

**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA**

**COMMUNITY POLICING AND CRIME PREVENTION IN EDGE CITIES:  
INSIGHTS FROM AWUTU SENYA EAST MUNICIPALITY**

**BY**

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**THIS DISSERTATION IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA,  
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**DECLARATION**

I, Sophia Acheampong, hereby declare that this work is as a result of my own research work except for references to other people’s work which have been duly acknowledged. This work has not been presented in part or whole to this university or any other university for any degree.

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## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to Almighty God for making this possible and then to Raphael, My

Heat Beat.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASEMA.....	Awutu Senya East Municipal Assembly
CP .....	Community Policing
CPA.....	Community Police Assistants
GPS.....	Ghana Police Service
MISEC.....	Municipal Security Council
MTDP.....	Medium Term Development Plan
NWG .....	Neighbourhood Watch Groups
NYEP.....	National Youth Employment Programme
SRT .....	Social Resource Theory
ZTP .....	Zero Tolerance Policing

## **ABSTRACT**

The study looks at the concept of community policing (CP) in crime prevention in an edge city such as the Awutu Senya East Municipality (ASEMA). Specifically the research investigated the evolution and institutional arrangements governing CP practices within the municipality, assessed the impact of CP on community safety, crime reduction, fear of crime and risk of victimisation. The study further evaluated the mechanisms employed by the community police in engaging the community in crime prevention and the maintenance of public order. The analysis of questionnaires administered to 120 residents from three different neighbourhoods, namely high income, middle income and low income communities revealed that CP was active in the municipality and its introduction has somewhat reduced crime and fear of crime in the various communities, especially in the low income community. Interviews conducted with some police and municipal assembly officers revealed that edge cities are an outgrowth of the rapid urbanisation process and are deficient in infrastructure, social cohesion and that they lack the ability to negotiate for quality of life and services, which have serious consequences on crime. Further, CP is not specialised function of a single police unit, rather every police officer is trained to carry out the work of CP. Some challenges encountered in implementing CP strategies included poor collaboration between local government agencies and apathy on the part of community to build strong partnership with police as well as limited human capacity and appropriate resources. In the light of these findings the study recommended that there is a critical need to establish a strong relationship with CP, the local government agencies and the entire community. Also, training of the police should be based on specialised instruction in CP and community restructuring at the local level where both formal and informal social control are the main sources of crime. Further the community is to be encouraged to invest in promoting order and security in the various neighbourhoods.

## CHAPTER ONE

### GENERAL INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background of the study

The provision of security and law enforcement 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 (Ake, 1981). In most countries, security agencies have been at the fore front in preventing and solving crimes such as burglary, theft, and robbery - crimes that have an immediate and visible impact on the quality of life on the citizenry. In the face of increasing urbanisation, rapid globalisation and trade liberalisation, coupled with the changing nature and volume of threats, local law enforcement agencies will have to adopt, adapt and modify existing policing strategies in order to meet the current challenge of enhancing public safety and security (Wikstrom & Dolmen, 2001; Fridell, 2004).

Over the years, especially in the early 1980s, the literature concerning traditional policing models was conclusive on the deficits, in reference to the unchanging nature in rates and occurrence of crime and disorderly behaviour (Walker, 1999). The old model advocated an increase in the number of police officers as a panacea to the growing levels of crime and disorder in the community. In regards to this, Greene (1998) further argues that, the notion was that by increasing police size, there could be more personnel to handle threats to public safety, thus ensuring a more effective and efficient policing strategy. In time past, reactive models such as Zero Tolerance Policing (ZTP) advocated the immediate arrest of offenders of minor crimes such as public urination, vandalism of public property and panhandling (Walker, 1999; Lum, 2009; Holmes, 2006). This punitive system was seen as a means to

address the Broken Windows phenomenon by making the arrest for the minutest crime committed. Such immediate arrest alerts potential offenders that such acts of disorderliness will not be tolerated within the community (Lersch, 2007). ZPT however has been strongly criticized for the potential of wrong targeting, in that some victims of circumstance such as the economically disadvantaged and minority groups present at the crime scene may be wrongly arrested by virtue of some obvious characteristics (Greene, 1999; Sampson & Raudenbush, 1999). This practice is also seen as contributing to a breakdown in normal family life and a destruction of community building, especially in minority areas, through repeat arrests for minor offences (Greene, 1999).

The existing literature on traditional policing also espouses that the only means to regain and continue to build both formal and informal social control systems is the full use of the criminal justice process for all manner of crimes. By enforcing these elements of the law, it will automatically lead to a reduction in fear, physical and human forms of disorder and reduce crime (Fridell and Wycoff, 2004). Further evaluative studies on the subject reveal that, for instance, immediate arrest of offenders does not address the primary problem that triggered such an offence but only takes care of the instant issues and effects (Bailey, 1998) which ultimately erodes the confidence and morale needed to build effective police-community collaborations. From hence, the growing dissatisfaction in the traditional policing, particularly in the developed countries was palpable and thus necessitated new reforms in both institutional arrangement and operational strategies (McPherson, 2004).

As it was noted in the results released from the Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment of 1971 conducted in the South Patrol Division in Kansas City, Missouri, community members became indifferent with increases or decreases in the magnitude of police service (Lersch, 2007). This was due to the fact that huge increases or decreases in police visibility did not have any impact on the level of crime and fear of crime (Lersch, 2007).

Progressively, law enforcement agencies within countries have sought to address the causes and reduce the fear of crime in communities through the use of their institutional arrangements (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2003), complemented with the creation of effective partnerships with the community and other public and private-sector resources. Attempts have also been made to apply problem solving strategies or tactics, and to transform the agency's organisation and culture to meet the current demand of enhancing public and individual safety and security (Lersch, 2007).

In light of this, there has been an urgent call for a new policing model which focuses not only on addressing the areas of crime prevention but equally important, focuses on intelligence gathering and information sharing. More so, the need to collaborate or make use of conventional local institutions and mechanisms outside the police have been suggested as an effective way of enhancing public security, either to make local communities part of the security arrangement or bring the dispensation of justice to the community level (Eck, and Rosenbaum, 1994).

The Ghana Police Service (GPS) is also a clear case of an institution that also need a shift and orientation as it continues to be dominated by the traditional policing strategy which involves mainly increasing police size, incessant raids at perceived and actual crime hotspots and other reactive modes of policing (Tankebe, 2008). Such policing strategies have produced limited opportunities for making use of conventional institutions outside the police as well as limited engagement with the community as a whole. In fact as Tankebe (2008) has rightly noted, the traditional policing strategies of the GPS, which has served to protect the interest of the ruling class since independence and which has also been reactive in dealing with public safety and security, has led to a situation where there is general loss of confidence and legitimacy in the GPS. Thus a policing strategy that will restore confidence and incorporate the community has been recognized as a much more useful approach.

Base on this broader understanding, some scholars (Boye-Doe, 2007) have suggested that community policing (CP) can be a panacea and actually fit into the overall national strategies for crime prevention. The new era of CP is intended to be more proactive and interactive from the grassroots instead of the former notion of traditional professional policing which emphasizes on police (re)structuring and enforcement of laws as the only means of addressing crime and enhancing public safety (Weisburd, 2006). Meanwhile it has been suggested that the Police and other security services can be effective if they are responsive to people's needs; their operations are to be visible and more decentralised. Also, CP practices are also aimed at an orientation towards collective problem identification and a solution in order to reduce crime as well as the influence of criminal law and procedures in communities.

As noted, the shortcomings of traditional policing catalysed the evolution of CP. The practice assumes several forms and ranges from police services increasing their visibility to improved interaction in neighbourhoods. The drive for visibility is promoted through opening visibility or drop-in hubs at strategic points, especially in crime prone zones (MacKenzie & Henry, 2009). On the other hand, meetings and crime prevention seminars organised in the neighbourhood are geared towards stimulating interaction and communication towards a common framework for crime control. Another important component of CP is the formation of Neighbourhood Watch Committees which aim to prevent and improve community safety mainly in urban settlements, develop police and community links, increase public confidence in the police and reduce anti-social behaviour. Other aspects of CP practised in other countries such Sweden and the United Kingdom is the 'Community Alert' which aims at community safety in rural areas with special focus on older and vulnerable people. It operates on the principle of shared responsibility for crime reduction and prevention between the police and the community (McKeown & Brosnan, 1998).

Informed and guided by these presumptions this study contends that various communities in Ghana, due to differences in the levels of development, infrastructural services, planning and built-up environment tend to attract different patterns and types of criminal activities as well as crimes. The situation therefore demands different preventive measures and mechanisms because the characteristics mentioned may combine to create opportunities and vulnerabilities for criminal activities. Additionally, some areas, suburbs, neighbourhoods within cities and secondary towns generate more criminal behaviour and activities or receive inadequate preventive measures than others.

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

Ghana is currently experiencing dramatic demographic shift from rural to urban centres. The first post-independence census conducted in 1960 revealed the Ghanaian population stood at 6,700,000, out of this the urban population was put at 1,551,174 persons or 23.1 percent of the total population. Thus, at independence, the rural population of Ghana constituted more than 70 percent of the total population (Ghana Statistical Service, 2005). This is in sharp contrast to the urban population which stood at almost 51 percent as at 2010 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012). Rapid urbanisation and concomitant suburban development has resulted in the growth of edge cities or towns around primate cities such as Accra (national capital) and Kumasi (Ghana's second largest city). These edge towns are normally rural settlements which have grown rapidly into towns and cities as a result of the spill over population of the larger urban centres. The growth of edge cities is largely due to a number of inter-related factors including cheap land and housing in the fringes and the costs of these in the primate cities, as well as weak development controls and poor planning.

The study area, Awutu Senya East Municipality (ASEMA) is a model of an edge city on the western fringes of Accra. It has experienced an unprecedented population growth of more

than 17 percent per annum which qualifies the area as the fastest growing urban settlement in Ghana (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). The municipality has experienced rapid growth and has also assumed an important position in national development as it is noted for its rapid economic growth and expansion with large, medium and small scale industries (Owusu, 2008). Additionally, the municipality has also witnessed rapid residential development as a result of relocation of families from both inner city (Accra) and housing development by Ghanaians outside the country (ASEMA, 2013). To this end, ASEMA has become a major suburban centre and dormitory settlement within the Greater Accra metropolitan area (GAMA). It is estimated that about five hundred families move into the municipality quarterly (ASEMA, 2013).

In spite of the growing importance in municipal development in particular and national development in general in developing countries, edge cities such as ASEMA are faced with limited resources required for urban transformation in terms of service provision, accessibility and livelihood enhancement for their residents (Owusu, 2008). For ASEMA, besides being short changed in the provision of essential amenities and peculiar needs, the high number of families relocating to the municipality due to availability of affordable lands and housing has generated overcrowding and intense competition for the available limited services and infrastructure.

The rapid nature of the growth of the municipality and urban sprawl within the context of weak municipal planning systems has affected not only the provision of basic services but also essential services as policing and the provision of security in general. The apparent limited public security resources and infrastructure undermine public safety perception, which in turn complicates the provision of public security and justice to citizens. Data from the Ghana Police Service revealed many areas within ASEMA are areas notoriously known for serious crimes such as armed robberies, and these include Kasoa Zongo, Ofaakor and

Opeikuma – all of which lie within the municipality under this study (Ghana Police Annual Crime Statistics, 2012). In recent times, Kasoa city and ASEMA have been in the news due to series of spates of mass robbery in several communities and the lack of adequate response from the police.<sup>1</sup> Thus people who reside in these localities and the municipality in general are likely to live in fear and panic because such environments act as ‘breeding grounds’ for crime and create an unending cycle of human insecurity ( Bender, 2001). In the face of all these complications, it is the traditional responsibility of the law enforcement authorities, which are mainly the police to provide security for the citizenry. Thus, if individual and neighbourhood security concerns cannot be, in the short term, granted to all within the entire urban space and particularly in emerging edge cities, then alternative solutions that are people centred need to be implemented. This is important because the traditional police arrangements are not adequately resourced to keep pace with the security needs.

Alternative policing strategies such as community policing has successfully been adopted, integrated and implemented by most developed countries as part of their homeland security structure (Fridell, 2004). The community and police collaboration in problem identification and solving has yielded desirable outcomes in countries where it was first implemented (Lersch, 2007). This notwithstanding, the concept of CP has been criticised by practitioners and seems to be rejected by experts as a potential solution to addressing neighbourhood security and controlling criminal behaviours (Lersch, 2007). This disparity in opinion, appreciation and utilisation among many security experts raise several issues that are partially ignored in the recent literature. The issues of mismanagement, hygiene and safety risks, the exclusion of vulnerable groups, apply to some extent to all types of security arrangements but

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<sup>1</sup> <http://www.myjoyonline.com/news/2015/August-25th/ecobank-manager-shot-dead.php>, accessed on 20/09/2015  
<http://www.myjoyonline.com/news/2015/August-17th/police-promises-intensified-crackdown-on-armed-robbery-syndicate-operating-at-kasoa.php>, accessed on 20/09/2015  
<http://edition.myjoyonline.com/pages/crime/201112/79035.php>, accessed on 20/09/2015

are particularly relevant for some types of crime preventive models. Existing comparisons of community policing often focus on management or technical issues and fail to integrate the perceptions of the community (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1998). It is necessary to know how people compare and value the different models of crime prevention they have access to. Existing research has failed to investigate and recognises the diversity of existing models of community policing and the segment of the community members that turn out to be community police.

An important issue regarding edge cities is the incessant conflict over land, which has also increased tremendously the number of land guards as well as illegal youth groups ( Oteng-Ababio, 2016). Meanwhile the burgeoning residential development and commercial activities has increased opportunities for criminal activities. This has implications on who is recruited and incorporated into any quasi-security groupings to engage with the Police and provide the needed security at the community level. This study therefore seeks to investigate the community policing models employed to curb crime in the Awutu Senya East Municipality and how these influence community perception as well as the recruitment and management process so as not to include in a potential community policing team individuals who are likely to be perpetrators of crime themselves.

