long time to recover (KII-Kumbiehe, 19.02.19).

In addition, a focus group discussion with men group at Dondoli revealed many ways in which crime affect development in their community. As one of the discussants whose business premises was used for the discussion pointed at his shop, disclosing that:

This store you are seeing here has been burgled twice, each time they come they will break the store and take away everything in the store.....they steal all my goods....making me to start new again. You see, this is not how my business was before, I was having many things in this shop, but now I dey struggle to build it up again. I spent plenty money to secure the shop....you can see how I put burglarproof everywhere.I have overpowered them, but no money to put in the business again (FGD-Dondoli, 16.03.19).

Another discussant also bared his view, revealing that the crimes create conflict and distrust in the community. In his word:

The worst is that we are now fighting each other because of crime problems in this community. No trust again, when you take any criminal to court, the family members will come to fight you. They will say their children are not criminal. Why are they doing that? Somebody took a criminal to the police station recently, the following day, somebody from the family came and stab him with knife. Also, politicians are also contributing to the problem, they manipulate and release the criminals back to the community again. Now the criminals are around everywhere doing what they like; no nobody can arrest them.this is pathetic 'masa' (FGD-Dondoli, 16.03.19).



The Assemblyman of Dondoli also confirmed that crime affect development in his community when he revealed during an interview section with him that:

Yes, I can say that based on the report I have, 9 to 10 shops are closed because of insecurity in Dondoli. Their shops were broken and all their items were stolen completely, so they have to close the shops as they can't continue because lack finance to buy and start again. Students living here are not comfortable to sleep because of insecurity, it has effect on them. It affects the community because when the community members are affected, it will definitely affect the community (KII-Dondoli, 13.03.19).

From the results, the main effects include: environment of insecurity manifesting in form of fear of crime which in turn result in anxiety and sleeplessness among residents. People fear to carry on with their daily routine activities to avoid being victims of crime. Crime causes psychological trauma to the victims and relatives. The psychological health of the direct and indirect victims of crime are devastated whenever serious crimes like rape, murder, robbery, and even property theft (stealing and burglary) occurs. Crime causes financial bankruptcy/loss of income to the direct and indirect victims; residents when affected spend money to either treat themselves, repay or replace properties damaged or stolen. Victims of crime suffer loss of their properties; the valuable properties like motorbikes, laptops, business goods, phones, accessories, etc. of victims are lost. Crime affect private investments; business owners are forced to close down their businesses by perpetrators of crimes, while some fear to invest due to stories of others. Crime affect educational attainment/achievements through creating environmental insecurity for students. Crime affect school enrolments; by creating a bad image to the school and communities where the schools are domiciled. Crime affect interpersonal relationship among community members by decreasing existing trust; residents oppose and distrust each other owing to crime. Finally the analysis also indicate that crime causes financial cost to the local communities and the national government.



4.2.3 Community participation in Community Policing and effectiveness of Community Policing Strategies

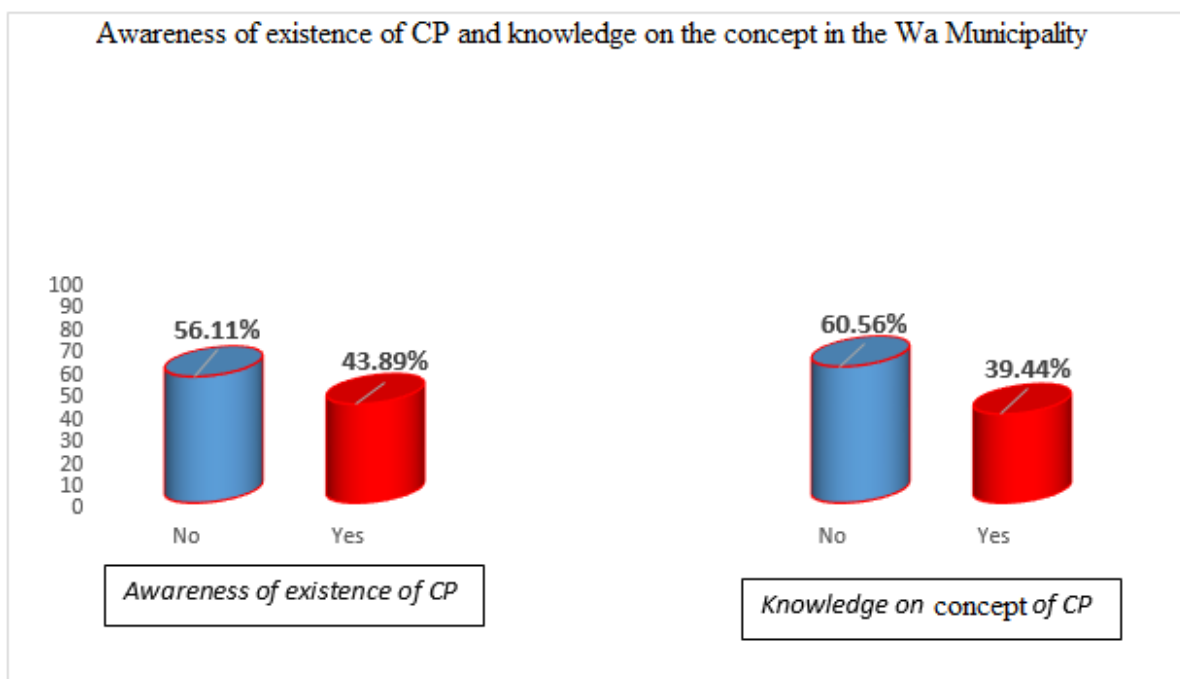
This section presents CP strategies adopted by the GPS for crime management, the effectiveness of the strategies and community participation. The section starts by presenting and analysing CP implementation outcomes which include the level of awareness of the existence of community policing and knowledge of its functions in the Municipality. Followed by the common CP strategies adopted by the GPS and cordiality issues between the GPS and community stakeholders. This is followed by using some implementation and public safety outcomes to understand the effectiveness of the strategies and the community participation based on the community member's perspective. The outcomes include whether respondents now feel safe walking alone in the study area during the day and night time as a result of CP existence, whether respondents now have confidence and trust in Police, whether Police are now very friendly to the people, and whether there is a good level of crime reduction as a result of community policing implementation in the area. Like the previous sections, 4 point Likert-type scale (treated as interval scale) was employed to test the strategies where percentages and mean of the responses were determined. Others (those not in composite form) were treated as ordinal, and thus only percentages were calculated. The qualitative data have been used to corroborate the survey results. While the secondary data (time-series data of crime statistics) have been used to understand whether crime has reduced in the study area or not. Data are presented in tables, charts, and themes.

Awareness of Existence/Knowledge of the function of Community Policing in the Municipality

In the Wa Municipality, awareness of the existence of community policing and the knowledge on the function of the concept seems to be low. Even the existing awareness hovers around the presence of the CPAs, as many participants interviewed always refer to the CPAs as the



existence of CP they can talk about. For instance, during a focus group discussion in one of the communities, almost all participants indicated they were aware of the CP existence in the community but none of them could explain anything about the concept except referring to the CPAs. This is because of the way it was presented to them, besides, ‘Community Police Assistant’ is a youth job in Ghana and as a result the job advertisement is capable of making ‘CPA’ popular than the ‘community policing’ concept itself. However, figure 4.3 presents the knowledge status of the respondents on the existence of CP in the research area.



n=180

4.3 Percentage distribution of respondent on awareness of existence and knowledge of the function of Community Policing

Source: Researcher's Field Survey, 2019s



From figure 4.3, it is obvious that majority of respondents (56.11%) did not know about the existence of CP in their communities, depicting that awareness status of the existence of CP in the Municipality is low. The figure also show that majority of the respondents (60.56%) do not have knowledge of the concept of CP in their communities. It can therefore be adjudged

that enough campaign through the media and community meetings is needed to increase the knowledge, since the largest population are still not aware of the concept.

Awareness of the presence of CP in an area and knowledge of the concept (which of course tell the roles and functions) of CP can help the Police Service and the communities to be able to differentiate it from the traditional policing style and work effectively. Again, knowledge of the function of CP is germane to its successful application or implementation. This is because the knowledge of the presence is not enough especially for the fact that the citizens are required to participate in the process, hence, when the function is known, participation becomes easier as people can be convinced on the need. Awareness of the function of CP is very critical, in fact, this is one of the reasons many CP efforts have failed. Be that as it may, evident abound that many police agencies who are manning CP are not well schooled on the functions, making them to continue in the traditional response mechanism. For instance, most of the Police officers interviewed could not explain any reasonable thing about the function of CP, as they continued to mention the function of the CPAs. The officers preferred to use ‘*they* and *their*’ instead of ‘*the*’ and/or ‘*its*’ to describe the functions of CP. In other words, they take community police assistants as CP and consequently make statements like “*their function is to report crime to the police*”, “*they are collaborating with Police to reduce crimes in the Municipality*” etc. Even the District Commander who doubles as the in-charge of CP unit and had to balance different duties, could not say anything close to the concept of CP aside the CPAs placed under him. For example, question presented to him was ‘I want to seek your knowledge and awareness of what the concept of community policing is all about and how it differs from other key approaches of policing’ and his response was thus:

Community policing basically, they are to assist the police in the prevention and detection of crimes. And in the prevention aspect, they are expected to be patrolling in their community so as to prevent criminals from committing crime especially robbery and stealing, because when they see them in the area and



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they are patrolling they can chase them...that's the preventive aspect. Then the detection aspect is to assist the police to detect criminals in their area so that you will monitor their full surveillance of them or even to arrest them if they have committed crime. Although any other work that the Police see necessary can be assigned to them (KII, 27.01.19).

Thinking that he misunderstood the question, the researcher rephrased the question to; apart from the Community Police Assistants, generally, what is the concept of Community policing all about?

His response:

Yes! The name describes what it is about, is community policing, they police the community within which they live. And because they live there they have the local knowledge, they know the people; their name, the criminals and those things. So they can be able to give information about them. They can also monitor them, pass information and then the police will deal with the arrest and monitoring of such suspect. So they do it within their community as the name connotes (KII, 2019).