In recent times there have been a considerable number of studies conducted on crime in Ghana. These include works of Appiahene-Gyamfi (1997, 2001) and recent work by Tankebe (2009, 2011) and Owusu & Agyei-Mensah (2010). Nonetheless, these studies have focused broadly on crime trends in larger cities such as Accra. Regarding studies about crime in edge cities, most of these have largely been police report about crime in major Ghanaian towns, and with this, mention is only made of type of crime prevalent in these locations (GPSR, 2013, 2014). However to my knowledge, no work currently exist regarding activities of CP in edge cities and the effect of CP on perceived safety and fear of crime. Moreover the viability

of CP as a crime prevention tool for edge cities particularly looking at the current growth of edge cities, also remain an area where there is much dearth of information about. Thus the thrust of the current research looks at cities at the fringe and various crime prevention strategies being employed, specifically community policing.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

In an attempt to understand the effects of community policing on crime rate, fear of crime and crime prevention, the study seeks to answer the following questions;

- i. What are the institutional arrangements for community policing in Ghana?
- ii. What are the mechanisms employed by the community police to engage the communities in crime prevention and the maintenance of public order?
- iii. Has the presence of community police enhanced community safety; reduced crime and fear of crime?
- iv. What models of community policing are potentially viable and effective for crime prevention and ensuring community safety?

### **1.4 Research Objectives**

The overarching objective of this study is to examine the effects of Community Policing on crime rates and crime prevention on the people living in the Awutu Senya East Municipality.

To achieve this, the specific objectives of the research are to:

- i. Examine the institutional arrangements governing community policing in Ghana.
- ii. Assess impact of the presence of community policing on community safety, crime reduction and fear of crime.
- iii. Evaluate the mechanisms employed by the community police in engaging the community in crime prevention and the maintenance of public order and

- iv. Understand the models of community policing potentially viable and effective towards crime prevention and ensuring community safety.

### **1.5 Justification of the study**

Cities keep expanding each year, though the rate differ from place to place and as urbanisation spreads, there is the fear of an increased crime rate and therefore the need for a larger law enforcement body to help prevent, fight and reduce the incidence of crime. This study is justified because in the Ghanaian research interface, there is dearth of data on community policing and their involvement in crime reduction. Researches on crime are normally conducted on the trends of crime, perpetrators and victims of crime but little is done on its prevention and the strategies adopted by the police to reduce the incidence. Therefore, with this gap existing in literature on crime prevention, especially this study aims to provide an understanding of community policing and its effect on the fight against crime and its prevention from a community perspective.

### **1.6 Definition of Concepts**

Cognizance of the possibility of individual and vague interpretations of concepts relating to this research, the researcher provides the following definitions:

#### *1.6.1 Community Policing*

According to Trojanowicz and Bocqueroux (1990), 'community policing is a philosophy of policing, based on the concept that police officer and private citizens working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary community problems related to crime, social and physical disorder and neighborhood decay' (cited in Lersch, 2007, p. 145). According to this definition, the Police develop a relationship with some community members and stakeholders in the fight against crime and in the dissemination of security information from the police to the community members while also acting as the voice between the community and the

police. This if well developed, will reduce stress on the police and at the same time build a healthy and good quality of life especially in areas with very high population where the police are unable to effectively control crime alone. This definition will therefore be employed in this study.

### *1.6.2 Defining Crime*

Fleming (1978) defines crime as any act considered prohibited and punishable by law. Crime is any form of illegal activity which when committed exposes the perpetrator to a specific level of punishment laid down by law (cited in Kimou, 2009). Crime could be an action or serious offence against an individual, group of people, organization or the state which calls for penalty. Marshall and Clark (1952) also wrote, 'Crime is any act or omission prohibited by public law for the protection of the public and punishable by state in a judicial proceeding in its own name'. Similarly Tappan (1960) defined that 'a crime is an instrumental act or omission in violation of criminal law, committed without justification and sanctioned by the state as felony or misdemeanour'.

### *1.6.3 Crime Prevention*

Crime prevention, according to the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2008, comprise the approach and actions taken by individuals and law enforcement bodies to reduce the incidence of crimes, their potential and harmful effects such as fear of crime on individuals and society. This includes social prevention, highlighting the promotion of people's well-being and social cohesion. It encompasses all the strategies employed to educate people against crime and how to protect themselves, provide information of possible crime and the combating of crime which may include community mobilization (Bodson, Leeke, Lelandais, Nolin, Soria & Virgin, 2008).

#### *1.6.4 Edge Cities*

Defined by Carter, Frolick & Frye (2002) as ‘municipalities and sub-regions that have experienced strong population growth or change within the past three decades, have become suburban destinations in and of themselves, and have strong commercial/industrial bases of their own’ (Carter et al, 2002: 3). Garreau (1995) argues that edge cities come as a result of rapid population growth or cultural transformation of smaller places in close proximity to an urban centre (cited in Carter et al, 2002: 3).

### **1.7 Organization of the Study**

Organization of the study is subdivided into six chapters. Chapter One will cover an introduction, followed by the background of the study, problem statement, research questions, research objectives, justification of the study, operational definitions and the organization of the study.

Chapter Two will also be concerned with the review of theoretical literatures and empirical work relevant to the study. Chapter Three will focus on the research methodology and a description of the study area, the Awutu Senya East Municipality while Chapters Four will also focus on the analysis and discussion of the findings. The last chapter, Chapter Five will focus on the summary, conclusion and recommendation of the study.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

Crime, though a common feature in all human settlement, becomes conspicuously rampant and a public concern with increasing human and occupational agglomeration. Consequently, the essence of the literature review is to provide background information about the current study with the aim to primarily set the research in the context of available knowledge. It encompasses some of the evolution of thoughts and research on the subject of interest and identifies existing gaps and uncertainties in the literature. This chapter specifically reviews some of the related concepts covering urbanisation and the incidence of crime as well as those related to community policing and crime prevention.

#### **2.2. Urbanisation Trends: - The Ghanaian Experience**

Ghana, like most African countries, is becoming increasingly urbanised (GSS, 2013; World Bank, 2014). Indeed, if current population growth trends persist through to 2030, Ghana's population will exceed 33 million, with almost two thirds residing in urban areas, and nearly doubling the share of urban dwellers of 1984. Table 2.1 presents the regional variations of levels of urbanisation, with the southern regions exhibiting a more urbanised pattern than the northern regions, namely, Upper East, Upper West, and Northern Regions. The data indicate that although the country as a whole crossed the 50% urban divide during the late 2010s, many internal regions remain largely rural.

**Table 2. 1: Urbanisation in Ghana, 1960 to 2010.**

Region	% share of urban population					Urban growth rate			
	1960	1970	1984	2000	2010	1960/1970	1970/1984	1984/2000	2000/2010
All regions	23.1	28.9	32.0	43.8	50.9	4.7	3.3	4.6	4.2
Western	24.7	26.9	22.6	36.3	42.4	2.9	1.7	6.1	3.7
Central	28.0	29.1	28.8	37.5	42.1	2.1	1.7	3.7	3.2
Greater Accra*	<b>72.6</b>	<b>85.3</b>	<b>83.0</b>	<b>87.7</b>	<b>90.5</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>4.4</b>
Volta	13.1	16.0	20.5	27.0	33.7	3.9	3.5	3.6	3.9
Eastern	21.1	24.6	27.7	34.6	43.4	3.4	2.9	2.8	3.3
Ashanti*	<b>25.0</b>	<b>29.7</b>	<b>32.5</b>	<b>51.3</b>	<b>60.6</b>	<b>4.6</b>	<b>3.1</b>	<b>6.3</b>	<b>4.7</b>
Brong-Ahafo	15.6	22.1	26.6	37.4	44.5	6.1	4.6	4.7	4.8
Northern	13.0	20.4	25.2	26.6	30.5	7.6	4.9	3.1	4.8
Upper East	3.9	7.3	12.9	15.7	21.0	7.8	6.5	2.3	5.0
Upper West	5.0	6.7	10.9	17.5	16.5	4.0	5.7	4.7	4.2

\*Greater Accra and Ashanti Regions remained the most urbanised.

Source. GSS (2012, 2013).

Migration flows within Ghana also provide some important clues concerning the urban future. For example, the Greater Accra Region's long-standing role as the socioeconomic and political hub has been strengthened by the recent influx of investment, especially from abroad (Grant, 2009). Similarly, the Western Region with its new oil production, extensive mineral deposits, and cash crop production will likely attract more investment and migrants in search of employment opportunities (Oteng-Ababio, Owusu & Wrigley-Asante, 2014). Thus, Ghana's urbanisation is characterised more by continuity than by change, with the large cities increasingly serving as migration nodes. Table 2.2 displays the growth of the metropolitan centres in Ghana between 1970 and 2010. It shows that since 1970 over 40% of the Ghanaian urban population reside in the six largest metropolitan areas, ranging in size from 183,000 and 2 million in population size.

**Table 2.2: Metropolitan Growth, 1970 to 2010.**

Metropolis	1984		2000		2010	
	Population	% of total national urban	Population	% of total national urban	Population	% of total national urban
Cape Coast	65,763	1.7	82,291	1.0	183,727	1.5
Tema	100,053	2.5	141,479	1.7	402,637	3.2
Sekondi-Takoradi	188,203	4.8	289,593	3.5	559,548	4.5
Tamale	135,952	0.4	202,317	2.4	371,351	3.0
Kumasi	496,628	12.6	1,170,270	14.1	2,035,064	16.2
Accra	969,195	24.6	1,658,937	20.0	1,848,614	14.7
Total	1,855,741	46.6	3,544,887	42.7	5,400,941	43.1
Total urban population (national)	3,934,796	100	8,274,270	100	12,545,229	100

Source. GSS (, 2013).

From Table 2.2, the dominance of Accra and Kumasi becomes apparent, with the two cities accounting for about 31% of the national urban population and 52% of their respective region's urban population in 2010. Notwithstanding the paucity of data on the contribution of individual cities to the country's gross domestic product (GDP), Songso (2010) suggests that the two cities account for 76.5% of the country's industrial establishment.

**Table 2.3: Urban Population Trends and Growth Rates of 16 Towns With Populations Greater Than 40,000 in 2010.**

City/town	Region	Population change			% change 2000-2010
		1984	2000	2010	
Mandela	Greater Accra	-	8,458	61,880	631
Amanfrom	Greater Accra	293	12,803	119,467	833
Buduburam	Central	40	18,713	50,560	170
Gbawe	Greater Accra	837	28,989	69,356	139
Kasoa	Central	2,597	34,719	69,384	100
Kintampo	Brong-Ahafo	13,943	28,276	42,957	52
Madina	Greater Accra	28,364	76,697	79,832	4
Wa	Upper West	36,067	66,644	71,051	7
Berekum	Brong-Ahafo	22,264	39,649	56,414	42
Hohoe	Volta	20,994	35,277	73,641	108
Yendi	Northern	31,633	40,336	51,727	28
Asamankese	Eastern	23,077	34,855	46,061	32
Bolgatanga	Upper East	32,495	49,162	65,549	33
Akim Oda	Eastern	24,629	38,741	51,231	32
Winneba	Central	27,105	40,017	57,015	43

Techiman	Brong-Ahafo	25,264	12,068	67,241	457
Total		289,602	565,404	1,033,366	83

*Source.* GSS (2013).

Quite striking are the growth rates of some of the larger settlements in the zone surrounding the metropolitan areas as well as other commercial enclaves in the Eastern, Central, and Greater Accra regions (see Table 2.3). Prior to 1970, settlements such as Mandela, Amanfrom, Gbawe, and Kasoa within the environs of Accra were sparsely populated and predominantly rural. Mandela did not exist in 1970 but today houses a population of more than 60,000. Such rapidly expanding urban centres owe their existence to the spillover population growth of adjacent metropolitan centers. Many of these edge towns, especially those around metropolitan Accra, have seen rapid population growth, with growth rates exceeding 30%. Such communities have increasingly become dormitory settlements for Ghanaian middle-class families in the metropolitan areas as well as a safe haven and operating turf for criminals (Owusu, 2008).

### **2.3 Urbanisation and the incidence of crime**

Urbanization is known to be associated with industrialization, specialization and economic development. Moreover this process has been accompanied by a shift in employment from rural to urban or industrial sector. It comes with some transformational processes including heterogeneity of cultures with concomitant differences in beliefs and behaviour, social disorganisation, increased mobility, impersonality and anonymity, peculiar characteristics which predispose urbanites to criminality (Sanidad-Leones; 2001; Jalil & Igbal, 2010) or serve as fertile grounds for the perpetration of crime (Donnermeyer, 1994). The opposite is true in some peri-urban and rural areas where, due to lower population density and the high level of homogeneity, people who engage in crime have less chance of escaping without being noticed, because people know each other.

Put differently, Glaeser and Sacerdote (1996) urge that criminals in urban areas have fewer chances of arrest due to the complexities in the urban fabric – human traffic and density; high level individualism; etc. This condition enables offenders to operate under increased anonymity and to target potential victims, with whom they have no bonds, decreasing the social costs associated with offending (Felson, 1986). Other contesting opinions, however, argue that most peri-urban poor neighbourhoods have high crime rates because they tend to have higher population density, deteriorated living conditions and many unemployed members of the labour force (Galvin 2002; Gaviria & Pages, 2002). In addition, they may have poor housing structures which may be largely uncompleted and these provide a safe haven for criminals and potential offenders. It can be inferred that a higher spate of urbanisation is an indicator for higher crime (Sanidad-Leones, 2001). Thus for any comprehensive crime prevention strategies to be developed, the link between socio-economic change and crime ought to be understood and established.

Earlier studies (Galvin 2002; Gaviria & Pages, 2002) have revealed, that all things being equal, in less densely populated areas, the likelihood of potential contacts between motivated offenders and attractive targets is minimal as it is difficult for criminals to operate under conditions of anonymity. Freudenburg and Jones (1991) raise questions about this assertion and maintain that if crime exists in non-metropolitan areas, then the offenders are people who somehow know the victim. Police statistics and victimisation surveys worldwide point out that the incidence of crime is higher in urban settlements than rural ones; or that two thirds of the inhabitants of cities have been victims in one way or the other (ICPC, 2008). The UN-HABITAT Global Report on Human Settlements indicates that between 1990 and 2000, the number of violent acts recorded in urban areas increased from 6 to 8.8 incidents per 100,000 inhabitants (ICPC, 2008).

This study interrogates the urban dynamics in Metropolitan Accra and how that impacts on the incidence of crime, particularly in edge settlements using Kasoa as a case study. According to an INTERPOL data, the general crime rates in the country witnessed a downward dip between the 1990's and 2000 as compared to industrialised countries. At the same time, the unplanned sprawling of the city, devoid of official sanctioning means that many edge cities will also be devoid of official infrastructure including those for crime prevention. Thus, as population increases, there is possible increase in the incidence of crime. Meanwhile the few criminology studies in Ghana remain wholly urban focussed to the neglect of the edge cities; hence the need to fill the knowledge gap, particularly regarding how residents employ other strategies to fight crime.

#### **2.4 The Challenges Facing Edge Cities**

In the Ghanaian context, conceptualising edge cities is particularly difficult because they are not specially demarcated to warrant a special focus in terms of development models and concepts. The difficulty associated with the conceptualization of edge cities makes the acquisition of statistical and general information about them even more of a challenge as most find themselves in transition zones between rural and urban areas (Owusu, 2008). Currently, there have been an invigorated interest in the enquiry into edge cities as a result of the ever increasing commercial activities and rapid residential development, which invariably has increased routine activities and thus providing opportunities for criminal activities. This therefore has implications on crime levels, fear and provision of adequate security infrastructure and services. With the emergence of some of these issues, there has been a broadening of definition of edge cities to encapsulate the growing interest and also highlight the increasingly complex and specialised endeavours to compete for economic and social opportunities and also to fight crime.

Essentially, edge cities have been considered to constitute vital links in the promotion and maintenance of an efficient networked system of cities globally and more importantly within the host countries (Peters, 2014). The New Economic Geography (NEG) report from the World Bank states ‘Just as a primary city forms the core of a country’s metropolitan area with other adjacent cities, other large urban centers or secondary (edge) cities act as regional foci for both the economy and society’ (World Bank, 2008:2). Historically, edge cities have been developed as a result of some form of natural advantage emanating from urban cities preceding them. These smaller cities are characterised by their spatial development preceding deliberate spatial planning. That is, inhabitants within these settlements move in to build homes and an economic base before city authorities can map out these areas onto a master plan. Spatial planning in this sense encompasses spatial land use and socio-economic roles undertaken in edge cities. A seamless integration of these two concepts is essential because a physical space is a necessary condition for all socioeconomic activities (Ng & Tang, 2004). This is so because implementation of well-designed socio economic policies will be rendered unbeneficial if spatial planning is not integrated with socioeconomic planning (Healey, Khakee, Motte & Needham, 1997; Ng, 1997).

According to Roberts (2014), the challenges facing edge cities are multi-dimensional in nature, that is, the causes and effects of these challenges permeate different scales, scopes and levels in countries worldwide. Such complex and diverse challenges require an integrated sector approach to solve them. The central challenge derives from the failure of the management of edge cities to deliver sustainable development outcomes that support their growth. This broad challenge is not isolated, as it is linked to the inability of urban governance to deliver effective planning mechanisms for physical, economic and social development. It may also be associated with other economic and financial, social and

environmental factors which are failing to ensure sustainable use of non-renewable resources and maintain high-quality environmental services.

The results of the sprawling effects on edge cities cannot be overlooked and in the opinion of Cash (2013) the natural advantage that has led to the creation of edge cities has its own attendant ill effects, particularly its effects on municipal planning as governments, engineers, architects, and scientists struggle to keep up with the demands of these areas and creating a huge challenge for edge cities in meeting the services demanded by their residents such as dealing with the increasing challenge of providing social services and adequate security services and infrastructure for inhabitants (UN Habitat, 2012). This situation undoubtedly has exposed residents of edge cities to social hazards such as property and personal crimes.

## **2.5 Policing in Ghana**

In terms of security, there exist both formal and informal arrangements in ensuring community safety and protecting lives and property in the country. Nonetheless, in the context of a burgeoning population, especially in urban areas, increasingly complex society with upsurge of commercial and private property, the role of the state, and particularly the police has become indispensable. Established under article 190, with a stated organizational structure under article 200 of the 1992 constitution, the Ghana Police Service (GPS) constitute the primary state agency mandated to protecting lives and property and also charged with the responsibility of maintaining law and order. Nonetheless, the police as a state institution have existed for a greater part of the country's history, with its modus operandi changing 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 of maintaining law and order under a constitutional and democratic dispensation since 1992 (Atuguba, 2007).

By way of historical details, policing in Ghana can be traced from the Ghanaian traditional system of criminal justice (CHRI, 2007). Although they were not known as police as we know now, their

operations were largely within the domain of crime prevention and apprehension of people who broke traditional laws and customs (CHRI, 2007). Colonial style policing was however introduced into the country after Ghana; then known as Gold Coast came under British colonial rule, precisely under Governor George Maclean in 1831 (Tankebe, 2008). It must be indicated that at this time, the aim of the police was to ensure trade security and the protection of the colonial apparatuses. The police saw changes regarding legislative backings as well as operational duties, especially when there was the need to give attention to public security.

*In 1894, another Ordinance was passed, giving the authority to form a civil police in the Gold Coast. 400 members of the previous Constabulary were recruited to form the basis of the new Gold Coast Police Force. This led to the establishment of police stations and the standardisation of policing in the British controlled areas of the Gold Coast. The majority of recruits were illiterate; strength and brawn counted for more than education or skills. Training was extremely heavily focused on military aspects of policing. The police officers produced had “attitudes that generated intimidation and bullying with an almost robotic obedience to repressive colonial laws that were regime-centred (CHRI, 2007:11).*

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). 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 4<sup>th</sup> 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). 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 the later, the GPS has established a community policing unit, with its experimental focus on selected areas of the Greater Accra region. The Unit's approach has mainly been three pronged;

- 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).

## **2.6 Explaining the Causality of Crime**

### *2.6.1 The Social Disorganisation Theory*

The consequences of urbanisation and its impact on crime rates have received greater academic attention particularly in the developed world (Shaw & McKay, 1942, cited in Lersch, 2007). Shaw and McKay (1942), for example, note that the association existing between inhabitants and environment is woven into the fabric of the social structure and its institutions, which undeniably encompasses the high level of residential mobility, low socio-economic status and ethnic heterogeneity experienced by members of the society. They maintain that there is always an upsurge in crime rates when the building blocks of the social structure, which ensures homogeneity and cohesiveness collapses. In other words, the breakdown of social interaction and norms create conditions that encourage facilitate criminal behaviour (Breetzke, 2008). Critics of the theory however argue that it fails to measure its

primary construct of social disorganisation, including, for example, enquiring from residents how many of their neighbours they know by their name and how often an eye is kept on children in peer groups who engage in activities unsupervised.

### *2.6.2 The Routine Activities Theory*

In 1979, Lawrence E. Cohen and Marcus Felson published in the *American Sociological Review* an article, 'Social Change and Crime Rate Trends: A Routine Activity Approach'. Their focus was on predatory crimes, which were defined as illegal acts that involved the direct damaging or taking of a person or property of another (Cohen & Felson, 1979: 589). To Cohen and Felson, there are three necessary ingredients for crime: a motivated offender, a suitable target, and absence of a capable guardianship. All these elements influence and interact with each other in an urbanised 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. Thus, for a predatory crime to occur, a willing, motivated offender must come into contact with a target that can be overtaken 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 theory was criticized for taking offenders as given (see Hirschi's 1969 control theory), and in response Felson's later works in 1986 took into account informal social control of offenders. This resulted in a two-step version of the control theory: First, society establishes social bonds and thus attaches a 'handle' to each individual; and the Second, being the task of

identifying exactly who is breaking the rules. As the ecology of everyday life changes, it becomes easier to evade social controls by breaking rules in places where one is not recognized. In a nutshell, just as a guardian supervises the suitable target in the routine activity theory by Cohen and Felson, a handler supervises the likely offender in this new routine activity approach by Felson. In both cases, direct physical contact serves to discourage crime from occurring. Thus, social control in society requires keeping suitable targets near capable guardians and likely offenders near intimate handlers (Felson, 1989).

### *2.6.3 The Broken Window Theory*

The 1971 rise of serious problems within the Kansas City Police Department called for a research into the change in the level of police patrol and its impact on the level of crime. Hitherto, the basic standing order of the police was and continues to be that increases in crime call for more resources, to put more uniformed men on the street and that will simply solved the problem of crime. The study employed the quasi-experimental design to assess the actual impact of routine patrols on crime as well as citizen fear, their behaviour as a consequence of fear and citizen perception of police services. Three approaches were employed in the study; that is the reactive, proactive and a control condition all geared towards the assessment of crime rates in different concentration zones (Lersch, 2007). The results of this masterpiece revealed increase in police patrol has little or no impact on the level of crime, citizen's fear and their attitudes thereafter (Skogan, 1986). These stunning revelations called for a turnaround in strategies and underlying philosophies to improve the effectiveness of police service to communities. This re-thinking series birthed interest in community policing and enhanced interest in crime analysis.

The results from the 1971 Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment ushered in more studies into community disorder, crime and fear of crime. For instance studies by Sampson (1991) and Bursik & Grasmick (1993) which proceeded from the social control perspective of crime,

sought to understand the formal and informal arrangement to crime control. Other studies also suggest that signs of physical and social vulgarities and discourtesies have serious consequence on crime and fear of crime. A dominant work that have had and continues to have an impact on police services is James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling's 'Broken Windows: The police and neighbourhood safety', which is an expansion of the routine activity theory. The theory argues that there is a close association between crime and disorder, hence the analogy that an unrepaired window sends a signal that 'no one cares in the community' - i.e. absence of capable guardianship. Thus, signs of disorder which are likely to 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). Thus, 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.

However this theory has been criticized by Harcourt (1998) who argued that there is insufficient empirical support for the link between disorder and crime, and also the fact that aggressive arrest on minor offenses rather lead to unwarranted police brutalities and human right abuses, especially of minority groups. In addition, there were suggestion also that the set of policies and policing techniques emerging under the influence of the theory, such as the quality-of-life initiative, may itself cultivate disorderliness and other forms of incivilities, products of the method of policing employed characterised by aggressive misdemeanour arrests. Secondly, the theory assumes disorder as the only causal agent of crime, ignoring the effect of other neighbourhood factors on crime, such as the nature of the built environment (Gau & Pratt, 2010). The fact however remains that negative externalities tend to be concentrated in certain underprivileged neighbourhoods, which is in line with Shaw and

Mckay's social disorganisation theory, which argues that uneven distribution of social and economic disadvantages are strong determinants of crime (see also Sampson & Groves, 1989).

## **2.7 Urban Crime Prevention strategies**

Current urbanization growth trends poses a serious concern to many city authorities, regarding containing its accompanying evils or myriad of crimes directly related to urbanisation, such as street crimes, illegal drug trafficking, robbery and theft, violent crimes against women and children, and terrorism (Sanidad-Leones, 2001). As already observed from the previous discussion, the causes of crime associated with urbanity are diverse, encompassing issues that are economic, social, political and even moral or spiritual in nature (see Jacobs, 1961). Hence, any effective crime prevention strategy must understand crime's nature and dynamics. For example, the Routine Activities Theory identifies three elements that have to be present for any crime to occur - a motivated offender, a suitable target and an absence of a capable guardian. Hence, any crime prevention and control strategy need the cooperation of the community with the law enforcers.

Crime prevention according to the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (2008) comprises the approach and actions taken by individuals and law enforcement bodies to reduce the incidence of crimes, their potential and harmful effects including the fear of crime on individuals and society. From law enforcement (eg. the police) perspective, crime prevention includes deterrent roles like roadblocks, and visible policing through active patrolling both on foot and by vehicle. Individuals', such as a social worker, see crime prevention as setting up projects to re-integrate a young offender back to society. The criminal law aims at making citizens law abiding by deterring potential offenders and

preventing further lawbreaking by apprehending criminals as well as reshaping social conditions which are assumed to be the building blocks of criminality.

Evidently, people attach different meanings to crime prevention processes, but ultimately, crime prevention simply means adopting a proactive means to stop the occurrence of crime instead of attending to the effects after the offence has been committed. It entails the anticipation, recognition and appraisal of a crime risk and the initiation of action to remove or reduce it (Sanidad-Leones, 2001). According to Kamalipour, Memarian & Faizi (2014) and Sanidad-Leones (2001), there are two main types of crime prevention techniques. Firstly, there are primary techniques, which involve preventive techniques that identify conditions for the protection of the physical and social environment. Secondly, there are set conditions that provide opportunities for controlling deviant behaviour in society. To them, the primary crime prevention techniques are geared towards making crime unpleasant and more difficult for the potential offender, keeping watch and surveillance easier for residents, and feelings of safety more widespread. It involves the use of environmental designs like building plans that are conducive to visibility, locks, lights, marking of property for ease of identification and the use of neighbourhood watch groups. It may also include increased visibility of the police and the criminal justice system. The second approach entails the identification of criminally minded individuals or potential offenders prior to commission of an illegal activity and the mapping of high crime-prone areas and other areas predisposed to fostering criminal activity.