Such response speaks a lot to the way CP was adopted in Ghana or how it is applied in the Wa Municipality. Referring CP to the Police Assistants who in a real sense should simply be seen as community implant hypothesis of the state policing agency, is capable of collapsing the entire crime prevention efforts. This is because, the constituted Police agency (the GPS in this case) has the full constitutional right to protect the life and property of the residents, and upon adopting CP philosophy should be saddled with the responsibility of coming up with democratic policing strategies, which may include implanting community based informal security mechanism (like the CPAs) in communities of their jurisdiction. Community policing is broader than the way the implementers see it. It can be defined or explained without involving the CPAs, this is lacking. Furthermore, Notwithstanding, two key informants among the Police officers interviewed showed they have deep knowledge of the concept, as one (the formal CP Desk officer) responded to the same question as follows:

There is a lot of challenges because the concept is not buying into the people. They should be eye to eye watching of individual houses and properties, neighbours should be their own police. The initial of the community policing



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gives you the whole vestige of the policing, because it is a partnership between the police and the community to share ideas, views and the modalities of combatting crime or preventing crime in the community. If you look at those concepts of the community policing, you will realise that it is more prudent to buy the community policing than the other policing. Because the community policing itself is the cheapest priced form of policing in the world as compared to the previous ones. I am saying this because, you are trying to prevent something to occur rather for the thing to occur and you start going to processing the person, taking the persons statement, taking the person document send it to a law court where you start giving adjournment, look at the time, look at money involve. That is the imperialism system of policing. But now, community policing says, if you are able to prevent the crime, those processes would be avoided. The country will spend less and communities will be safe (KII, 2019).

His response shows he was trained on the application of CP as he explained the concept in detail without mentioning the CPAs in the process. Congruously, the second person, (the Staff Officer of the Regional Command) explained the functions of CP without dragging the CPAs into the concept. In his words:

It is a policing that involves partnership between the Community and the Police that is geared towards crime reduction or prevention. It is a problem solving approach. And it is quite different from other forms of policing because it concentrates on pro-activeness, which makes it preventive in nature unlike the normal policing that is just reactive, that is responding only when crime has been committed already. It is a democratic policing that when well implemented can save cost, since it helps to reduce incarceration rate (KII, 2019).

From the explanations giving by the officers, it can be deduced that the function of CP, when well understood can influence acceptance and successful implementation of the concept. It further indicates that a lot of work is still needed to be done by the police agency to educate the populace on the function of CP, since it is possible that such knowledge can trigger the interest of the residents to offer support through participation in the implementation process. As police and other law enforcement agencies are obliged to creating awareness of both the presence and the functions of CP, they are also mandated to create or increase cordiality



between them and the residents, especially the societal leaders for effectiveness. It is therefore pertinent to look at what the residents say about cordiality issues in the study area.

Community Policing Strategies (Institutional and Community Perspective) in the Wa Municipality

Cardinal to this study objective are the CP strategies adopted by the Police Service for crime prevention. It is crucial to understand various strategies employed by the Police agency to manage crime, because CP implementations can fail when the right strategies are not employed. These strategies are fundamental to what makes CP different from other policing styles. Table 4.5 hereby presents the frequencies, percentages, and mean distribution of the responses from the community residents who responded to the survey on the CP strategies employed by the GPS for crime prevention in the study area.

Table 4.5: Knowledge of community policing strategies' among respondents

| Variable | Strongly Agree | | Agree | | Disagree | | Strongly Disagree | | Mean (\bar{X}) |
|--|----------------|-------|-------|-------|----------|-------|-------------------|-------|--------------------|
| | F | % | F | % | F | % | f | % | |
| Foot Patrol Strategy | 12 | 6.67 | 29 | 16.11 | 76 | 42.22 | 63 | 35.00 | 1.94 |
| Bicycle Patrol Strategy | 20 | 11.11 | 32 | 17.78 | 62 | 34.44 | 66 | 36.67 | 2.03 |
| Motorbike Patrol Strategy | 33 | 18.33 | 40 | 22.22 | 56 | 31.11 | 51 | 28.33 | 2.31 |
| Vehicle Patrol Strategy | 65 | 36.11 | 71 | 39.44 | 26 | 14.44 | 18 | 10.00 | 3.02 |
| Door to Door Visit Strategy | 8 | 4.44 | 11 | 6.11 | 78 | 43.33 | 83 | 46.11 | 1.69 |
| Visibility Strategy (by decentralizing police post to communities) | 27 | 15.00 | 44 | 24.44 | 67 | 37.22 | 42 | 23.33 | 2.31 |
| Community Forum Strategy | 6 | 3.33 | 18 | 10.00 | 77 | 42.78 | 79 | 43.89 | 1.73 |
| Community Empowerment Strategy | 20 | 11.11 | 25 | 13.89 | 59 | 32.78 | 76 | 42.22 | 1.94 |
| Awareness Through Media Strategy | 38 | 21.11 | 40 | 22.22 | 52 | 28.89 | 50 | 27.78 | 2.37 |



| | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|----|-------|----|-------|----|-------|----|-------|------|
| Distribution of Distress Call Numbers | 41 | 22.78 | 58 | 32.22 | 47 | 26.11 | 34 | 18.89 | 2.59 |
|---------------------------------------|----|-------|----|-------|----|-------|----|-------|------|

$n=180$.

Scale: Strongly agree = 4, Agree =3, Disagree =2, Strongly disagree =1, Cut-off point = 2.5

Source: Researcher's field Survey, 2019

From table 4.3, only Vehicle Patrol Strategy ($\bar{X} = 3.02$) and Distribution of Distress Call Numbers ($\bar{X} = 2.59$) hit the strong factor level. Meaning that with exception of the two strategies, other items (strategies) have not been applied in the communities or have not been recognized by the community members. These strategies with limitation in knowledge on CP strategies include Foot Patrol Strategy ($\bar{X} = 1.94$), Bicycle Patrol Strategy ($\bar{X} = 2.03$), Motorbike Patrol Strategy ($\bar{X} = 2.31$), Door to Door Visit Strategy ($\bar{X} = 1.69$), Visibility Strategy (by decentralizing police post to communities) ($\bar{X} = 2.31$), Community Forum Strategy ($\bar{X} = 1.73$), Community Empowerment Strategy ($\bar{X} = 1.94$), and Awareness through Media Strategy ($\bar{X} = 2.37$). Deductively, Vehicle Patrol and Provision of Distress Call Numbers are the only strategies known by the community members in the study area. These strategies are however not enough for the implementation of CP. Adoption and intensification of these strategies are paramount to effective CP implementation, hence, should be encouraged.

Interestingly, the GPS in the Wa Municipality disclosed that some of the strategies are not effective owing to some challenges. For instance, the former CP desk officer in the study area revealed that:

When I was always very vibrant with the community, we used to go to the communities, visit them, and sit with them, with the stakeholders. When I say stakeholders, I mean the assembly members, the opinion leaders, the chiefs, the old security service personnel – military, police and fire service, the ex-service men. We have to sit and discuss our issues concerning the community to come out with solution to solve the issues so that we have a very peaceful environment in the communities. The community members normally give us information through the distress call number we provided, then we respond.

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We have foot patrols, we have mobile patrols, that is, bicycle patrols, motorcycle patrols, and door to door policing. But most of them are not very effective now because there is no motivation (KII, 2019).

Similarly, the District Commander disclosed that visibility as a strategy has been employed, but the problem with the strategy is that it doesn't have community at heart in terms of relating with the community stakeholders like other strategies. However, he revealed that a mini-police post has been established in Dobile (one of the electoral communities and suburb of Wa) to ensure they are very visible there. He also mentioned that:

We have foot patrol, motorbike patrol, car patrol, but we are proposing to start door to door visiting soon, as it does not exist now. Community forum started last year. Police numbers have been giving to the community members but they don't call (KII, 2019).

When the Assemblyman of Dondoli was interviewed on the CP strategies in his community, he disagreed on some of the Police positions, as he reacted in the following way:

....they say they have community police assistants in my community, it is not true. I don't know them, and they don't know me.that is why we want to restore Watchdog committee. There is nothing like foot patrol here, only vehicle patrol in the night which is even along the road side, they don't enter inside the communities. No motorbike patrol, no community fora, even police contacts are not well distributed.....as for door to door visit, you don't even talk about it in my area (Assemblyman-Dondoli, 2019).

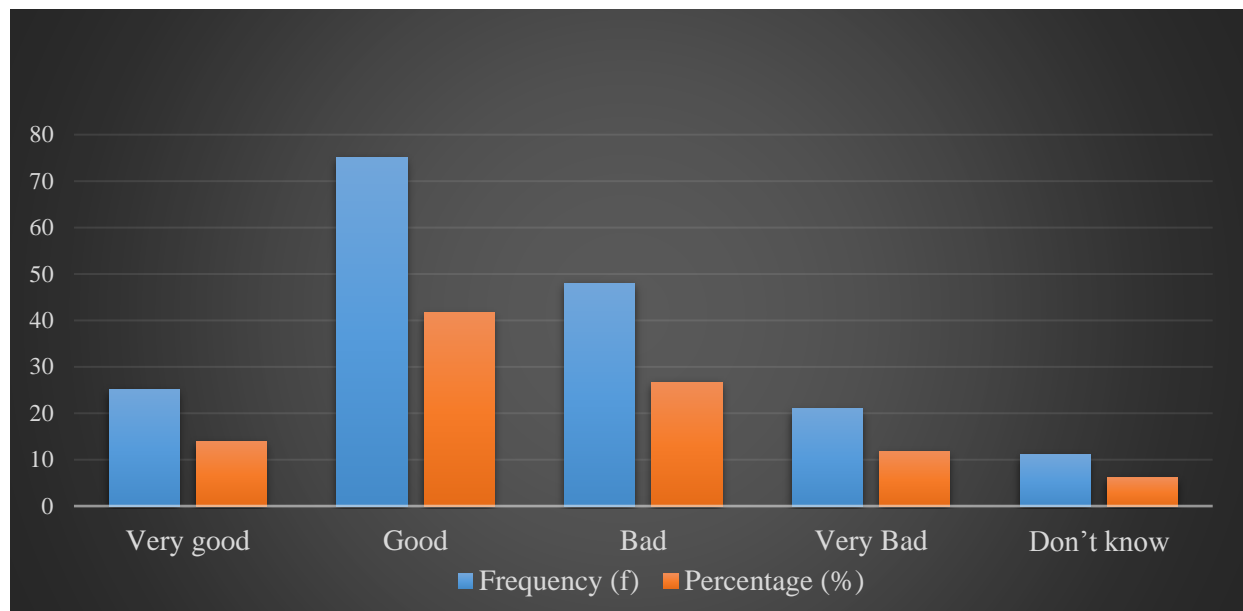
A Focus Group Discussion with Men group at Mangu Community also confirmed some of the strategies pointed out by the key informants. Thus:

We can't say much about the community policing, what we know is the people with uniform and you can't see them within the community. They are not always around and they are not from this community. How can they recruit community police and they will not take them to the community so that they can be recognised? How do we call them or report crime to them if we don't know them?They only pass with motorbikes sometimes.....even the Police themselves do not know what is happening inside the community, because they don't know the community, so they don't patrol inside. Criminals operate by 3 to 4 Am consistently and nobody care.Watchdog committee were existing but no more again. It was organised by the community through the Assemblyman, but they are no longer there. I saw some numbers pasted outside....how can I call it when it wasn't given to me? (FGD-Mangu, 2019)



Cordiality between the police, the Chiefs, and communities in Community Policing

Friendliness is necessary in the implementation of CP in any society. This is because police agencies cannot achieve any success without shifting from military mode of policing to a friendlier mode that could create trust and confidence for effective partnership. Most of the key informants disclosed that a cordial relationship exist between the Ghana Police agency, the Chiefs and other community members. Complemented by the survey at the community level, Figure 4.5 depicts the view of the respondents on cordiality issues in the study area.



n=180

Figure 4.5: Frequency and Percentage distribution of respondents on cordiality between the Police Service and the community in the Wa Municipality.

Source: Researcher's Field Survey, 2019

From figure 4.5, it can be seen that the respondents' responses on the cordiality status between the Police, the Chiefs, and other community members in terms of crime management in the Wa Municipality is a confirmation of the key informant's view and those in the focused group discussion session. The respondents' views generally indicate that the cordiality is good. For example, 13.89% (n=25) of the respondents indicate that the cordiality is very good. While





41.67% (n=75) indicate that the cordiality is good. However, 26.67% (n=48), see it as being bad, 11.67% (n=21) see it to be very bad, whilst 6.11% (n=11) are apathetic to the view as they indicated 'I don't know'. It can therefore be deduced that cordiality is not an issue as there is good cordiality between the Police and the community members.

Community perspectives of the effectiveness of community policing

This section explains effectiveness of CP based on the common implementation outcomes of CP. Therefore, table 4.6 presents the frequency, percentage and mean distribution of respondents on the outcomes of effective CP implementation in the study area.

Table 4.6 Respondent perspective on the effectiveness of community policing

| Variable | Strongly Agree | | Agree | | Disagree | | Strongly Disagree | | Mean (\bar{X}) |
|--|----------------|-------|-------|-------|----------|-------|-------------------|-------|-----------------------|
| | F | % | f | % | F | % | F | % | |
| You now feel very safe walking alone in your area during the day time? | 47 | 26.11 | 60 | 33.33 | 43 | 23.89 | 30 | 16.67 | 2.69 |
| You now feel very safe walking alone in your area during the night time? | 16 | 8.89 | 22 | 12.22 | 68 | 37.78 | 74 | 41.11 | 1.89 |
| You now have confidence in Police | 11 | 6.11 | 17 | 9.44 | 82 | 45.56 | 70 | 38.89 | 1.83 |
| Police are now very friendly to the people that you can easily rely on them when you have problems | 13 | 7.22 | 24 | 13.33 | 78 | 43.33 | 65 | 36.11 | 1.92 |
| A good level of trust now exist between the Police and the community members | 22 | 12.22 | 30 | 16.67 | 77 | 42.78 | 51 | 28.33 | 2.13 |
| There is a good level of crime reduction | 42 | 23.33 | 47 | 26.11 | 59 | 32.78 | 32 | 17.78 | 2.55 |

n=180.

Scale: Strongly agreed = 4, Agreed =3, Disagree =2, Strongly disagreed =1, Cut-off point = 2.5

Source: Researcher's Fieldwork, 2019

From Table 4.4, it can be seen that respondents only agreed that since the implementation of CP, they now feel very safe walking alone during the day time ($\bar{X} = 2.69$) and that there is a good level of crime reduction ($\bar{X} = 2.55$) in their communities. This is to say that residents are yet to feel the impact of CP in terms of walking alone in the night, improved confidence in the Police, seeing Police as friends to rely on, and in terms of trust. Although, the respondents agreed that there is crime reduction in the study area, it is very clear that Police is yet to draw the community members closer to appreciate the gains inherent in partnership for effective policing. This is because, confidence, trust and reliability are the bedrock of effective community policing.

The qualitative data substantiate the survey result in many ways. For example, one of the key informants, a Police officer disclosed that a lot of problems exist in the implementation of CP in the Municipality, the problems ranges from lack of public trust in Police, to lack of confidence, and to lack of motivation. Quoting from his own words, thus:

The general public, especially at the community level have no confidence in the Police. The community members do not trust us for information. The Ghana Police Service in Wa generally have problem of personnel and logistics. We also don't have enough motivation both from the communities and the government. These are reasons community policing is not working well here (KII, 2019).

Relatedly, the District Commander which I see as the total mouthpiece of what CP exist for in the Municipality, since he is in charge of the unit and CPAs in the command, disclosed that:

I cannot say that community policing is effective for now because crime is generally not reducing in the Municipality. The CPAs are not effective at all....the criminals use motorbikes and we use vehicles, so getting them is a problem. Manpower is a major challenge. People are not forthcoming with information to the police. ...we are all one people is a challenge – they will tell you we are one. We also don't have financial motivation, because I use my personal money most times to do community works. And CPAs are not reporting crime as required, so I can say they are not effective, and also not satisfied with their stipend (KII, 2019).



A focus group discussion with a group of men at Dondoli summarises as follows

How can we trust the Police looking at what we are passing through? Reporting to Police is very dangerous because it seems they don't keep secrets of those who have been reporting crime to them. So we are vulnerable when we do. There is no crime reduction at all. We feel safe in Accra more than Wa these days, why so? Family members also attack people who report one of their own to the police, they feel it and they will never settle with you again when their son is taken to court. In this community, you see it as normal when your child is being beaten. You can't go to save him/her for the sake of your life (FGD-Dondoli, 2019)

On how the community members are participating to solve crime in the communities, Assemblyman of Kumbiehe electoral area responded as thus:

I normally call patrol team to come here when things becomes worst. But these days, patrol team are not coming around here again. I have police number for distress call. It is only now that people now seat in their shops for long time in the night unlike before. For about two months now, no patrol team is here. 2 CPAs are from here but don't work here.....people houses are broken when they are not around. Watchdog committee was organised before but it is no longer working, they face a lot of challenges like beaten, no payment, insult, and they stopped.Partiality in handling crime in the community is our problem, because when you arrest a suspect, the next thing you will here is Te jaa bon yeni [we are all one], that's all. In the side of Police, they complain that their cars are not, enough, and police motorbikes. They always want the assembly to support them for more logistics. When police was patrolling, there was reduction of crime, but it has went high again as the police refused to come out. There is no trust in police. There is low relationship with the police.less community commitment (KII, 2019).

The assemblyman concluded by offering suggestions to the problem in question. In his words; *there should be police post/tent in the community. Patrol team should be coming here regularly, foot patrol, community police assistants should be seen around here (KII, 2019).*

Relatedly, an FGD with women group at Kumbiehe reviewed that they experience as thus:

Robbery takes place in the night here but no Community Police Assistants come around. ...no confidence in Police. Market women are contributing money to give to boys in the market. About 20 shops were broken in the market.market was handed over to the boys that were arrested when they committed crime, and were later promised that they can be paid if they would stop stealing and start guiding the shops.the boys have performed wonders since that time. It has made the burglary and stealing of our goods in the market to reduce (FGD-Kumbiehe, 2019).



From the analysis, it can be inferred that awareness of the presence of CP in the study area is low. Also, knowledge of the function of CP in the study area is low. However, majority of the people who indicated to have knowledge of the function misconstrue CP to CPAs, including the Police actors. On the cordiality issues, the results of the data analysis show good cordiality exists between the Police and the community actors.

In the Municipality, the common strategies employed by the GPS for crime prevention are Vehicle Patrol Strategy and Distribution of Distress Call Numbers only. It is further found that common and more effective strategies of CP like door-to-door visit, foot patrol, community forum, and bicycle patrol are not in place in the study area.

The community perspectives of the effectiveness of community policing show that residents of the communities now feel very safe walking alone during the day time and that there is a good level of crime reduction in their communities. However, residents do not feel safe walking alone in the night, have no confidence in the Police, do not see Police as friends to rely on, and have no trust in Police.

4.3 Discussion of Findings

4.3.1 Common Crimes in the Wa Municipality

Based on the results, the common types of crime in the Wa Municipality are street crimes which include stealing (theft), robbery, assault, threat to harm, unlawful damage, unlawful harm, possession of narcotic drugs, and abortion. The most prevailing crimes are stealing, robbery, and assault. The stealing or theft manifest in form of property theft (stealing and burglary). The perpetrators steal animals and other properties like motorbikes, phone, laptops, Television sets accessories etc. and in some locations, streetlight accessories. While the Robbery manifest in the form of snatching of properties from victims with force and





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sometimes with threat of life. Similarly, Assault manifests in form of fighting – group fighting against other groups for identity, and body injury due to robbery and/or other form of crime where the victims try to resist. This is however, in consistent with the social disorganisation theory by Shaw & McKay (1942) which is anchored on the notion that disorganised communities create crime when informal social controls (like the watchdog committee and other form of indigenous crime prevention arrangements) break down, precipitating criminal activities.