## **2.8 Understanding community policing**

The causality of crimes is varied but irrespective of the approach employed, community participation must be an essential component of all prevention efforts. Community participation renders more efficient and effective control than any programme by the law enforcement agencies (Hillier, 2008). To most sociologists, solutions for crime and deviant

behaviour, when premised on community participation, has a greater success rate since community members become active defenders of their space against crime (Hillier, 2008; Wong, 2008). This philosophy has given birth to a radical theoretical framework, premised on the notion of '*Police power as social resource theory*' (SRT), for understanding the concept of community policing (Wong, 2008). The SRT conceptualises crime and police from the perspective of the people, and not that of the state. To the people, crimes and offenses against them and their property become personal problems. These problems are largely unmet expectations resulting from resource deficiencies and their limited capacity. Consequently, the police are seen as social resources, whose role are mainly that of people's service, democratic governance, empowerment, and self-help in solving people's own problems.

The theory considers the police as a resource for solving people's problems (including crime) through empowerment and self-help. The theory is shaped by people's perception of the nature of crime and the role of the police in crime prevention in a state setting. Legally, crime is seen as a legal violation of the criminal law, while to the people, crime is a set of life experiences, and a multifaceted personal problem. Additionally, the state sees police power as a political resource to secure control, maintain order and command obedience (Innocent, 2014). It is defined coercively, structured legally, organised bureaucratically and imposed unilaterally. However, from the community's perspective, police power is a social resource made available by the state and drawn upon by the citizens to handle personal problems of an emergency nature or crisis kind (Crews & Crews, 2007). Thus, the people do not have a political or legal image about the police, but rather see it as a service but dictated by the people and negotiated to fit the personal circumstances and situational needs in solving their problems. In its entirety, SRT argues that the definition and availability of police power as a political resource happens at a structural-macro level, for instance in the legislative process

and policy level, and the initiation, distribution, disposition of police power as social resource happens at the personal situational-micro level such as reporting crime and preferring charges (Wong, 2008).

### *2.8.1 Community Policing and Crime Prevention*

Historically, the concept of community policing (CP) traces its antecedent to the United States as fallout of an overall failure of the police to fight crime, maintain order and deliver a service to the people. In simple terms, the institutionalisation of CP was a reaction to the perception that in policing, nothing works (Carter, 2000). Principally, currently CP is Sir Robert Peel's seventh principles of policing, which envisions CP to work assiduously to fulfil the long-standing tradition that the police and the public are interchangeable, that is 'the police are the public and that the public are the police'. In other words, the police are primarily members of the public who are paid to give full time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen, in the interest of community welfare and existence (Wong, 2008).

Barlow and Barlow (1999) identify two conventional approaches to defining the concept: CP as a philosophy, or as a strategy. The philosophical approach described CP as: 'a new philosophy, based on the concept that police officers and private citizens working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary community problems related to crimes, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and neighbourhood decay (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990, pg. 5). The strategic view of CP has been associated with police public relations, team policing, foot-patrol and crime prevention. The central point of the strategy employed is basically aimed at enhancing human relations, enabling a community sensitive and user-friendly police service, consultation on the needs of communities and issues that affect them most, respect for human rights, cultural sensitivity and tolerance, continuous positive contact with community members, discretion on the part of police officers when they enforce the law,

and the establishment of mechanisms to enhance the accountability and transparency of the police (Cordner, 2000).

In the 1970s, a community crime prevention programme was set up in Seattle (Geason and Wilson, 1988). The programme was meant to combat household burglaries and the Police publicized the programme by contacting local organizations and churches. A team of fieldworkers visited all households, and block watches of ten to fifteen households were established. Block watch groups organized property marking, and organizers carried out security surveys of individual households to help owners identify and minimize security risks. After evaluation, the indications were that the project had been very effective and worthy of being copied in other jurisdictions (Lindsay & McGillis 1986).

Technically, every community desires peace and security and this demands putting in place systems to prevent crimes. In the United States, Geason and Wilson (1988) observe that amidst the high rates of crime, the American law enforcement agencies turned to the community for assistance. It was seen and openly admitted by criminal justice professionals that, in the absence of help from the public, crime cannot substantially be cut in America even if more money and manpower, and improved technology are available (Lindsay & McGillis 1986). Household burglary, in particular, is an area of crime where community and the police collaboration are crucial, since it is believed the householder is in a position to make a real difference. Thus, only “a resident can make sure a household is secure; only a neighbour can recognize suspicious activity at a backdoor; only a householder can mark property with identifying numbers which help the police locate it if stolen” (Geason & Wilson, 1988 :19).

Yin (1986) evaluated some community crime prevention projects in American cities and concluded that the most successful community crime prevention were those involving a

complex array of activities - for example, neighbourhood watch programmes, police patrols, better communication between police and community, and better communication in the community through actions groups, newsletters, etc. He also found that the most successful interventions against crime were those involving action by both residents and local police, as was demonstrated by police foot patrols set up in two different cities to reduce crime, where the more effective patrols were those in which the police consulted widely with the community and sought its co-operation before starting the patrols. The study thus explores the viability of adopting community policing in an edge city – Kasoa with its peculiar challenges – lack of (limited) police physical presence; poor planning and lack of infrastructure services, etc.

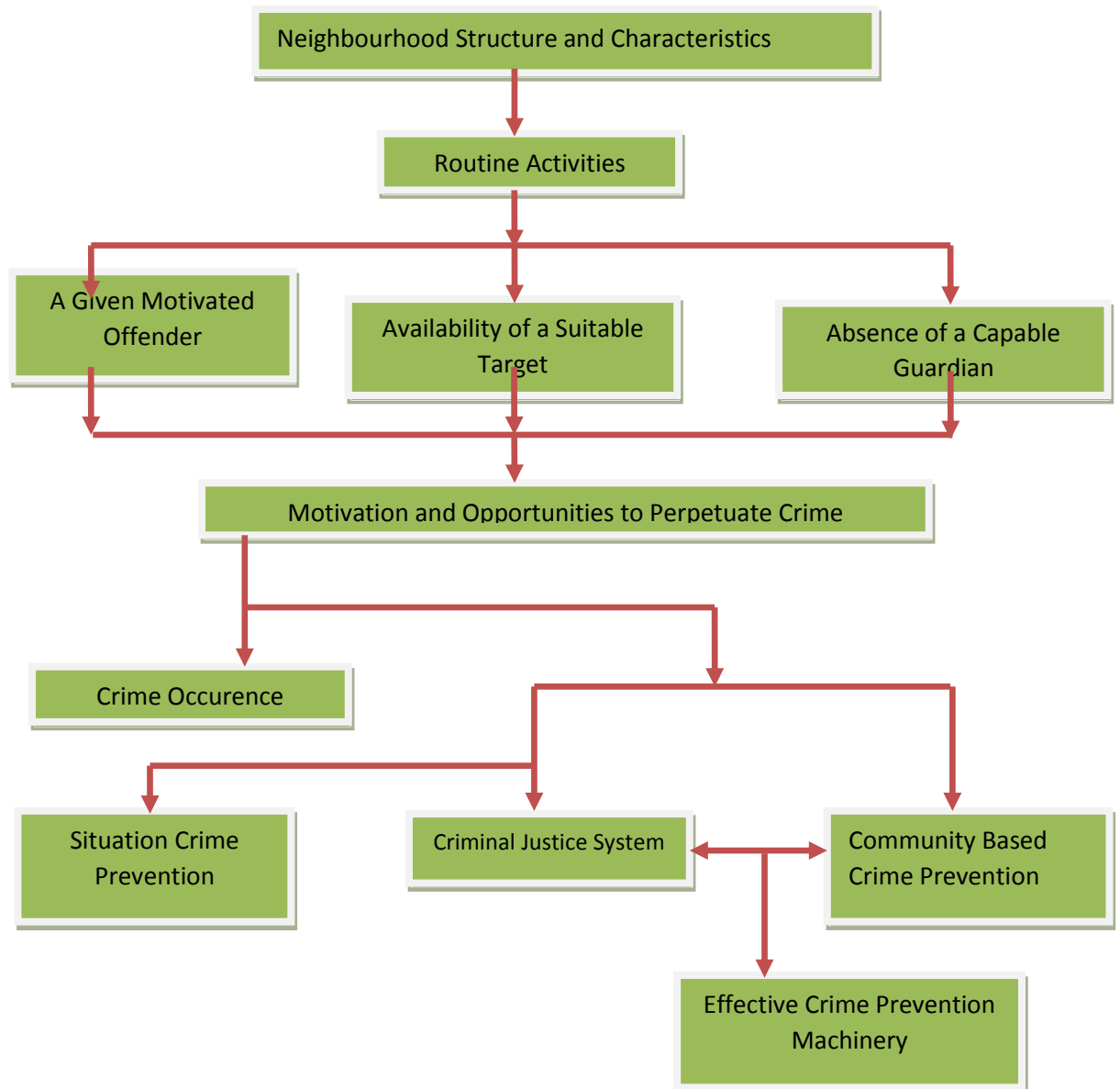
## **2.9 Conceptual Framework for Community Policing and Crime Prevention in ASEMA**

So far, many related theories have been discussed that espouse the importance of the community in controlling crime. In order to develop a conceptual framework for understanding crime prevention from a community policing's point of view, this study adopts the social disorganisation and the routine activities theory as the primary theories underpinning this crime prevention strategy. As already discussed, Shaw and McKay's social disorganisation primarily focusses on the relationship between neighbourhood structure, social control and crime. Kubrin and Weitzer, (2003) are of the opinion that social disorganisation signifies the inability of a community to address social problems due to the breakdown of institutions that ensues that community values are upheld. Thus, a strong social bonding is likely to occur within communities that are successful in believing and sharing in the same set of norms and values and more importantly, are able to socialise children to do same. The above explains that, neighbourhoods with a strong sense of communal identity and this feeling breeds a crop of individuals who are likely to intervene when people are seen

perpetrating evil and who will monitor the behaviour of children thereby reducing crime and fear of crime.

Similarly, the routine activities theory first developed by Cohen and Felson (1979) hinges on illegal activities and stipulates three important elements that ought to converge in space and time for crime to occur: a: motivated offender meets: a suitable target; and c: in the absence of a capable guardian which can be law enforcement officer or an adult in the neighbourhood, in this set-up, a crime is likely to occur. The latter, as earlier noted, are people who are likely to keep an eye out for the safety of other neighbours and their property as well as attend to children who are likely to flout existing neighbourhood norms and rules. The presence of a capable guardian is a strong deterrent to would-be-motivated offenders assessing the suitability of neighbours as well as themselves as potential targets.

**Figure 2. 1: Conceptual Framework Based on Routine Activities & Social Disorganisation Theories.**



**Source: Author's Construct based on above theories (2015).**

Figure 2.1 is a conceptual framework of the study. It summarizes and illustrates the linkages among key concepts and theoretical postulates espoused earlier in this study. The conceptual framework also highlights the pathway that the study follows and also the logical premise of the study. First the study conceptualizes neighbourhood structure as an important determinant of any criminogenic outcome. Neighbourhood structure may include the social, economic and physical characteristics of a place that gives it a peculiar identity or ecological feature. In this regard neighbourhood structure also plays a significant role in determining residential differentiation. So for instance the presence or absence of proper planning and layout, income group of the population within a neighbourhood, absence or presence of employment opportunity, housing characteristics, street availability or absence etc. are important features of neighbourhoods and thus constitute neighbourhood structure.

Neighbourhood structure therefore facilitates or inhibits routine activities. For instance a neighbourhood without lightening facilities, particularly during the night, and if there happens to be no guardian, it is likely that any potential person can be a target of crime. However if these security infrastructure are available, then crime may not take place. In the context of a search for an appropriate crime prevention strategy, we assume that neighbourhood structure may facilitate crime because it provides a conducive environment for crime to take place. And so for instance, inadequate security infrastructure such as police personnel, occurring in the context of an urbanizing fringe town with brisk business taking place (e.g. the study area) can provide an environment for people to commit crime.

Logically the increase in crime and reported cases of crime will lead to police reaction and some measures being taken to address crime. However, these crime prevention strategies will not be somewhat different from the normative crime prevention strategies which are based on the standard mode of operation. Such crime prevention strategies mostly situational in nature and meant to disrupt the situational dynamics then allows crime to fester may not be adequate

in terms of addressing the crime situation and enhancing public safety, particularly within the context of the study area which is experiencing rapid urbanization. More so, with its focus on increasing police size, and expecting to react to complaints, such strategies may not adequately address the security needs of an urbanizing fringe settlement, increasing demographically and expanding spatially. In this context, the researcher, and being her main argument, advocate for appropriate police strategy that incorporate the community in the crime prevention effort. Police-community identification of problems (criminological problems), collaboration and involvement will lead to better crime prevention. This will be beneficial to the police since it will reduce the resources the police might have to devote in crime prevention (human and monetary) and will build trust and confidence in the police. On the part of the residents it will reduce fear and enhance public safety

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **THE STUDY METHODOLOGY AND STUDY AREA**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter interrogated some of the theoretical underpinnings of this study. The endeavour did not only provide the theoretical background to the study, but also helped identify some of the existing gaps in literature. The current chapter explores the methods and techniques employed in data gathering and its analysis. The section had two main divisions. The first division detailed the methods and methodology used in the study. This included research design, research strategy, data collection procedure and data collection instruments as well as data analysis techniques. The second section presented the profile of the study area.

#### **3.2 Research Design**

The research design presented a framework or blueprint for connecting the overall planning and organisation of the research. The design articulated the data required, methods used to collect and analyse the data, and how these answered the research questions. The study adopted a mixed method approach, and the use of quantitative and qualitative methods was predetermined and planned at the start of the research process and the procedures were implemented as planned.

Mixed method has acquired so many names in the literature. For instance, Morse (1991) as cited in Creswell (2006) referred to it as ‘methodological triangulation’ with cognizance to the convergence of quantitative and qualitative data. In addition, it has also been referred to it as ‘mixed methodology’, which acknowledges that it is both a method and a philosophical worldview (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009).