Also, the findings is congruous to the Broken Window theory of Wilson and Kelling (1982) which posits that “weeds grow in neighborhoods where property is abandoned, causing breaking of windows, and making adults to stop scolding ill-disciplined children, cause families to move out and unattached adults to move in”. Consequently residents as a result of fear of being victims begin to use the streets less, and the streets become lonely and vulnerable to criminal invasion. In this sense, crime creates a downward spiral of neighbourhood deterioration and fear of crime which can lead to more deterioration and more serious crimes if not checked by the affected community. This is because consistent occurrence of little crimes like stealing, assaults, possession of illegal drugs, and others can portray the impression that people don’t care about the community, and can further depict that both residents (informal social control) and the police (formal) have lost control over the community. Also in accordance with Murphy (1995), the root causes of crime, looking at the type of common crime frequently occurring in the study area might include poverty, unemployment, underemployment, weak schools, alcoholism, single-parent families, teenage pregnancy as pointed out by the Assemblyman of Kumbiehe, and a society of selfishness and greed.

The results apparently show that many crimes can exist in communities without forming part of the police reports. It is now clear however that Police report cannot be relied upon when

assessing common types or prevalence of crime in any community. This is in tandem with Pazzani and Tita (2009) whose position is that victims of crime don't report crime to the police due to some situations. They identified some of the situations as cases where the victims and the suspects are both acting criminally or know each other. In such cases, crimes like physical assaults, rape, and abortion evade police desk. Burglaries (unlawful entries/damage) and stealing in which items of little value are damaged and/or stolen may not be reported because the victim may not believe it is worth the time and trouble to engage the Police. Results of the interviews and focus group discussions at Dondoli indicate that residents don't report crime incidences to the Police because of lack of confidence and trust in the agency. They submitted that suspects reported or handed over to the police are suspiciously released back to the community, putting the lives of those who reported them in danger. This is capable of undermining the credibility of police report. And of course, that is the reason why Police see Dondoli as a low crime area, which has been rebutted by the results of this research work.

Crime occurrence is found to be a frequent issue in the various communities within the Wa Municipality, and this is capable of affecting development processes. Student environments have become attractive arena to criminals as they target students' studying materials especially laptops and smart phones. It could be deduced that effective policing strategies targeting public safety is urgently needed to curtail the peril already posed by the crime incidences in the study area. This is because, public safety is a bedrock of any sustainable development.

One of the important findings of this work is that participants especially the Police officers and the residents of Bamahu maintained strongly that crime rate in Bamahu skyrocketed owing to the implantation of a higher institution of learning (University for Development Studies) in the area. This therefore speaks to the fact that development comes with positive and negative indices that beg for attention of development planners. Our environment is ever-



changing, but lack of consciousness of development planners, responsive governments and stakeholders to recognize these changes seems imbroglio. It also show that urbanisation attracts criminals, as they see new opportunities, people of high classes tend to display flashy and valuable materials that can be targeted. This is in agreement with Havi (2014) who maintained that “various social problems stem from uncoordinated and unsystematic social changes sometimes, particularly among those who are unable to adapt to ever-changing new environments” (Havi, 2014). Meanwhile, it is clear that rapid social change always tend to produce social disorganisation, which in itself precipitate crime.

The findings also support the Routine Activity Theory of Cohen and Felson (1979) which focuses on predatory crimes, the offenders, the targets, and the guidance. They defined predatory crimes as “illegal acts that involved the direct damaging or taking of a person or property of another”, while arguing that opportunity for crime is likely to present itself during routine activities in a socially disorganised neighbourhood so that when a potential offender (perpetrator of crime) meets a suitable target (victim and/or property) in the absence of a capable guardian (informal or formal security agency), crime occurs. Suitable targets include those attractive materials of vulnerable victims that might appeal to an offender like motorbikes, laptops, phones, animals and other stealable materials as in the case of Wa Municipality.



4.3.2 Effect of Crime on Development in the Wa Municipality

Based on the results of the analysis, crime affect development in the Wa Municipality in the following nine (9) ways:

- (1) Crime affect development by creating fears among residents. This fear itself causes anxiety and sleeplessness among residents;

- (2) Crime affect development by causing psychological trauma to the victims and relatives;
- (3) Crime affect development by engendering financial bankruptcy/loss of income to the direct and indirect victims;
- (4) Loss of properties: victims of crime loss their hard earned properties like Motorbikes, Laptops, phones, goods, accessories etc. to the perpetrators of crime;
- (5) Crime affect private investments: many small business owners loss their business to the perpetrators of crime. And some fear to invest due to high rate of crime;
- (6) Crime affect educational achievements: students study under insecurity environment;
- (7) Crime affect development by reducing school enrolments;
- (8) Crime affect interpersonal relationship among community members by decreasing existing trust: the residents disagree and sometimes, fight with each other when one of their own is fingered to be involved in acts of crime or involved as a victim.
- (9) Causes financial cost to the community and the government; the community and government spend money to replace or repair vandalized properties and also through justice system.

These findings are further discussed elaborately stepwise.

Crime affect development in the Wa Municipality by creating environment of insecurity which manifest in form of fear of crime. Once an environment is perceived to be insecure, anxiety and sleeplessness ensue among residents. People fear to go out or visit some areas as usual, residents abandon some locations, their businesses, and they start walking in groups to avoid being victims of crime. This is supported by Brown et al. (2007), who noted that progress is impossible in the midst of insecurity created by crime and fear of crime as institutions cannot function, people cannot plan for the future, and as a result, development is stifled. Also in congruent with Henson (2011) who found that fear of crime is one of the major



consequences of crime. People who have been victims of crime fear being victimised again and again, whilst those that have not been directly victimised fear experiencing their friend, neighbours or relatives' horrible experiences. It is also in agreement with Skogan (1986), Landman (2012) and Loukaitou-Sideris (2012) who are of the view that the most damaging of the effects of crime is fear, advising that fear must not be belittled among effects of crimes. Also, Skogan (1986), Wyant (2008), Scarborough et al. (2010), and Landman (2012) are of view that fear of crime contribute to the cycle of decay in urban neighbourhoods. And that when fear of crime ensues, it reduces communal effort in fighting against crime, especially at the neighbourhood level and can as well impact heavily on community viability most especially when it comes to economic activities, as residents will not be willing to enter perceived danger zones to engage in their daily routine activities. At the same time, high crime rate can impose vulnerability which in itself is a source of insecurity (Gramckow, Greene, & Marshall, 2016).

Crime causes psychological trauma to the victims and relatives. This manifests in the devastation of psychological health of the direct and indirect victims of crime in the study area. It ensues whenever serious crimes like rape, murder, robbery, assault, and even property theft (stealing and burglary) occurs, making victims and their relatives to be in pain for a long period of time. It is in agreement with Balcha (2014) who according to him, "crime causes economic, health, well-being, psychological effects on victims and society at large. This results in an increase in isolation and psychological problems". Also in line with Cohen (2005) who opined that some crimes precipitate "pain, suffering and reduction of quality of life to the victims which far exceed any physical damage". Putting measures in place to control crime in the study area is necessary in order to inhibit psychological trauma emanating from crime, since people who suffer such menace cannot be productive for themselves, their family and the society at large, at least for a long period of time. And when community members (who



are essentially the productive drivers of the community) are affected, the community itself suffer, and the development of such community in one way or the other will be affected.

Crime is found to cause financial bankruptcy/loss of income to the direct and indirect victims in the study area. Apparently, when residents are affected by crime, they spend money to treat themselves, spend money to repair their damaged properties, and of course, in many cases, spend money to replace properties stolen. Why indirect victims too? Relatives and friends of victims of crime are obviously the indirect victims. Their own usually depend on them when affected by crime. However, in accordance with Ishak (2016), crime leads to individuals taking costly preventative measures, such as buying burglar alarms, installing 'Closed Circuit Tele-Visions' (CCTVs) or taking taxis instead of walking at night, and reinforcing burglarproofs. Also, in agreement with Meera (1990), crimes such as theft involving capital goods increases costs to victims, because they can reduce future earnings. Cost of crime vary the cost of repairing the damage properties to the cost of medical treatments. Normally, these costs specifically involve medical costs, legal costs, lost wages due to physical injuries, cost of replacing stolen goods, cost of replacing household/school properties, cost of prevention, and of course, government cost for law and regulation.

Crime affect development when victims of crime suffer as a result of loss of their valuable properties like motorbikes, laptops, business goods, phones, accessories, animals etc. as found in the study area. It is obvious that most theft and robbery case target valuable properties of victims everywhere in the world. For instance, Ishak (2016) revealed that in Malaysia, crime cases from snatch thefts are common. According to him, the database of the Royal Malaysian Police (RMP) show that the number of property crimes reported in the country has always exceeded the number of violent crimes. This can be same in any society, because most street crimes are orchestrated by poverty, therefore, perpetrators who don't have access to raw cash





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go for properties they can liquidate to keep life going. Accordingly, another example from Malaysia is the report of the New Straits Times (2016) which indicated that Malaysia's crime index recorded a 4.6 percent increase between January and April due to an increase in property crimes.

Another very interesting finding of the work is the effect of crime on private investments. Aside employment and social welfare, private investment is one of the key socioeconomic development policy variables of almost all developing nations. To this end, crime that affect private investment irrespective of the location affects development – when business owners are forced to close down their businesses by perpetrators of crimes, and when people fear to invest due to fear of losing their capital, unemployment increases. In the study area, many small businesses have been closed down due to criminal invasion of their businesses, whilst some have to spend a very high percentage of their business capital to enforce security. Being at community level as it is, most small business owners operate with kiosks as their shops, the cost of welding metals to produce the kiosks is something else. Yet owners of these kiosks-based shops wake up on daily bases with shock of burglary and looting of their goods. In consistent with Acevedo and Garcia-Perez (2015) who investigated the important role crime plays in the determination of future private investment in South American countries. They posit that crime affect attractiveness to private investment, both internal and external in South American countries. The results of their work show that crime has a negative effect in the rate of the private investment by at least 0.287% - 0.322%, for each 1% increase in country-specific crime levels. Investors see crime as sign of social instability and crime drive up the cost of doing business. It is therefore a growing realisation that insecurity and crime adversely affect investment and general social life. It is however a truism that whenever an individual or groups of people perceive that they are insecure as a result of the levels of crime, they reshape or relocate their livelihoods to more perceived safer and friendly environment to avoid



being victimised (Landman, 2012). On this note, more effort is required from all stakeholders, including development agencies to curtail crime and instill safety mechanism to re-attract private business owners to the municipality as it will enable growth and development. This is because, the effect may be larger since crime also has medium term effects on the present value of the private investment rate, and of course these effects would be transferred across years if not cured.