The choice of an appropriate method is often contentious for researchers; this is as a result of the limitations of both quantitative and qualitative methods. According to Creswell (2006:5) ‘a mixed method focusses on collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. Thus this method utilises both approaches to enrich a single study. As part of the study, inferences were made from the sampled data through the use of statistical analytical techniques such as inferential statistics. . In this study, quantitative data collection was conducted through a survey to test the theories and concepts adopted for the study. This was followed by an investigation into people’s personal experiences and perceptions on the subject matter, such as the community’s views on crime, fear of crime and community policing. Finally, this study formed part of a larger cross-sectional survey of four cities in Ghana, on the nexus of crime and poverty, as well as fear of crime. However, this supplementary study seeks to investigate the concept of community policing and its effect on crime prevention in an edge city in the Awutu Senya East Municipal Assembly (ASEMA).

### **3.3 Data Requirement and Sources**

The data required for this study were collected from households in three neighbourhoods in Awutu Senya East Municipality, namely: Krispol City, Ofaakor and Kasoa Zongo. These constitute the primary data sources, which are the locations where the first hand data was collected. The choice of these locations hinges on the fact that, Krispol City is assumed to be first class with high income earners. Krispol City is noted to be a ‘well-developed’ community because it has residential apartments developed by estate developers such as UT Properties and Ubuntu Gardens, and thus houses high-income households. In addition, residents have access to relatively good roads although all the roads are untarred and dusty, as

indicated in figure 3.1. As presented in figure 3.2, these communities are gated, and residents have access to 24 hour security systems to protect themselves and their families from crime in the absence of policing measures put forward by the government. Though most of the residents work outside the home, their properties are relatively secure because of the constant surveillance provided.

**Figure 3. 1: Sign Post to Krispol City Neighbourhood**



**Source: Field Data, 2015**

**Figure 3.2: Section of gated residential properties developed by Ubuntu Gardens**



Source: Field Work 2015

Figure 3.3 presents images of Ofaakor which is a middle-income community. It is set as a mix community with indigenous settlers residing in old houses mainly constructed with mud and cement. Other new settlers who are not natives of the indigenous community have acquired lands and are embarking on incremental building. Due to the nature of construction, there are a number of uncompleted self-contained or family homes which are being manned by caretakers. Some of these uncompleted structures become convenient hideouts for criminals and this information was revealed during discussion with the police as the researcher was embarking on the fieldwork. Ofaakor doubles as the commercial hub within the municipality which is busy during the day and quiet at the close of business. These conditions clearly have implications for crime during the day and at night.

**Figure 3. 3: Ofaakor new settlement with uncompleted buildings and old settlement made up of indigenous settlers**



Source: Field Data, 2015

On the other hand, Kasoa Zongo is a low-income community. Based on a reconnaissance survey prior to the main data collection, it was observed that a number of residents, especially women, were engaged in home-based enterprises such as vending cooked food and other household items as shown in figure 3.4. More so, informal discussions held with residents regarding the crime situation in the area revealed that there were a number of ghettos serving as hiding places for some local youth groups. Officially the community is classified as a low income community, which means that comparatively income levels are low, while availability of and access to basic social services and infrastructure is relatively low ASEMA, (2011)

**Figure 3.4: Some women preparing food for sale in Kasoa Zongo (a home based enterprise)**



Source: Field Data, 2015

The primary data involved the use of both quantitative and qualitative data sources (see Appendices 1 and 2 for the instruments used). To this end, structured questionnaires were used to solicit information on socio-economic characteristics of household representatives sampled, community policing strategies and CP effects on crime prevention. In addition to the quantitative data, interviews were conducted with residents, community neighbourhood watch groups and municipal assembly officials. Officials from the Ghana Police Service were also interrogated to solicit information on CP practices. There were questions concerning community policing, and the extent to which it is practiced within the police service of Ghana. The final section of the interviews was designed to investigate specific operations or activities related to community policing and groups within the neighbourhood and who undertake these operations.

To provide further detail, for instance in terms of the geographical setting, activities on policing and other security details, secondary data were solicited from appropriate institutions, particularly the police to corroborate the findings from the primary data. In addition to this, other secondary data sources were gathered on crime rate and trends from the District Divisional Police Command in Kasoa and CP Headquarters at Tesano as well as the municipal assembly.

### **3.4 Research Instruments**

#### *3.4.1 Questionnaires*

Semi-structured questionnaires were used in collecting the qualitative data. These covered variables deemed expedient for the current study. Some of the key issues covered in the questionnaire included the evolution and institutionalisation of CP in ASEMA, the impact of

the presence of CP on perceived safety and fear of crime and mechanisms employed by CP to engage the public in crime prevention.

### *3.4.2 Interviews*

With regards to the qualitative approach, interview sessions were conducted with key informants including the District Police Commander, an officer from the Community Policing Unit and the Municipal Chief Executive, who is the Chairman of Municipal Security Council (MISEC). This was to solicit for information regarding community policing and crime rates within the municipality. The interviews were conducted with the help of an interview guide, and appointments were booked with the interviewees ahead of the interview date. These interviews were recorded and notes were taken. This was to ensure that all information provided by interviewees was accurately captured. Four key informants were interviewed and it included, the chairman of the assembly's Security Council, the assembly's planning officer, the district police commander and an officer from the community policing department in Tesano. All efforts made to interview the crime officer and the inspector of the Police Visibility Department at the Kasoa District Command proved futile.

### **3.5 Sampling Techniques and sample size**

To achieve the objectives, the study focussed on three neighbourhoods with different socio-economic characteristics within the Awutu Senya East municipality: these were low-income, middle-income and high-income communities. The purposive sampling was used to select these neighbourhoods and it included Krispol city as high-income, Ofaakor as middle-income and Kasoa Zongo as low-income. While being subjective, the peculiarity in terms of socio-economic characteristics was the basic guide for their selection as applied in other studies on urban Ghana (see Benneh, Songsore, Nabila, Amuzu, Tutu, Yangyuoru, & McGranahan (1993), Songsore, Nabila, Amuzu, Tutu, Yangyuoru, McGranahan & Kjellen, (1998), Songsore, Nabila, Yangyuoru, Amuah, Bosque-Hamilton, Etsibah, Jan-Erik, & Jacks (2005), Agyei-Mensah and Owusu (2010) and Owusu and Agyei-Mensah (2011). Moreover, without an appropriate sampling frame to aid in the sampling of the ultimate sampling unit i.e. household heads. A household listing exercise was conducted in the three neighbourhoods during an earlier reconnaissance exercise. In the process of carrying out this exercise, contact details of residents, particularly household heads were taken. It must be indicated that not all residents were willing to provide this information. However the researcher had quite enough contact details to provide the sampling frame from which the ultimate sampling unit was sampled from. For instance in the Kasoa Zongo we had contact details of 112 residents, in Ofaakor the researcher had 73 and at Krispol city the researcher had 52. A simple random sampling was used to sample from the list. It must be indicated that a large proportion, about 80 percent of the sampling unit were household heads. More so, in the process of carrying out the listing exercise the researcher made sure that contact details taken were per a house.

Using Yamane (1967) sample size determination table, a sample size of 120 was arrived at based on a  $\pm 10$  level of precision and 95% (.5) confidence interval (see Yamane 1967). In the case of the sample size for the individual communities, a sample size of 40 was conveniently

settled for each community. The main reason for this was that, there was not data regarding the actual population sizes for the communities.

For the qualitative data, four key informants were selected based on their expertise and knowledge in the subject area. For the purposes of this study, the target population was adults ranging from 18 years and above. The choice of this age group was based on the fact that they might be in a position to provide useful information about their perception of policing in the neighbourhood and issues regarding their safety. More importantly, the respondents of the survey were drawn from only residential areas falling into the three focus neighbourhoods (high, middle and low- income neighbourhoods).

### **3.6 Analytical Strategy**

For the quantitative analysis, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for windows version 20.0 software was employed. First it was used to compute the descriptive summaries of the socio-economic characteristics of respondents across the three neighbourhoods where the study was undertaken. Again descriptive summaries were made for other variables deemed expedient, including fear of crime and satisfaction with community policing in the neighbourhood. Specifically the summaries were done, using the number of cases and percentages. In addition, cross tabulations between some demographic variables were also made.

The second phase of the analysis included statistical techniques to show relationships between some of the variables. This included cross tabulation of presence of community policing and risk of victimisation and perception of safety with a chi-square test of independence to test for the level of significance in terms of the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables.

A thematic analysis was applied as it was useful in capturing the complex meaning within a textual data set with regards to the qualitative data set. A thematic analysis, according to Braun and Clarke (2006) involves identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It also involves organising and describing data set in detail and interpretations of the various aspects of the study. The thematic analysis for this study followed the steps that Braun and Clarke (2006) provided which are: becoming familiar with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the report.

### **3.7 Ethical issues**

An introductory letter from (the) Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research as well as an ethical clearance certificate from the University of Ghana Research Ethics Committee were given to the Assembly and the corresponding security agencies to seek permission to gather data from some of the households in the community as well as within their outfit. A copy of a permission letter (endorsed from the Assembly) was given to Assembly members (local government representative) in the communities where the study was conducted.

The selection of respondents was based on voluntary participation and respondents could withdraw from the study freely if any of them wanted to do so. . The essence of the study, that is, solely for academic purpose was echoed to allay any fears that respondents may have had as a result of their participation. Another important ethical issue that was considered was confidentiality. Participants were assured of total non-disclosure of information and to that end, identities and names did not formed part of the research.

In addition, disposal of information was considered. Participants were assured that all information relating to them will be destroyed after the work has been accepted by the

Graduate School. Finally, all references and information sources were acknowledged in the work.

### **3.8 Study Location – Awutu Senya East Municipal Assembly**

This section details the features of the Awutu Senya East Municipality where the study was conducted

#### *3.8.1 General Background*

The Awutu Senya East Municipal Assembly is one of the newly-created municipalities in the Central Region. The Municipality was carved out of the former –Awutu Senya District in 2012 and established as a Municipality by Legislative Instrument (LI) 2025. The rationale was to facilitate government’s decentralization programmes and local governance system (MTDP, 2014).

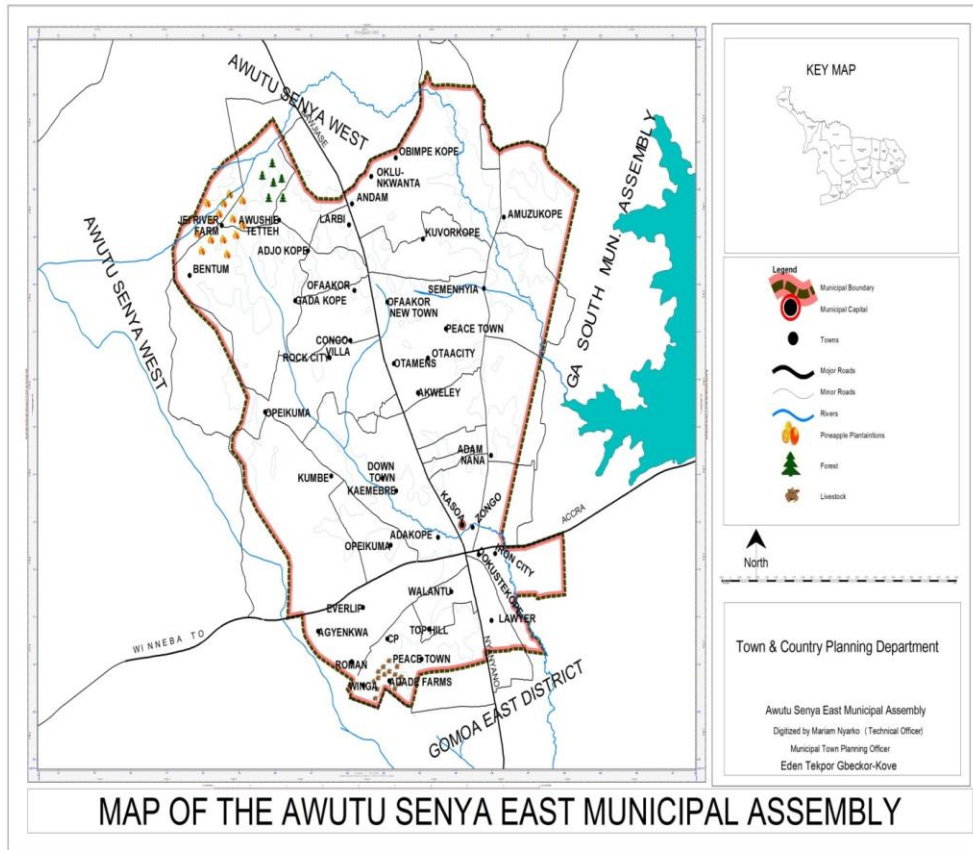
#### *3.8.2 Location and Size*

Figure 3.5 shows the area map of Awutu Senya East Municipal Assembly. The municipality is located in the eastern part of the Central Region. It shares its eastern boundaries with the Ga South Municipality and the Accra metropolitan area, Awutu Senya District in the north and the Gomoa District in west. The Municipality covers a total land area of about 108,004 square kilometres, which is 1.1 percent of the total land area of the Central Region. Kasoa, the municipal capital, is located at the south-eastern part, about 32 kilometres from Accra, the national capital<sup>2</sup>. The major settlements of the municipal are Opeikuma, Adam Nana, Kpormertey, Ofaakor, Akweley, Walantu and Zongo (GSS, 2014; MTDP, 2014).