Crime is found to affect educational attainment/achievements by creating environment of insecurity for students. Again, according to Chen and Weikart (2008), crime affects “student achievement directly through disruption of instruction and distraction of student energy from learning due to safety concerns”. Unsafe schools however, may invoke fear and dissuade students from coming to school, therefore depriving the opportunity for students to learn as found in the study area. The findings is likewise in congruent with Gordon (2009) who pointed out that an increase in local neighbourhood crime very often decreases the effectiveness of local schools’ educational programs and even student attendance, and when crime rate increases, draining of valuable resources from a community’s educational needs emerge and require that those resources be directed towards crime control efforts. Students affected by crime suffer academically (MacMillan & Hagan, 2004). It is found that some students of the University for Development Studies have faced difficulties in their studies owing to crime rate within the school area orchestrated by the residents of Wa communities, although in some cases, students of the University also get involved in the act, as revealed by the Assemblyman of Bamahu electoral area. Gordon (2009) submitted that the “*more crime a school has, the less safe the students are going to feel, and the less secure they feel, the less they will learn. When students have to worry about their safety on a daily basis at a school, the academic experiences very often get left behind*”. School disorder affects student achievement directly

through disruption of instruction and distraction of student energy from learning due to safety concerns (Chen & Weikart, 2008).

Crime affect school enrolments when it creates a bad image to the school and communities where the schools are domiciled. This is a very interesting new finding missing in the literature. Many respondents through a strong methodological triangulation implicit in this study, agree that the gradual and continuous drop in enrolment facing University for Development Studies Wa Campus is caused by crime rate in the study area. This is simple, no students who suffer rape, property lost, robbery attack, and physical assaults can be comfortable studying in the same institution again, even when they continue to, might have been traumatised, and consequently will be affected academically. These same students would try as much as possible to discourage others especially family members and friends from choosing the University as their study destination. It is therefore possible that that communities with higher school enrollment rates should have been experiencing lower crime rates than communities with lower school enrollment rates. If criminal activities can disrupt the general security atmosphere of schools, negatively affecting staff and students and the greater community, drop in school enrolment will most definitely occur.



Crime is found to affect interpersonal relationship among community members by decreasing existing trust as residents oppose and distrust each other owing to crime in the study area. The participants from the selected communities explained that crime creates distrust and conflict among them. These normally occur when perpetrators of crime are caught or arrested by the victim's relatives or fellow residents. In some cases, parents of the suspects revolt, claiming that their own are innocent and so they were accused wrongly. These create conflict, precipitating interpersonal relationship among the people. They also explained that reporting crime to the police is very risky as some politicians always influence what happens to the

suspects at the police custody or police station. This is dangerous to the security wellbeing of the communities. This is in agreement with Stafford *et al.* (2007) and Simon (2007) who found that crime and fear of crime damage individual health and community cohesion, heightens the attractiveness of hardline crime control strategies. Also in agreement with Vila (1994) who posited that crime “amplifies mistrust, feeds prejudice, and generally degrades social cohesion”. The finding also supports Shaw and McKay’s social disorganisation theory which posits that when neighbourhood is allowed to decay socially, reduction in community cohesiveness and collective efficacy to fight crime and disorder takes its place, precipitating more crimes like in the case of Wa Municipality.

Finally the analysis also indicate that crime causes financial cost to the local communities and the national government. Several studies show that crime and fear of crime can have a negative impact on social interaction among neighbors and on participation in local activities (Skogan & Maxfield, 1981). Also in accordance with O’Block, Donnermeyer, & Doeren (1991), crime is a “serious social problem that directly reduces the quality of the life of individuals and the community” (p.8). Ishak (2016) who posited that crime does not only affects the victims but also threatens the non-victims and society as a whole. And according to Cohen (2005), the impact of crime is the economic loss to society.



Towards this end, this work confirms works of the World Bank (2004), Ishak (2016), and Havi (2014), who all are in agreement that there are a number of ways in which the experience of violent crime resulted in a victim incurring direct and indirect financial losses. According to the trio, these costs include the loss of productivity associated with death or injury, the costs of medical care and legal services, as well as the non-monetary losses such as the lost investment in human capital, and the impact of the psychological harm inflicted on the victim. They are of agreement that loss or disablement of a breadwinner as a result of crime can have

far great impact in countries. And that the impact of physical injury owing to crime is obviously greater for those who rely on physical labour to make a living. Ishak succinctly averred that the consequences of criminal activities are the costs incurred by victims which include direct costs (immediate impact) and indirect costs (long term effect). These indirect costs of crime according to him include fear of crime, lower level of life satisfaction, psychological issues, decreased quality of life and other non-monetary costs (Ishak, 2016).

4.3.4 Effectiveness of Community Participation and Community Policing Strategies

The results reveal low awareness of the presence of CP and knowledge of its functions among residents in the Municipality. It further found that majority of the people who are aware of CP see the approach as a people instead of a concept. They point to the function of the CPAs as the function of CP. Most of the Police officers inclusive. Although, the knowledge of the concept is low in the study area, the research discovered that there is a good cordiality between the Police agency and the community members. The cordiality therefore offers a fertile ground for effective community policing if the GPS in the study area invest more efforts, by increasing awareness of the concept and its functions. It is therefore very difficult to achieve a success in CP implementation when the concept is not well understood. The way the police officers who are supposed to be campaigning the presence, the meaning and the essence of accepting the philosophy by the communities, define the concept is very detrimental.

The success of CP in practice lies in the awareness of its existence in any area of its implementation. This is because, CP cannot be successful without a reasonable collaboration between the police and the policed (the general public). Therefore, the societal stakeholders and/or the general public are to be well informed on the presence of any CP effort to ensure success. Lack of this knowledge mean an abysmal failure of the implementation since the



concept cannot be planned and/or implemented in isolation. It also mean that the Police agency have not understood the concept themselves or are not ready to shift from the status quo (traditional policing) to a democratic policing philosophy (community policing).

Another findings of this research is that the common strategies employed by the GPS for crime management in the Wa Municipality are Vehicle Patrol Strategy and Distribution of Distress Call Numbers. It further found that the common and more effective strategies of CP like door-to-door visit, foot patrol, bicycle patrol, community forum, and community empowerment are not in place in the study area. No wonder, the awareness of the concept is still low. In fact, door-to-door visits and community forum alone are very potential to creating or improving awareness. For instance, according to Tillman (2000), the community organisation and police officers in Chicago achieved a lot of results using awareness creation. This was made possible when they aggressively marketed CP, improve awareness by constantly going into the neighborhoods once a month, knocking on doors and talking to the residents. This increased awareness level from 53 percent to 79 percent among adults. Likewise, Ndukui (2009) submitted that door to door visit and community forum are very crucial for CP as they have proven to reduce crime faster since it is problem solving in nature. Karn (2013) have equally pointed out that in the UK and in the Philadelphia, targeted foot patrols have helped reduce personal robberies, and were found to have significantly reduced violent crimes respectively. While Meyer & Van (2011) found that vehicle patrol reduced crime in London City. Meanwhile, community meetings, door-to-door visit and foot patrol could help the Police personnel to actively solicit the communities to become involved in addressing the quality of life issues that are important to their communities.

However, the work found that community policing is not effective in the study area. This is because residents are yet to feel the effect by being able to feel safe walking alone in their area



during night hours. The residents are yet to have confidence in Police, which is one of the critical positive outcome of CP implementation. Police are yet to present themselves as friends to the people for easy reliance by the public they police. Trust is also another issue found to be very low between the Police and the community members. Effectiveness of CP demands that both confidence and trust should exist at a substantial level between the public and the Police Service, but this is not the case in the study area. This is capable of marring the entire efforts.

Although the survey respondents are of the view that a good level of crime exist in their communities, crime report statistics from the Wa Municipal Command has not shown any reasonable positive difference. However, it was found that crime has been reduced in Bamahu as testified by the participants during interview and focus group discussion, although they associated the reduction to the community efforts and not the Police, but this has been validated by the survey which show that crime has been reduced owing to the presence of CP in the area. But this is not the case in other communities. It is therefore possible that results from Bamahu community might have influenced the survey results looking at the number of respondents.

In addition, the research found that the CP strategies have been faced with challenges. Aside lack of public confidence in Police and distrust, these challenges include lack of special CP training to Police officers, lack of CP unit office, insufficient personnel, financial motivation, and Logistics (lack of patrol motorcycles, and bicycle, and insufficient patrol vehicles), accommodation problems, altitudinal issues from the communities, and the way the CPAs were picked, recruited and deployed to the communities without giving the community leaders opportunity to be part of the process. In accordance with Dickson (2007), one of the challenges of CP implementation is that most of the men and officers who have been engaged in CP have



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found it difficult to depart from the traditional ways of doing things especially their relations with their various communities. The finding is also in agreement with Kasali and Odetola (2016) who opined that challenges capable of impeding CP implementation include inadequate support from the members of the public, lack of job satisfaction resulting from absence of good welfare packages, motivations and incentives, as well as lack of will on the part of the political elite to provide sufficient support to the implementation of CP program in the country. Community members can become more willing if they are empowered to work with the police in a variety of ways, ranging from converting abandoned buildings to community assets to involving police actively in neighborhood watch groups for effective CP implementation. In fact, calls to report crime can increase considerably during the early phases of community policing implementation, as community confidence in police capability rises and community trust increases (Mwaniki, 2016).



CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusions from the study and some recommendations for improving implementation of community policing in the Wa Municipality, Upper West Region of Ghana. The research focused on assessment of the prospect of community policing for crime management and security in the Wa Municipality. The research addressed three objectives, thus, 1. Examining the common types of crime in the Wa Municipality; 2. Evaluating the effects of crime on development in the Wa Municipality; 3. Assessing the effectiveness of community policing and community participation in the Wa Municipality.

5.2 Conclusions

5.2.1 Common Types of Crimes in the Wa Municipality

First, the study concludes that the common types of crime in the Wa Municipality are mainly Stealing (theft), Burglary, Robbery, Assault, Threat to Harm, Unlawful Damage, Unlawful Harm, Possession of Narcotic Drugs, and Abortion. Other types of crime identified in the area, although not frequent, include rape, armed robbery, stealing of children, and Suicide. The suicide case was committed by one of the students of the University for Development Studies Wa Campus. However, among all, the most prevailing crimes found in the area are stealing, robbery, and Assaults. The stealing or theft manifest in form of property theft, sometimes the perpetrators are caught in the act – precipitating ‘attempting to steal’ and ‘unlawful entry’ cases. The properties the perpetrators target include animals, motorbikes, business goods, phone, laptops, purses, monies, and other attractive properties of their victims. Residents’ properties are snatched in the process through robbery and threat of life. Assault occurs through group fighting which precipitates body injuries among the groups. The group



occasionally get involved in robbery act and other different crimes. The group fighting is unique to Dondoli electoral area. Nevertheless, through the qualitative results, crime is found to be higher in Dondoli and Mangu than Kumbiehe and Bamahu, disputing Police report that saw Dondoli community as a low crime area. Police report is therefore not enough in accessing crime prevalence in communities.

It is also discovered that students of the UDS who are domiciled in Bamahu are the major attractions for crime in the area, as the perpetrators target their belongings.

5.2.2 Effects of Crime on Development

Secondly, the study concludes that crime affect development in the following ways:

1. Crime affect development by creating fears among residents. This fear itself causes anxiety and sleeplessness among residents;
2. Crime affect development by causing psychological trauma to the victims and relatives;
3. Crime affect development by engendering financial bankruptcy/loss of income to the direct and indirect victims;
4. Loss of properties: victims of crime loss their hard earned properties like Motorbikes, Laptops, phones, goods, accessories etc. to the perpetrators of crime;
5. Crime affect private investments: many small business owners loss their business to the perpetrators of crime. And some fear to invest due to high rate of crime;
6. Crime affect educational achievements: students study under insecurity environment;
7. Crime affect development by reducing school enrolments;
8. Crime affect interpersonal relationship among community members by decreasing existing trust: the residents disagree and sometimes, fight with each other when one of their own is fingered to be involved in acts of crime or involved as a victim.



9. Causes financial cost to the community and the government; the community and government spend money to replace or repair vandalized properties and also through justice system.

Crime affects the livelihood of the residents by decimating their economic gains. Many residents whom their businesses are to rear livestock like goats, cattle, chickens, and turkeys loss them to the criminals who steal them to either eat or sell. This is the same with other business operators in the Municipality, their shops are burgled and theirs goods are decimated.

5.2.3 Effectiveness of Community Policing and Community Participation in Crime Management

Finally, the study concludes that community policing is not effective in the Municipality due to many factors. These factors include low awareness of the presence of CP efforts and low knowledge of its functions in the Municipality, lack of appropriate community policing strategies. This is because achieving success in community policing demands good understanding of the concept by the implementers and the general public. These lack of awareness and knowledge of the function of CP concept cut across the public and the police service making it difficult to follow a good practice of the CP. Also, lack of appropriate CP strategies in the area has made the implementation generally unsuccessful. It is also found that although there is low awareness and knowledge of CP, good cordiality exists between the Police Service and the community leaders, which was in turn seen as an opportunity to market CP in the area if the agency want to get the implementation right.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following recommendations are made:



- The Wa Municipal, the regional, and the national security stakeholders should invest efforts into reorganising the communities in the Municipality by designing a security framework where the Police Service and the community members who are the major stakeholders would share decision making powers for peace, security and development creation.
- The Neighbourhood Watch Committee (NWC) which was in existence in the various communities before the emergence of Community Police Assistants approach should be revamped in all the communities since they understand their communities better than the Police and can be understood and trusted better than CPAs. This can be done by selecting and training both the youth and elderly individuals who might be ready to serve the communities and corporate with the constituted Police. They should be a strong collaboration and all-inclusive decision making in the selection, i.e. the Chiefs, the Assemblymen and the GPS should decide together on whom to be selected. The Community Police Assistants (CPAs) are therefore not necessary. However, the NWC volunteers should be presented to the national government for monthly stipend, since one of the reasons they went extinct was lack of monthly remuneration.
- The stakeholders – the Police, the Upper West Regional and Wa Municipal leaders, community leaders, Landlords, public and private institutions, NGOs, including business owners should form a security forum for effective policing partnership whereby the security concerns of residents will be constantly noted and resolved. Local leaders among the NWC per communities can be involved in the meetings who would later disseminate the resolves of the meetings to other volunteers of the committee. Through this, many neighbourhood problems would readily come to the attention of the police.
- There should be special training and capacity building for the police service. The Ghana Police officers especially those slated for community policing unit should regularly



receive training on the concept of community policing and its implementation strategies.

Field training officers and supervisors should be well informed on the best practices of CP and help implementing officers to learn problem-solving initiatives. The trained Police Service or the implementation officers should always conduct regular physical and mental training for the NWC to ensure safety and development in the Municipality. The Wa Municipal Command of the GPS should be equipped with logistics like patrol vehicles, especially special motorbikes and bicycles for easy and friendly patrol within the communities.

- The new security framework to be designed by the stakeholders for the Municipality should see the chiefs and traditional leaders in the various communities as the chief security officers of their communities, see the residents as the owners of their security development processes, and see the GPS as servants of the communities. This would create a strong and effective policing arrangements for the communities. With this arrangements, the chiefs and the traditional leaders can play consultative and supporting roles in selection and maintenance of NWC and the overall wellness of the Municipality.
- Finally, there should be community education to enlighten residents on the concept and principles of CP and the need to create and maintain NWC in the various communities. One of the reasons NWC disappeared from the communities was lack of respect and recognition from the residents, especially relatives of crime perpetrators. Hence, community education can defuse negative views about the group in the communities and create opportunity for crime prevention and development.



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APPENDICE

APPENDIX A



UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
FACULTY OF PLANNING AND LAND MANAGEMENT
DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT

**Research Topic: Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa Municipality,
Ghana**

KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW (KII) AND FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR COMMUNITY POLICING ASSISTANTS

Date of interview.....

Introduction

Dear participant, the following are questions to guide an interview on the research topic: **Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa Municipality**. The information you will provide will be solely used for academic purpose. Your identity will be treated anonymously with confidentiality. Your views are very important to this study and they will be appreciated.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Please, could you tell me about yourself?

SECTION B: THE COMMON TYPES OF CRIME IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY



www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh

1. Please, could you describe the communities or neighborhoods in which you are attached to police? For example, would you say they have low, medium, high levels of crime?

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2. Please, could you identify the common types of crime in the community?

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3. How often do you engage the police in addressing crime and incidences in your area?

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4. What are the main targets of the crime perpetrators in the Wa Municipality?

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5. Can you describe how they operate?

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SECTION C: EFFECTS OF CRIME ON DEVELOPMENT

6. Do you think that crime affect business investment in the Wa Municipality? How can you describe your immediate community in relation to crime and business investment?

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7. Does crime affect educational enrolment/achievement in the Municipality? Please, explain further.....

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8. Please, identify and explain other ways in which crime affect development in the Municipality especially in your immediate community?

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SECTION D: THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGIES AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN CRIME MANAGEMENT IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY

9. What is community policing and how does it differ from other key approaches of policing? How cordial is your relationship with the police, the Chiefs, and other community members in terms of crime management?

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10. Could you describe your involvement in community policing? What roles do you play and how do you play them?

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11. As a community policing assistant, what kind of differences have you observed in pre and post implementation of community policing in the Wa Municipality?

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Thank you for your contribution and stay well





UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
FACULTY OF PLANNING AND LAND MANAGEMENT
DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT

**Research Topic: Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa Municipality,
Ghana**

**KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW (KII) GUIDE FOR OFFICIALS OF WA
MUNICIPAL ASSEMBLY**

Date of interview.....

Introduction

Dear participant, the following are questions to guide an interview on the research topic:
Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa Municipality. The information
you will provide will be solely used for academic purpose. Your identity will be treated
anonymously with confidentiality. Your views are very important to this study and they will
be appreciated.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Please, could you tell me about yourself?

SECTION B: THE COMMON TYPES OF CRIME IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY

1. Please, could you identify the common types of crime in Wa Municipality?



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2. What are the main targets of the crime perpetrators in the Wa Municipality?

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3. Can you describe how they operate?

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4. How often do you engage the police in addressing crime and incidences in the Municipality?

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SECTION C: THE EFFECT OF CRIME ON DEVELOPMENT IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY

5. In your understanding as a Municipal Officer, do you think that crime affect business investment in the Wa Municipality? How can you describe your immediate community in relation to crime and business investment?

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6. Does crime affect educational enrolment/achievement in the Municipality? Please, explain

further.....

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7. Please identify and explain other ways in which crimes affect people and their livelihood

in the

Municipality?.....

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SECTION D: THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGIES AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN CRIME MANAGEMENT IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY

8. What do you understand by community policing and how does it differ from other forms of policing?

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9. Do you think community policing strategies like foot patrol, neighbourhood watch, door to door visit, provision of distress contacts, and mini police posts have been adopted by the police service in the Municipality?.....



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10. As a Municipal Officer, what kind of differences have you observed in pre and post implementation of community policing in the Wa

Municipality?.....