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<sup>2</sup> <http://www.distancesfrom.com/gh/map-from-Kasoa-to-Accra/MapHistory/280809.aspx>

**Figure 3.5: Map of Awutu Senya East Municipality**



Source: (MTDP, 2013)

### 3.8.3 Demographic Characteristics

The indigenous population of the municipality are mainly Guans, an ethnic minority group in Ghana. However, the massive migration into the municipality in recent years has led to the influx of other ethnic groups. These include the Ga, Akan, Ewe, Walas/Dagarti, Moshie, Basare and other numerous smaller tribes. Due to the cosmopolitan nature of the municipality, the main languages spoken are Akan and English (MTDP, 2014).

In 2010, the total population of the municipality stood at 108,422 which is 4.9 percent of central region's population. The male population is 48.1 percent while the female population is 51.9 percent of the total population of the district. The municipality's population growth of three percent is higher than the national rate of 2.5 percent, which is an indication of a fast urbanising community (MTDP, 2014; GSS, 2013)

**Table 3.1: Population Growth-Municipal Capital, Kasoa**

1970	863
1984	2,597
2000	34,719
2010	69,384

Source: (GSS, 2012)

In addition, Kasoa the municipal capital city has grown significantly over the past four decades. The population figures presented in table 3.2 indicates that the population is increasing at a rapid rate. Thus Kasoa which was largely rural between the periods of 1970-1984, has since 2000 been rapidly urbanising.

### 3.8.4 Political and Administrative Structure

The Municipality is headed by a Municipal Chief Executive appointed by the President with approval by at least two-thirds of the Assembly Members. It has a presiding member who always chairs General Assembly meetings. There are twenty-two (22) Assembly

Members with eight (8) being appointed and fourteen (14) elected. The Municipality has six (6) zonal councils, namely: Kasoa, Ofaakor, Akweley, Opeikuma, Walantu, and Kpormetey as shown illustrated in Figure 3.2. It also has fourteen electoral areas and one constituency known as Awutu Senya East Constituency.

#### *3.8.5 Economy*

The main economic activities in the Municipal include trading (wholesale/retail), agro-processing, informal sector services and commerce. Trading and its related activities are the leading economic ventures which, according to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, employ about 35.7 percent of the working population in the municipality. Livestock production is also practised in the municipality but on a smaller scale (GSS, 2013).

The private informal sector's contribution is enormous. The sector employs 81.9 percent of the working population in the banking and service sectors but needs to be integrated with the formal sector. Other economic activities include: manufacturing, wholesaling and retailing, and transport services, among others (MTDP, 2014).

#### *3.8.6 Health*

Coverage of health services in the municipality is generally very low as available facilities are woefully inadequate. The highest level of health delivery system in the municipality is the private hospital. There are 15 health facilities located within the municipality. In spite of the existence of the above facilities, people in the municipality have serious problems with access to health services. This is due to the poor physical conditions of the roads in most parts of the municipality. This phenomenon has accounted significantly for the limited health facilities. Serious cases from the health facilities are either referred to the Winneba Hospital in the Effutu Municipality or to Korle Bu Teaching Hospital (KBTH) in

Accra. The municipality is making efforts to improve health care delivery in all its communities (MTDP, 2014).

### *3.8.7 Education*

Education in the municipality is mainly driven by the private sector. Though there are sixteen kindergartens, twenty one primary schools and seventeen junior high schools, the private sector has fifty three kindergartens, one hundred and forty seven primary schools, one hundred junior high schools, ten senior high schools, two technical and vocational schools and four tertiary institutions. There was however no available data on enrolment, teacher to pupil ratio and infrastructure. The lack of public schools in the municipality is likely to result in overcrowding in the few available schools. This will also affect quality of instruction and class control.

## **3.9 Conclusion**

The earlier discussions centred on the methods and techniques used to gather the employed in data gathering and its analysis. The primary data required for the study were collected from households in three neighbourhoods in ASEMAMA namely; Krispol City which is a high income neighbourhood which is made up of gated communities with 24-hour security being provided by the property developers, hence these locations may have fewer incidences of crime. This community is highly heterogeneous, with each family embarking on their own security interventions. The lack of good neighbourliness puts such communities at risk of crime as there are many opportunities for a motivated offender to translate their inclinations into criminal activities.

Ofaakor and Kasoa Zongo share similar characteristics as mixed settler communities. Both locations offer convenient abodes for new entrants into the community due to the many uncompleted buildings there and both areas are noted as locations which have good

hideouts for criminals and their activities. In addition, these locations are somewhat homogeneous and close knit and hence a crime against a neighbour is almost impossible. The collective nature of members implies that, they can easily come together to strategize and combat criminal activities in the area in close collaboration with police officers which is prerequisite of successful CP interventions.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter gave the background information on the study area and the methodology adopted to accomplish the objectives of the study. This chapter focuses on the presentation of the results and the discussion of the findings of the survey. It includes details of the results of the field work and these were segmented along the lines of the evolution of community policing, institutionalisation of CP and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents in the study area. It also covers the analysis of the respondents' interaction and engagement with CP as well as how these practices impact on crime and fear of crime.

#### **4.2 Evolution of Community Policing (CP)**

The study findings concerning the evolution of CP in Ghana revealed, that CP is a strategy adopted by the Ghana Police Service to proactively fight crime and its attendant fear in the society, which is in line with the arguments put forward by Bracey (1992) and Goldstein (1993) that most police organisations around the world have translated the philosophy of community policing into practical strategic applications. Thus the CP strategy being adopted within the Ghana Police Service reflects a complete paradigm shift from strict professionalism, as popularised by August Vollmer in the early 1900's to an era where police officers and civilians seek creative and innovative means to solve contemporary social issues relating to crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder (Trojanowicz & Bocqueroux, 1990). However, the study results clearly revealed that the mode of

operations of CP in Ghana and particularly in Awutu Senya East Municipality (ASEMA) significantly differs from that practiced elsewhere.

The research further showed that some respondents were aware of the existence and presence of CP within their various neighbourhoods, although the variations in the level of contact and interaction differ from neighbourhood to neighbourhood. Of striking importance is the revelation of what the respondents knew and have accepted as Community Policing. In 2006, the National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP) was established as an agency under the Ministry of Youth and Sports to address youth unemployment by empowering them with entrepreneurial skills needed to support growth and development. As part of the modules of the programme, the community policing module was instituted to support the work of the police by helping to identify and fight crime at the local level. These personnel wore blue-black uniforms and were known as 'Community Police' or 'Kuffour Police' to the people within the municipality. According to the police these were known as Community Police Assistants (CPA), but they have since been phased out of the community crime preventive strategies employed by the police when their contract ended. And those who qualified to traverse into the mainstream policing were engaged and those who couldn't were laid off.

Thus to the ordinary citizen, community policing is synonymous to community police or Kuffour police while within the Ghana Police parlance it is a strategy for police-community partnership in crime prevention. It can therefore be said that there is no shared language and terminology when it comes to understanding the concept of community policing among the various stakeholders in crime prevention.

### **4.3 Institutionalisation of CP in Ghana**

As mentioned early on, the study findings clearly revealed that the mode of operations of CP in Ghana and particularly in Awutu Senya East Municipality (ASEMA) significantly differs from that practiced elsewhere (Lersch, 2007; Bracey, 1992 and Goldstein, 1993). This is reflective in a statement from an officer from the community policing headquarters, he is stated that:

*Our CP is not like the type of community policing that is done elsewhere. We have to tailor it to suit our circumstances here, like you see community policing officers in the advanced countries (UK) have a designed plan for operations or every community policing officer is assigned a street or beat to patrol but here we are taking it from a different angle because our needs and resources here are different from the occurrences over there. Like you rightly said, the two community policing desk officers that we have in the district cannot do the kind of CP that is done maybe in the UK where the police personnel assigned in beats so that everybody takes care of his beats. But in our situation because we don't have the personnel to assign to beats we are using a strategy where CP officers engages in coordination of CP activities together with other police service units like the visibility patrol men. This is not easy and more especially undermines the philosophy of community policing.*

Within the Ghana Police Service, a whole new department has now been created to serve as an administrative head of community policing in Ghana. The department has its own men and this forms the nucleus of what the concept stands for within the police force. The community policing officers are deployed into the various districts as CP desk officers where they mainly perform community policing coordination duties. There are currently two desk officers in the Kasoa Divisional Police Command.

From the findings it can be conveniently said that indeed the strategic intent of CP practices in Ghana is in line with other best practices carried out in other jurisdictions, nonetheless the police service has devised means to localise the concept to suit the Ghanaian crime scene. It was revealed that currently all newly recruited and existing police officers are being trained in the continuum. It is now part of the police training curriculum for junior and the senior levels. Within their everyday patrol work, community policing activities are being offered, the police are to know about community interaction and interpersonal relations and the department is there just to coordinate these whole activities.

#### **4.4 Models Effective for Crime Prevention**

Interactions from the field revealed that, the traditional role of the police service involved devising strategies to detect and combat crime as well as prosecute offenders. The police have adopted several models that have been proven to be effective towards crime prevention. These include the action unit which often moves in when hard crime happens, the panthers, the armoured cars and squadron units; all these units collaborate and undertake day and night patrol and all that they are mandated to do is to prevent crime. Other models employed for crime prevention include patrol and police visibility teams. All these are proactive policing which are meant to sensitise and prompt the people in the community to contribute towards crime prevention.

Among all these, the study revealed that CP reflects the soft aspects of policing where crime is prevented from happening rather than addressing the after effects of crime, thus according to the police, the consolidation of all the models mentioned stimulates better measurement of goals and results of the police force. The district commander of police supported this claim by stating that:

*CP is one of the ways through which we can better achieve our crime prevention goals, because we are not interested in either counting the number of arrests that we have made nor the crimes that has occurred, we are interested in preventing the occurrence of crime. That will tell us that we are doing the policing work rather than waiting for the incident to happen before we move in to conduct investigations to find out who and who were involved*

The models discussed were different from the three models of community policing proposed by Ferreira (1996). The first model he proposed was Crime Prevention and Peace Preservation Policing which was centred on the police undertaking its core functions of crime prevention and peace preservation with the cooperation of the community in relation to monitoring and controlling police activities.

The Communications Policing model considers the police as transmitters of information, while at the same time serving as custodians of a sense tradition. This could be achieved through interaction with community members so that they can provide for their own security which when practised in Ghana can stimulate the community to contribute towards the activities of the neighbourhood watch groups. The Community Building Policing considers the police as community builders that will be ensuring the rebuilding of the breakdown of formal and informal social control. This ultimately projects the role of the police within neighbourhoods as a means of re-establishing the neighbouring relationships and strengthening the institutions that make a community competent and able to deal with its problems.

#### **4.5 Effects of Community Policing on Crime Prevention in ASEMA**

The results supported the nature of the municipality as an edge community. Respondents cited poor housing structure, lack of spatial planning and development controls, lack of access routes as well as numerous hideouts for criminals as major challenges ASEMA

encounters. According to them, these served as enablers of the criminal activities within the municipality. As noted, the municipality is marked by high population growth, lack of adequate infrastructure and spatial planning and low security infrastructure. As seen in figure 4.1, the municipality currently has one district police station which serves as the divisional police command and a second station which is currently undergoing incremental construction (Figure 4.2), this coupled with low material and human resource makes the fight of crime a huge challenge.

**Figure 4.1: Divisional Police Command, Kasoa**



Source: Field Data, 2015

The results from the study, however, showed significant variations in responses concerning the level of crime in the three neighbourhoods under study. The findings from the lower income community revealed that crime rates were higher than in the middle and high income communities. Hence the effects of CP activities were much more evident in the low income communities than in the middle and high income communities. Thus even

within edge cities there still remain significant variations in level of crime according to the various settlement types. It was noted that there are more opportunities for a motivated offender to translate his or her criminal inclinations into a criminal act in the low income areas than there are in the middle and high income neighbourhoods.

The high level of residential mobility, physical dilapidation and uncompleted buildings within the municipality (Shaw & McKay, 1969), the movement of people in and out to work in the city centre (its dormitory nature) as well as physical signs of disorder makes crime rampant and the fight against it a big task. These features of an edge city are supported by Wilson and Kelling's (1982) analogy of the broken window theory. According to the theory, visible signs of disorder are signals of social disorganisation and lack of formal and informal community or social control, these ultimately are fear-inspiring and their continued presence sends a signal to a motivated offender that law enforcement agencies are unable to cope with the challenge. Further it was found out from respondents that physical deterioration and signs of disorder increase their anxiety and make them live in a perpetual state of fear of crime and that they are at risk of victimisation.

Wilson and Kelling (1982) went on to argue that foot patrol was the most effective means of delivering police services as it afforded a greater chance of collaboration and interaction between the neighbourhood members and the police officers assigned to those neighbourhoods. With the arrival of the vehicle patrolling, the foot patrolling concept has completely died out. Based on observations and interviews with the police officers from the district and headquarters, it was found that it was impossible to embark on foot patrolling as part of community policing in Ghana, because the police force lacked the needed human and material resource to do so. This challenge is compounded by poor

spatial planning of settlements and access routes within neighbourhoods, especially so in ASEMA.

The results went on to indicate that the inception of CP has led to a reduction in criminal activities and fear of crime especially in the low income communities. Although it was difficult to test the magnitude of the reduced crime since the beginning of CP within the municipality, the respondent's perceived a feeling of safety and less victimisation coupled with increased CP visibility was the basis of judgment.

#### **4.6 Public engagement with Community Policing**

The findings of the study revealed that the inability of the CP/Police to embark on foot patrols and be everywhere in the community at every point in time called for an intermediary to facilitate neighbourhood and police interactions. Thus in measuring the mechanisms available through which the CP engages with the public, it was stated that their main medium of interaction was through the activities of neighbourhood watch groups (NWG).

As part of contributions from the police, potential NWG members are nominated by opinion leaders and the general public for consideration. The finger prints of these nominees are taken and vetted to clear them of any criminal records. They are then taken through a rigorous training process to be able to identify and solve minor neighbourhood criminal issues while they refer or seek reinforcement in times of serious crimes from the police, because they operate without weapons. On the part of the community, members were to be levied 10 Ghana Cedis on a monthly basis to support the work of NWG. While the police are ready to fulfil their part, the neighbourhood resident associations were reluctant to contribute to that effect. Hence the activities of NWG towards crime

prevention within the various communities have not yielded the desired results and have gradually come to a standstill.

This occasioned the results of most respondents that they were not aware of the activities of NWG in their respective neighbourhoods. This notwithstanding, in situations where they were aware of their activities, it contributed to the reduction in crime as stated by respondents, especially those from the low-income neighbourhood. They are reported to be actively involved in problem identification and problem solving, reporting crime and other suspicious activities including protecting each other from crime.

Overall, the results concerning the CP engagement with the public through the activities the NWG was not positive. This was indicated in a response which stated that:

*The NWG cannot be relied on to help the police identify and understand the underlying causes of crime and disorder within our neighbourhoods without the support from the wider community. If this happens, it becomes difficult to develop and implement long-term innovation solutions that are neighbourhood specific and further assess the solution's results on neighbourhood crime situation.*

Hence the quest for a collaborative effort towards crime prevention cannot be achieved with the current trend of engagement and interaction between the police, neighbourhood watch group and residents in the various neighbourhoods, especially where crime is high. Thus the police ought to explore other mechanisms of engagement or strengthen the existing NWG to effectively fight crime through greater community participation.

#### **4.7 Police –Collaboration with other Agencies (Municipal Assembly)**

The findings revealed that the municipal assembly of Awutu Senya East is the administrative hub within the municipality. The Chief Executive Officer of the municipal assembly doubles up as the Chairman of the Municipal Security Council (MISEC). During

an interview with him, he stated that he was aware of CP activities within the municipality and he is quoted as follows:

*Yes I know about the activities of CP because some were posted to ASEMA, it was part of the NYEP modules, so when the NYEP ended those people were laid off. I am aware they are trying to reinstate those people but for now there is no CP.*

In response to enquiry about the kind of support the municipality offers to the police, he stated that:

*All the police do is to bring their programmes so we give them logistics and food and other things that they need. So they carry on their activities and then report back to their regional, divisional and national command as well as the IGP. My role on the Security Council is purely administrative, nothing technical. So for us, what we do is that whatever programme they have to engage in they just have to tell us and where they don't have finance then we come in. That is all and we make sure we comply with the rules. Mostly it's about fuel.*

In support of the response, the Municipal Planning Officer stated that:

*One of the areas we support them is in terms of infrastructure. We realised that we have infrastructure gap and identify it as one of the pressing challenges. Currently as I'm speaking, a police station has been constructed at the new market (Figure 5.2). Apart from that, we are putting up a police tent and that one has been supported by the assembly and national headquarters. Also to support the judicial service in expediting the judicial process for persons involved in crime, the assembly is currently supporting the service to construct the Kasoa District Court building to relieve the congestion the face in the assembly building (Figure 5.3).*

On the whole, the finding revealed that the municipal assembly has extended some level of support towards the activities of the police within the municipality. This notwithstanding,

the police claimed that the issue of planning still remains a challenge and an impediment to their operations. The District commander puts it as follows:

*Another challenge I must tell you is that Kasoa (Awutu Senya East) in general is poorly planned. As a result, it depicts certain features of slums. Apart from this police station, there is no police station around until one gets to the new market police post. But at least, they should have made enough provisions for police stations during the allocation of the land. The whole of Obom road there is no police station up to Lamptey and Domeabra. But assuming the place is interspersed with adequate police stations, and then police activities will be brought closer to the people. That is another huge challenge.*

**Figure 4.2: The New Market Police Station**



Source: Field Data, 2015

**Figure 4.3: New Kasoa District Court building supported by ASEMA**



Source: Field Data, 2015

#### **4.8 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents**

To achieve the objectives set for the study, a total of 120 questionnaires were administered across the three selected neighbourhoods, which are Krispol City, Ofaakor and Kasoa Zongo. Through a prior reconnaissance survey, the study locations exhibited both intra and inter community homogeneity in terms of social and economic composition. Consequently, a sample size of 40 was drawn from each of the selected neighbourhoods. The data collected from the three selected neighbourhoods, namely low-income (Kasoa Zongo), middle-income (Ofaakor) and high-income (Krispol City) had different socio-economic characteristics are presented in table 4.1. In terms of gender dynamics, a total of 52 males were interviewed out of which 24 males were drawn from Kasoa Zongo, 18 from Ofaakor and 10 from the Krispol City. The male representation in the various neighbourhoods was not surprising. While most males within the low-income neighbourhoods in edge cities normally work around their residence, their counterparts in the affluent neighbourhoods normally commute between their neighbourhoods and the

urban core where they work. The reverse holds for the female representation. Indeed, in the most affluent communities, most females tend to be housewives who take care of the home while their husbands travel to the inner-city to work. Thus Krispol City had the highest number of female respondents of 30, Ofaakor had 22 and Kasoa Zongo had 16 respondents. In addition to what have been discussed, the sex distribution could also have been affected by the fact that the interviews were carried out during the day.

In terms of age of respondents, the study purposefully targeted adults above the age of 18 years. This choice set was influenced by the assumption of their ability to provide accurately on reflection and information about their perception of security and policing in the various neighbourhoods. Accordingly, about 65% of the respondents from Krispol City were between the ages of 21-40, with Ofaakor and Kasoa Zongo registering 72% and 75% respectively. Participants were also asked how long they have stayed in the various locations. The results show that 32 (80%) of the respondents from Kasoa Zongo had stayed less than 10 years with respondents from Ofaakor and Krispol City registering 36 and 37 respondents respectively. Indeed, the data show that over 90 percent of the respondents from Ofaakor and Krispol City have spent less than 10 years and this is not surprising since, as has already been observed, these are 'dormitory settlements' housing the emerging 'petty bourgeoisies'. The case of Kasoa Zongo, where 80 percent of the respondents had stayed over 10 years is to be expected. As noted, most internal structure of Ghanaian cities depict Zongo's as migrant settler communities, normally at the outskirts of the town where they can access enough land to graze their cattle and offer protection to land owners (Dickson & Benneh, 1983).

The data also captured the various livelihoods of the respondents. This was deemed necessary since one's livelihood has the propensity to affect crime rates. Clearly, the general pattern presented in table 4.1 resonates with the earlier discussions. Broadly, over

60% and 75% of the respondents in Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively were mainly within the professional, managerial or services categories. Conversely, while only about 37 percent of respondents from Kasoa Zongo fell within this category, more than 60 percent were artisans and unskilled labourers. Various reasons do explain this dynamics but it was established that the construction works going on within the research area do not only provide relatively easy access to work but more importantly provide free accommodation to many. Equally important is the ease of accessing zonal services ‘free range’ toilet facilities and unrestricted free flow of things one has to pay for within the urban core has been the added pull factors. Hence most carpenters, masons, mechanics and welders have found a sanctuary in these edge areas.

**Table 4.1: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents**

<b>Socio-demographic characteristics</b>	<b>Zongo Frequency (%)</b>	<b>Ofaakor Frequency (%)</b>	<b>Krispo city Frequency (%)</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Sex</b>				
Male	24 (60.0)	18 (45.0)	10 (25.0)	
Female	16 (40.0)	22 (55.0)	30 (75.0)	
Total	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	
<b>Age</b>				
<=20	-	3 (7.5)	2 (5.0)	
21-30	17 (42.5)	17 (42.5)	9 (22.5)	
31-30	13 (32.5)	12 (30.0)	17 (42.5)	
41+	10 (25.0)	8 (20.0)	12 (30.0)	
Total	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	
<b>Length of stay</b>				
<=10	32 (80)	36 (90.0)	37 (92.5)	
11-20	3 (7.5)	2 (5.0)	2 (5.0)	
20+	5 (12.5)	2 (5.0)	1 (2.5)	
Total	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	
<b>Occupation</b>				
Professional/Tech/managerial	9 (22.5)	14 (35.0)	12 (30.0)	
Sales/services	6 (15.0)	11 (27.5)	19 (47.5)	
Skilled manual	11 (27.5)	4 (10.0)	8 (20.0)	
Unskilled manual	2 (5.0)	1 (2.5)	-	
Clerical	1 (2.5)	-	-	
Unemployed	8 (20.0)	8 (20.0)	-	
Agriculture	-	2 (5.0)	1 (2.5)	
Pensioner	2 (5.0)	-	-	
Other	1 (2.5)	-	-	
Total	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	

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<b>Average income</b>			
1-500	9 (22.5)	12 (30.0)	3(7.5)
501-1000	15 (37.5)	3 (7.5)	3(7.5)
1001-1500	7 (17.5)	4 (10.0)	4 (10.0)
1501-2000	7 (17.5)	17 (42.5)	8 (20.0)
2001-2500	2 (5.0)	4 (10.0)	11 (27.5)
2500 and above	-	-	11 (27.5)
Total	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)
<b>Level of education</b>			
None	1 (2.5)	1 (2.5)	-
Primary	2 (5.0)	1 (2.5)	1 (2.5)
JSS/JHS/Middle	9 (22.5)	4 (10.0)	1 (2.5)
SSS/SHS/Vocational/Technical	14 (35.0)	6 (15.0)	10 (25.0)
HND/Diploma	2 (5.0)	9 (22.5)	7 (17.5)
Graduate (Tertiary)	8 (20.0)	19 (47.5)	20 (50.0)
Post-graduate	1 (2.5)	-	-
Other	3 (7.5)	-	1 (2.5)
Total	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)

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Source: Field Data, 2015

#### 4.8.1 Marital Status

**Table 4.2: -Marital status of the respondents per various research localities.**

<b>Marital Status of Respondents</b>	<b>Kasoa Zongo Frequency (%)</b>	<b>Ofaakor Frequency (%)</b>	<b>Krispol City Frequency(%)</b>
Single (Never Married)	11(27.5)	15 (37.5)	9 (22.5)
Consensual / Cohabitation	8 (20.0)	1 (2.5)	1 (2.5)
Married	18 (45)	23 (57.5)	30 (75)
Divorced	1 (2.5)	1 (2.5)	–
Widowed	2 (5.0)	–	–
Total	40 (100)	40 (100)	40 (100)

From table 4.2, 45 percent of the respondents from Kasoa Zongo were married while their counterparts from Ofaakor and Krispol City recorded about 57 and 75 percent respectively. Thus the majority of the respondents who stayed in the middle and high income neighbourhoods, most of whom have stayed in their own self-contained houses were married. Marriage in such neighbourhoods could be imperative as it serves as a source of security when the men travel to the urban core to work.

Being single, widowed and never married, as rightly noted by Cohen and Felson (1979), has its own security implications as people within this situation appear to be the most suitable target for the most motivated offender. They are most likely to be living alone which certainly increases their vulnerability as and when they leave their home to ply their various vocations, their homes and property are left without any capable guardian.

This observation was to some extent evident even in the low-income community where among the 20 percent of respondents who were co-habiting, one respondent remarked: *‘the fact that you have a man sleeping by your side makes you safe and sound’*.

The income distribution of the respondents (see table 4.1) showed a wavy trend. In Kasoa Zongo about 28 percent of the respondents earned income below GHC 500 while about 30

percent and 8 percent of the same income group were recorded in the so called middle and high-income neighbourhoods respectively. The result is interesting for two reasons: first, the observation in the low-income area seems relatively higher by Ghanaian standard where the daily minimum wage is approximately GHC 7. Similarly, the observation in the middle and high-income communities appear surprising but not unexpected. According to Gough and Yankson (2011), most of the houses in most ‘dormitory settlements’ are owned by absentee property owners and are currently under the guidance of caretakers. Most of these caretakers are normally artisans and unskilled labourers whose earnings are normally equated to those in the low-income areas.

As previously highlighted, a lot of respondents (17) interviewed in the Ofaakor neighbourhood were engaged in professional/tech/managerial and sales/services and hence earned within the range of GHC1501-2000. Similarly, 55 percent of the respondents in Krispol City earned above GHC 2001 every month out of which about 28 percent have crossed the GHC 2500 a month threshold.

#### *4.8.2 Ethnicity of Respondents*

Table 4.3 shows the ethnic composition of the sampled population. The results reinforces the heterogeneity of the area, five major ethnic groups in Ghana predominating. This generally confirms the assertion that over five hundred families coming from different backgrounds move into the municipality quarterly (ASEMA, 2013). From the study, 45 percent of the respondents from the Zongo community were Akans while 55 % and 70 % of same ethnic group was recorded from Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively.

Ironically, respondents of the northern extraction (Mole-Dagbon) reached in Kasoa Zongo formed only 20%, followed by Ewe (18%) and the Ga-Adangbe (13%) In Ofaakor, the second largest ethnic group recorded was 20% and this constituted the Ewe group,

followed by Mole-Dagbon 10%, then finally Ga-Adangbe 8%. The Ewe ethnic group was the second largest group of respondents with 10% from the Krispol City, with Ga-Adangbe and Mole-Dagbon being represented by 8% and 5% respectively. The dominance of Akans perhaps reinforces the area's proximity to the urban core and therefore tends to suffer from in-place (in-situ) urbanisation. Thus, the area is being absorbed whether by annexation or simple re-classification due to increasing housing developments.

Consequently, neighbourhoods with mobile populations tend to be less cohesive than areas with more stable populations. In the latter area, neighbours have fewer opportunities to form relationships as well as implement mechanisms of social control (Bursik & Grasmick, 1993).