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11. How do you explain the implementation of community policing in the Wa Municipality in relation to

- a. Community-police relation
- b. Community commitment
- c. Trust among the people and the police
- d. Police commitment
- e. Awareness of both police and community
- f. Partnership with community heads and chiefs
- g. Partnership with the Municipal Assembly and other officials
- h. Partnership with NGOs

Thank you for your contribution and stay well





UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
FACULTY OF PLANNING AND LAND MANAGEMENT
DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT

**Research Topic: Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa Municipality,
Ghana**

**KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW (KII) AND SECONDARY DATA GUIDE FOR
THE POLICE OFFICERS OF THE WA DISTRICT CAMMAND**

Date of interview.....

Introduction

Dear participant, the following are questions to guide an interview on the research topic:
Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa Municipality. The information
you will provide will be solely used for academic purpose. Your identity will be treated
anonymously with confidentiality. Your views are very important to this study and they will
be appreciated.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Please, could you tell me about yourself?

SECTION B: THE COMMON TYPES OF CRIME IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY

1. Please, could you identify the common types of crime in the Wa Municipality?

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2. Could you describe the communities or neighborhoods in which you do your policing?

For example, would you say they have low, medium, high levels of crime?

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3. What are the main targets of the crime perpetrators in the Wa Municipality?

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4. Can you describe how they operate?

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SECTION C: THE EFFECTS OF CRIME ON DEVELOPMENT IN THE WA MUNIPALITY

5. In your understanding as a Police officer, do you think that crime affect business investment in the Wa Municipality? If yes, in what ways?

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6. Does crime affect educational enrolment/achievement in the Municipality? Please, explain further.....

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7. Please identify and explain other ways in which crimes affect people and their livelihood in the Municipality?.....
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SECTION D: THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGIES AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN CRIME MANAGEMENT IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY

8. What is community policing and how does it differ from other key approaches of policing
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9. What are the most common community policing strategies you have employed for crime management in the Wa Municipality?
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10. As a Police how often do you engage the community stakeholders in addressing crime and incidences in the Wa Municipality?
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11. What kind of differences in respect of crime incidence have you observed in pre and post implementation of community policing in the Wa Municipality?



- 12.** How do you explain the implementation of community policing in the Wa Municipality in relation to
- Community-police relation
 - Community commitment
 - Police commitment
 - Awareness of both police and community
 - Partnership with community heads and chiefs
 - Partnership with the Municipal Assembly and other officials
 - Partnership with NGOs

Thank you for your contribution and stay well





UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
FACULTY OF PLANNING AND LAND MANAGEMENT
DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT

**Research Topic: Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa Municipality,
Ghana**

**KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW (KII) AND FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE
FOR THE STAKEHOLDERS (SCHIEFS, RELIGIOUS LEADERS, WOMEN
LEADERS, NGOs AND BUSINESS OWNERS) OF THE SELECTED
COMMUNITIES**

Date of interview.....

Introduction

Dear participant, the following are questions to guide an interview on the research topic:
Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa Municipality. The information
you will provide will be solely used for academic purpose. Your identity will be treated
anonymously with confidentiality. Your views are very important to this study and they will
be appreciated.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Please, could you tell me about yourself?

SECTION B: THE COMMON TYPES OF CRIME IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY

1. Please, could you identify the common types of crime in your community? How have you
been affected as a dweller of the community? Any personal experience?



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2. How often do you engage the police in addressing crime and incidences in your community? Do you have fast means of reporting crime incidences to the police?

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3. What are the main targets of the crime perpetrators in the Wa Municipality?

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4. Can you describe how they operate?

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SECTION C: THE EFFECTS OF CRIME ON DEVELOPMENT IN THE WA MUNIPALITY

5. In your understanding, do you think that crime affect business investment in your community? If yes, in what ways?

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6. Does crime affect educational enrolment/achievement in the community? Please, explain further.....

.....

.....

7. Please identify and explain other ways in which crimes affect people and their livelihood in your community?.....

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SECTION D: THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGIES AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN CRIME MANAGEMENT IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY

1. What do you understand by community policing and how does it differ from other forms of policing?

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2. Do you think community policing strategies like foot patrol, neighbourhood watch, door to door visit, provision of distress contacts, and Police mini post have been adopted by the police service in your community

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3. What kind of changes have you observed since the introduction of community policing in your area in terms of crime reduction?



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4. How do you explain the implementation of community policing in the Wa Municipality in relation to
- a. Community-police relation
 - b. Community commitment
 - c. Police commitment
 - d. Awareness of both police and community
 - e. Partnership with community heads and chiefs
 - f. Partnership with the Municipal Assembly and other officials
 - g. Partnership with NGOs

Thank you for your contribution and stay well





UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
FACULTY OF PLANNING AND LAND MANAGEMENT
DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE MEMBERS OF THE SELECTED COMMUNITIES

**Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa Municipality Questionnaire
(CPCMWMQ)**

Date

Introduction

Dear participant, the following are questions to guide a survey on the research topic: **Community Policing and Crime Management in the Wa Municipality**. This is a study being conducted by an M.Phil. Student of the University for Development Studies to collate your views on the above research topic. The researcher is conducting this study as part of the requirements for the award of M.Phil. Degree at the University for Development Studies. The information you will provide will be solely used for academic purpose. Your identity will be treated anonymously with confidentiality. Your views are very important to this study and they will be appreciated.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Please tick as appropriate.

1. **Sex:** a) Male [] b) Female []

2. **Age** (Last birthday).

a) 16 – 25 [] b) 26 – 35 [] c) 36 – 45 [] d) 46 – 55 [] e) 56 – 65 [] f) 65 – 75 []

3. **Occupation:** a) Public Servant [] b) Farming [] c) Trading [] d) Student [] e)

Others []

4. **Educational level attained:** a) Primary [] b) JHS [] c) SHS [] d) Tertiary [] e)

Others, (please specify).....

5. **Marital Status:** (a) Married [] b) Single [] c) Divorced [] d) Widowed []



6. Religious

affiliation.....

7. How long have you stayed in the Wa Municipality?

.....

SECTION B: THE COMMON TYPES OF CRIME IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY

1. The following crimes are common in your community?

Kindly mark X where applicable

| Variable | Strongly Agreed | Agreed | Disagree | Strongly Disagreed |
|--|-----------------|--------|----------|--------------------|
| Stealing | | | | |
| Burglary | | | | |
| Robbery | | | | |
| Armed Robbery | | | | |
| Rape | | | | |
| Assault | | | | |
| Indecent Assault | | | | |
| Offensive Conduct conducive to breaches of the peace | | | | |
| Threat to Harm | | | | |
| Causing unlawful Damage | | | | |
| Threat of Death | | | | |
| Causing Unlawful Harm | | | | |
| Defrauding by false pretense | | | | |
| Unlawful Entry | | | | |
| Possessing forged document (counterfeit) | | | | |
| Possession of Narcotic Drugs | | | | |
| Attempting Stealing | | | | |
| Act tending to disrupt peace | | | | |
| Trespassing | | | | |
| Murder | | | | |
| Cruelty to Animal | | | | |
| Escape from lawful custody | | | | |
| Illegal Possession of Offensive firearm | | | | |
| Defilement of a child under 16 | | | | |
| Incest | | | | |
| Impersonation | | | | |
| Abortion | | | | |
| Rioting | | | | |



| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Causing public nuisance | | | | |
| Abduction of a female under 18 | | | | |
| Forgery | | | | |
| Arson | | | | |

SECTION C: THE EFFECTS OF CRIME ON DEVELOPMENT IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY

2. The identified crimes impede development in the Wa Municipality in the following ways?

Kindly mark X where applicable

| Variable | Strongly Agreed | Agreed | Disagree | Strongly Disagreed |
|--|-----------------|--------|----------|--------------------|
| It creates fears which in turn causes anxiety and sleeplessness among residents | | | | |
| It causes psychological trauma to the victims and relatives. | | | | |
| It causes financial bankruptcy (loss of income) | | | | |
| It causes loss of properties | | | | |
| It causes death | | | | |
| It affects public investments | | | | |
| It affects private investments | | | | |
| It affects educational achievements | | | | |
| It affects school enrolments | | | | |
| It affects interpersonal relationship among community members by decreasing existing trust | | | | |
| It causes financial cost to the community and the government | | | | |

SECTION D: THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGIES AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN CRIME MANAGEMENT IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY



3a. Do you have awareness about the existence of community policing philosophy in your community?

Yes [] No []

3b. Do you have knowledge about the function of community policing in your community?

Yes [] No [] I don't know []

4. How will you assess the cordiality between the police, the Chiefs, and other community members in terms of crime management in your community? Very good [] Good [] Bad [] Very bad []

5. The following have been adopted by the Ghana Police Service as community policing strategies for crime prevention in your community?

Kindly mark X where applicable

| Variable | Strongly Agreed | Agreed | Disagree | Strongly Disagreed |
|--|-----------------|--------|----------|--------------------|
| Foot Patrol Strategy | | | | |
| Bicycle Patrol Strategy | | | | |
| Motorbike Patrol Strategy | | | | |
| Vehicle Patrol Strategy | | | | |
| Door to Door Visit Strategy | | | | |
| Visibility Strategy (by decentralizing police post to communities) | | | | |
| Community Forum Strategy | | | | |
| Community Empowerment Strategy | | | | |
| Awareness Through Media Strategy | | | | |
| Distribution of Distress Call Numbers | | | | |



6. Now that community policing has been implemented in your community, you now observe that:

Kindly mark X where applicable

| Variable | Strongly Agreed | Agreed | Disagree | Strongly Disagreed |
|--|-----------------|--------|----------|--------------------|
| You now feel very safe walking alone in your area during the day time? | | | | |
| You now feel very safe walking alone in your area during the night time? | | | | |
| You now have confidence in Police | | | | |
| Police are now very friendly to the people that you can easily rely on them when you have problems | | | | |
| A good level of trust now exist between the Police and the community members | | | | |
| There is a good level of crime reduction | | | | |

LIKERT SCALE

Strongly Agreed = 4

Agreed = 3

Disagreed = 2

Strongly Disagreed = 1



Survey sample

| Population (projected) of the research units selected | |
|--|-------------------|
| Unit | Population |
| Bamahu | 4068 |
| Mangu | 4086 |
| Dondoli | 2168 |
| Kumbiehe | 740 |
| Total Population | 11,062 |

For the sake of time and convenience, 160 sample size was taken from the four selected communities for the study. The proportionate number of respondents from each unit (community) required for the study was determined. This was about 1.446393% (i.e the total number of 160 sample size was divided by the total number of population (11,062) in the 4 communities selected for the study, and the fraction was later expressed as a percentage). The number of respondents in each community was multiplied by 0.01446393 to obtain the number of respondents to be sampled from each unit. See the table below.

Sample frame

| Unit | Population | Proportion | Sample |
|--------------|-------------------|--------------------------|---------------|
| Bamahu | 4068 | 4068×0.01446393 | 66 |
| Mangu | 4086 | 4086×0.01446393 | 66 |
| Kumbiehe | 2168 | 2168×0.01446393 | 35 |
| Dondoli | 740 | 740×0.01446393 | 13 |
| Total | 11,062 | | 180 |

Total Sample size = 180



2010 POPULATION AND THE 2018 PROJECTED POPULATION OF THE
RESEARCH AREA

| S/N | LOCALITY NAME | 2010 POPULATION | | | NUMBER OF HOUSES | HOUSEHOLDS | | PROJECTED POP 2018 | | |
|-----|---------------------|-----------------|--------|--------|------------------------|------------|--------------|--------------------|-------|--------|
| | | TOTAL | MALE | FEMALE | | NUMBER | AVG. SIZE | TOTAL | MALE | FEMALE |
| 1 | WA MUNICIPAL | 107,214 | 52,996 | 54,218 | 9,592 | 18,891 | 5.4 | 126609 | 62239 | 64370 |
| 2 | BAMAHU | 3,448 | 1,978 | 1,470 | 248 | 511 | 6.7 | 4068 | 2323 | 1745 |
| 3 | WA- DONDOLI | 1,836 | 936 | 900 | 139 | | | 2168 | 1099 | 1069 |
| 4 | WA- KUMBIEH E | 627 | 307 | 320 | 73 | | | 740 | 361 | 380 |
| 5 | WA- MANGU | 3,461 | 1,814 | 1,647 | 374 | | | 4086 | 2130 | 1955 |

Source: Ghana Statistical Service, 2018



APPENDIX C

Annual crime report of the Ghana Police Service, Wa District Command

| Reported Crime/Years | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 |
|--|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Assault | 299 | 256 | 245 | 253 |
| Stealing | 412 | 489 | 495 | 462 |
| Offensive Conduct - breach of peace | 30 | 27 | 23 | 22 |
| Threat of Harm | 46 | 49 | 46 | 55 |
| Causing unlawful Damage | 33 | 34 | 48 | 22 |
| Threat of Death | 25 | 23 | 19 | 28 |
| Causing Unlawful Harm | 11 | 10 | 13 | 15 |
| Defrauding by false pretense | 41 | 51 | 60 | 88 |
| Robbery | 42 | 18 | 41 | 45 |
| Murder | 7 | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| Attempted to commit murder | 3 | 3 | 0 | 1 |
| Failure to provide for health and life | 2 | 18 | - | 21 |
| Rape | 2 | 7 | 9 | 5 |
| Defilement of a child under 16 | 22 | 15 | 21 | 17 |
| Abduction of a female under 18 years | 9 | 7 | 5 | 4 |
| Unlawful Entry | 19 | 7 | 4 | 7 |
| Possessing forged document (counterfeit) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Possession of Narcotic Drugs | 0 | 2 | 3 | 9 |
| Attempting to commit stealing | 8 | 11 | 16 | 16 |
| Act tending to disrupt peace | 4 | 4 | 8 | 4 |
| Trespassing | 3 | 4 | 4 | 11 |
| Cruelty to Animal | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| Escape from lawful custody | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 |
| Illegal Possession of Offensive firearm | 0 | 4 | 2 | 3 |
| Possession of Forged Note Currency | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 |

Source: Wa Municipal Police Department Annual Report File (2015 - 2018)





Researcher at the Wa Municipal Assmblly



Researcher with the Assemblyman of Dondoli



A hotel located at Kumbiehe



A commercial area at Kumbiehe



Mangu Community, hosting a church and a primary school



Lodge Located at Kumbiehe



Commercial area of Dondoli Community



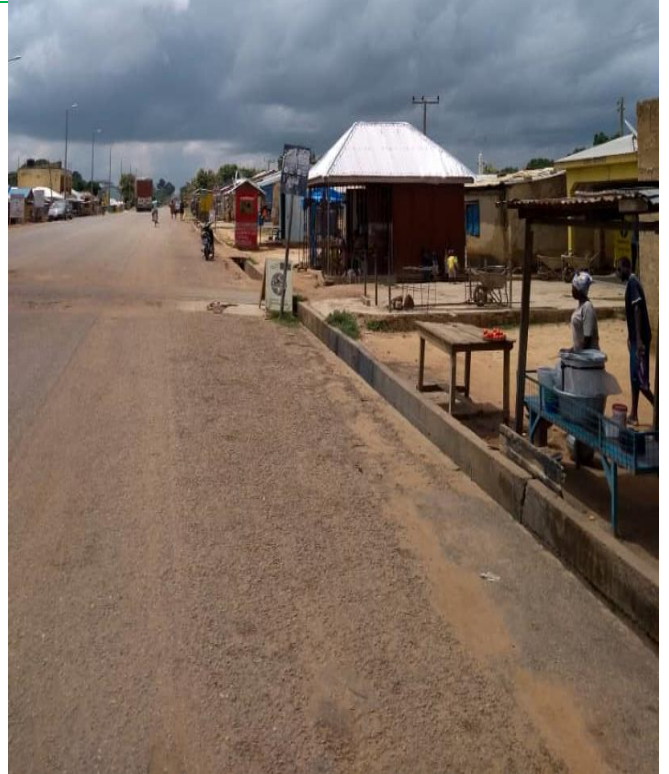
A location at Dondoli described as the hideout of criminals who operate at both Dondoli and Kumbiehe. At back of the shrubs is a mountain where they stay, kill and share animals of their victims. Sometimes, motorbikes of their victims are traced to this hideout.



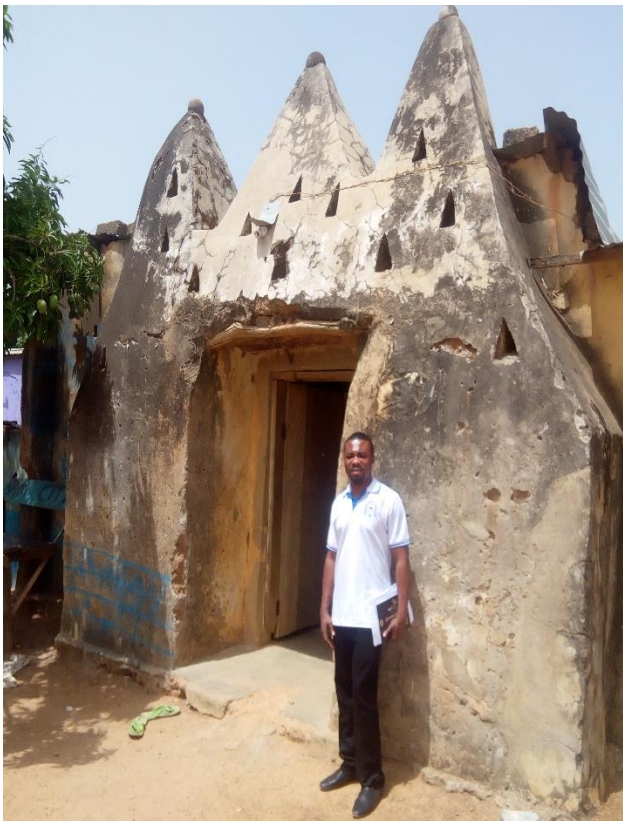
Bamahu Community



Signpost welcoming travellers to Bamahu and the Municipality



Commercial area of Bamahu



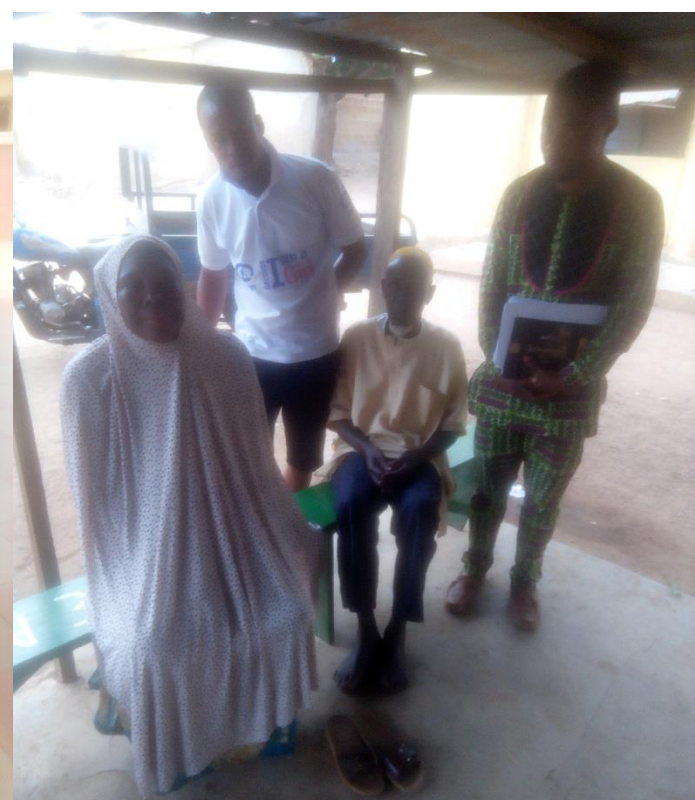
Researcher with the Naa of Bamahu



Researcher and assistants with the Naa of Mangu



Researcher with the CPAs



Researcher with the Naa of Kumbiehe