**Table 4.3: Ethnicity of Respondents**

<b>Ethnicity</b>	<b>Zongo Frequency (%)</b>	<b>Ofaakor Frequency (%)</b>	<b>Krispol City Frequency (%)</b>
Akan	18 (45.0)	22 (55.0)	28 (70.0)
Ga-Adangbe	5 (12.5)	3 (7.5)	3 (7.5)
Ewe	7 (17.5)	8 (20.0)	4 (10.0)
Guan	-	2 (5.0)	2 (5.0)
Mole-Dagbon	8 (20.0)	4 (10.0)	2 (5.0)
Other	2 (5.0)	1 (2.5)	1 (2.5)
Total	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	40 (100.0)

Source: Field Data, 2015

#### **4.9 Community Policing in ASEMA**

Within the Ghana Police Service parlance, community policing has existed for some time now, as indicated by the divisional police commander. The qualitative data indicate that as part of strategies to involve the public in crime prevention activities and to move towards both formal and informal arrangements for improving community safety, the community policing was thought to be appropriate. This quote illustrates the point:

*Community Police Concept (CP) was adopted by the police service years back but from the year 2002 we institutionalised it and it became one unit of the police service. It has grown and in the year 2004 as part of our strategic development it has been upgraded to be a department. So we have Community Policing Department as it is today.*

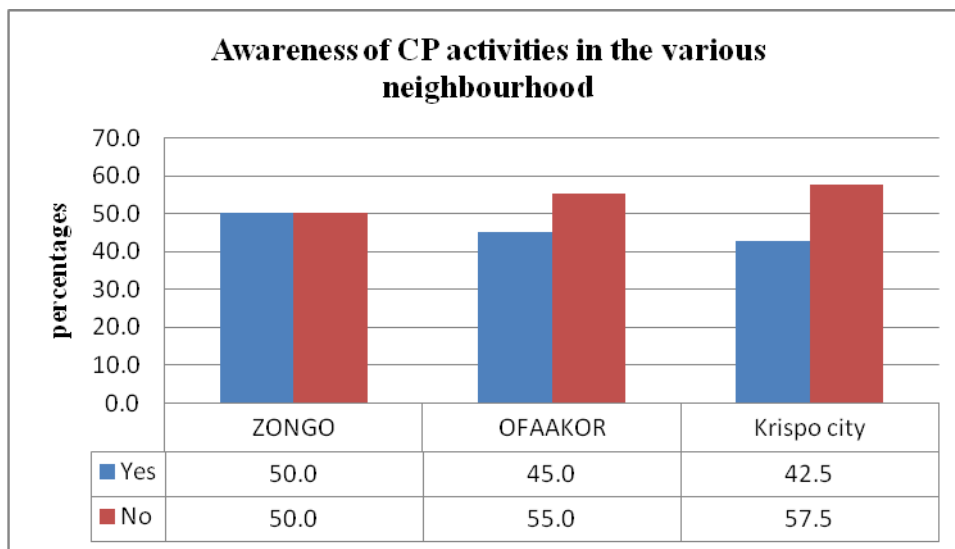
In support of the reasons that catalysed the evolution of CP as a department within the police service, he further stated that:

*It is a strategy that the police service devised to take proactive steps in combating crime. So the police service having realised that policing by our traditional methods have not been yielding the expected results, we decided to do community policing. As done elsewhere in other jurisdictions which has been very helpful where the members of the community get involved in developing crime fighting strategies that will suit the needs of every community because the police has realised that there is no one strategy in dealing with all criminal situations.*

Moreover regarding public awareness of the activities of community policing, the police indicated that the public is aware of their activities as police visibility has been the main policing strategy adopted in the community. However the quantitative analysis revealed that perception or awareness of this claim is not that high. Enquiries into the evolution of Community Policing (CP) in ASEMA from the public's point of view (see Figure 4.1) began with responses to the question; Are respondents aware of the activities of CP in their neighbourhoods? Responses did not vary greatly across the low, middle and high income neighbourhood. Residents exhibited some level of awareness of CP activities within the neighbourhoods.

As seen in Figure 4. 3, 50 percent of the respondents drawn from Kasoa Zongo were aware of the CP activities, while 50 percent were not aware of CP activities. Also, 45 percent of the people interviewed from the Ofaakor neighbourhood knew about CP and their activities while 55 percent did not know anything about them. In Krispol City, a similar trend was recorded as 42.5 percent of the respondents have witnessed CP at work within the neighbourhood while 57.5 percent of the respondents did not know about the operations of CP.

**Figure 4.3: Awareness of CP activities in the various neighbourhoods**



Source: Field Data, 2015

Awareness and contact, although different, as part of the work were used as a measure to establish the extent of evolution of CP activities and public engagement. Awareness may be said to be a situation whereby a respondent has a fair amount of information about the concept of CP within his or her neighbourhood, on the other hand, contact with CP implies a physical encounter with CP in his or her neighbourhood.

Thus a follow-up question to investigate whether the respondents who were aware of CP activities have ever had contact with these officers revealed that across all

neighbourhoods, over 90 percent of the respondents have not had any contact with them. Those who have had any contact with them generally had an unpleasant experience, as shown in Table 4.4a and 4.4b. From the perspective of the police, the issue of fewer contacts with CP was attributed to human and material resource challenges. This point was reinforced with a statement from an officer from the Community Policing Headquarters, Tesano; he said:

*As a result of lack of men, specially dedicated to CP activities, we currently have only two desk officers in District Divisional Police Command, Kasoa. These officers carry out our community policing activities there but their role is mainly administrative. They call on headquarters whenever they need us and we go and supplement what they need.*

**Table 4.4a: Contact/ Interaction between C P Team and Respondents**

<b>Contact/Interaction with CP</b>	<b>Zongo Freq(%)</b>	<b>Ofaakor Freq(%)</b>	<b>Krispol city Freq(%)</b>
<b>Have you ever had any contact with CP team</b>			
<b>Yes</b>	4(10.0)	1(2.5)	4(10.0)
<b>No</b>	36(90.0)	39(97.5)	36(90.0)
<b>Total</b>	40(100.0)	40(100.0)	40(100.0)

Source: Field Data, 2015

**Table 4.4b: Nature of contact/interaction with CP team**

<b>If yes, what was the nature of interaction</b>	<b>Zongo Freq(%)</b>	<b>Ofaakor Freq(%)</b>	<b>Krispol city Freq(%)</b>
<b>Friendly</b>	1 (25.0%)	1 (100.0%)	2 (50.0%)
<b>Wasn't peaceful</b>	2 (50.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (25.0%)
<b>Gave s attention</b>	0 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (25.0%)
<b>They were on duty</b>	1 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
<b>Total</b>	4 (100.0%)	1 (100.0%)	4 (100.0%)

Source: Field Data, 2015

Further respondents were asked to assess the activities of CP base on both experiences had with the team or probably through their observation of what the team does or have been

doing in the community. As listed in table 4.5, this assessment was done based on a rating that considers the general performance of CP, the officers' attitude towards the public, their effectiveness towards crime prevention, their trustworthiness and how they engage with the public. In Kasoa Zongo, while 35 percent of the respondents believed the general performance of CP was high, 47.5 percent of same believed their attitude towards the public was low. This perhaps explains why 2 of the 4 respondents who have had contact with CP described the interaction as unpleasant and not peaceful (see table 4.4b), including the 42.5 percent of the respondents who see the engagement between CP and the public to be on the lower side. This notwithstanding, 40.9 percent of the respondents rated CP as being an effective strategy towards crime prevention, even though 57.5 percent of the respondents from Kasoa Zongo did not trust CP to deliver on their promise of ensuring public safety.

**Table 4.5: Assessment of CP Activities within the Neighbourhoods**

Rating of police	Zongo				Ofaakor				Krispol city			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
<b>Performance</b>	15.0	35.0	27.5	22.5	30.0	10.0	37.5	22.5	-	7.5	67.5	25.0
<b>Attitude of</b>	10.0	30.0	47.5	12.5	20.0	12.5	45.0	22.5	-	7.5	67.5	25.0
<b>towards public</b>												
<b>Effectiveness</b>	12.5	40.9	30.0	17.5	20.0	20.0	35.0	25.0	-	5.0	72.5	22.5
<b>Trust</b>	7.5	17.5	57.5	17.5	20.0	15.0	40.0	25.0	-	17.5	65.0	17.5
<b>Engagement with</b>	10.0	30.0	42.5	17.5	20.0	10.0	42.5	27.5	-	10.0	65.0	25.0
<b>public</b>												

1-very high    2-high                    3-low                    4-very low

Source: Field Data, 2015

In variance with the responses discussed, respondents sampled from Ofaakor and Krispol City had different ratings to assess the activities of CP in their neighbourhoods. As evident from the Table 4.5, CP was seen as ineffective machinery towards crime control and prevention, as 35 percent and 72.5 percent respectively of respondents from the two locations rated effectiveness as low. Also, across all the neighbourhood types, CP's

engagement with the public as well as their attitude towards them was generally seen as low as reflected in the ratings given in the Table 4.5.

**Table 4.6: Regularity of CP presence in the community**

<b>Regularity of contact</b>	<b>Zongo Freq (%)</b>	<b>Ofaakor Freq (%)</b>	<b>Krispol city Freq (%)</b>
<b>How often do you see the CP during the day?</b>			
All the time	15(37.5)	3(7.5)	1(2.5)
Sometimes	11(27.5)	8(20.0)	3(7.5)
Never	14(35.0)	29(72.5)	36(90.0)
Total	40(100.0)	40(100.0)	40(100.0)
<b>How often you see the CP during the night?</b>			
All the time	7(17.5)	1(2.5)	2(5.0)
Sometimes	23(57.5)	12(30.0)	5(12.5)
Never	10(25.0)	27(67.5)	33(82.5)
Total	40(100.0)	40(100.0)	40(100.0)

Source: Field Data, 2015

In furtherance to this, the researcher set out to establish the regularity of CP presence in the community. The results are shown in Table 4.6. To achieve this end, the respondents were asked how often they see the CP during the day and night. From the Kasoa Zongo community, 37.5 percent of the respondents said they see the CP all the time during the day while only 17.5 percent said they see the officers during the night. Whereas 27.5 percent and 57.5 percent of the respondents said they sometimes see the CP in the neighbourhood during the day and night, 35 percent and 25 percent said they have never seen the CP either during the day or night.

It was noticed from the middle income and high income (Ofaakor and Krispol City) communities that the frequency of CP's presence is much more lower compared to the high income community. Only 7.5 percent and 2.1 percent of respondents have seen the CP during the day in operation all the time in the respective two communities mentioned as compared to the registered number of 37.5 percent respondents from the low income community (Kasoa Zongo). About 72.5 percent and 67.5 percent of the respondents have never seen the CP operating in Ofaakor either during the day or night, while 90 percent

and 82.5 percent have never seen the CP operating in the Krispol City either during the day or night. This discussion therefore implies, that there is regular contact with CP in the low-income community, that in the middle and high-income communities there is less contact. This may further imply that there may be high rate of crime in these low-income communities that may have occasioned the increased presence and contact with CP.

#### **4.10 Current Security Situation in Research Localities**

As already discussed, edge cities are neither geographically nor conceptually well defined. They encompass both characteristics of the urban and rural world, and they are located somewhere between the urban area and the rural landscape. They have been traditionally approached from an urban planning perspective as grounds for urban sprawl. The dynamic nature of these areas has a significant impact on the area's overall security. To gauge the security conditions in the research locations, the study solicited responses from participants on how they perceive the safety of their respective neighbourhoods, level of fear of crime and risk of victimisation. The results are discussed below.

##### *4.10.1 Perceived Neighbourhood Safety*

The survey gauged respondents' perceived feeling of safety in the various research localities. Table 4.7 presents the results from the survey.

**Table 4.7: CP Effect on Neighbourhood Security and Safety**

<b>Perceived Safety</b>	<b>Neighbourhood</b>	<b>Zongo Freq (%)</b>	<b>Ofaakor Freq(%)</b>	<b>Krispol City Freq(%)</b>
<b>Safe during the day before CP introduction</b>				
Very safe		1(2.5)	10(25.0)	-
Safe		14(35.0)	20(50.0)	5(12.5)
Not safe		22(55.0)	4(10.0)	29(72.5)
Don't know		3(7.5)	6(15.0)	6(15.0)
<b>Safe during the day after CP introduction</b>				
Very safe		8(20.0)	8(20.0)	-
Safe		16(40.0)	25(62.5)	6(15.0)
Not safe		9(22.0)	1(2.5)	30(75.0)
Don't know		7(17.5)	6(25.0)	4(10.0)
<b>Safe during the night before CP introduction</b>				
Very safe		3(7.5)	10(25.0)	1(2.5)
Safe		8(20.0)	16(40.0)	3(7.5)
Not safe		26(65.0)	7(17.5)	29(72.5)
Don't know		3(7.5)	7(17.5)	7(17.5)
<b>Safe during the night after CP introduction</b>				
Very safe		11(27.5)	10(25.0)	2(5.0)
Safe		10(25.0)	18(45.0)	6(15.0)
Not safe		14(35.0)	4(10.0)	28(70.0)
Don't know		5(12.5)	8(20.0)	4(10.0)

Source: Field Data, 2015

From Table 4.7, 22 and 29 respondents did not feel safe during the day before the introduction of CP in Kasoa Zongo and Krispol City respectively and only 4 respondents did not feel safe during the day at the Ofaakor Community. With the inception of the operations of CP, the respondents' perception of a feeling of safety during the day increased considerably, especially for Kasoa Zongo and Ofaakor to 16 percent and 25 percent respectively, but people's perception of safety deteriorated for the respondents drawn from Krispol City as 30 percent of the respondents still did not feel safe even after the introduction of CP.

Investigations into respondents' perception of safety at night revealed that 26 percent, 7 percent and 29 percent of the respondents interviewed in Kasoa Zongo, Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively did not feel safe at night before the introduction of CP. After the introduction of CP, the perception of safety did not change much as 14 percent, 4 percent and 28 percent still did not feel safe at night even after the introduction of CP.

The differences in perception of safety during the day and night may largely be attributed to the high presence of CP within some of the communities, especially the Zongo Community during the day and no presence at all during the night. A respondent from Kasoa Zongo is quoted to have reported that:

*The presence of CP within this neighbourhood brings order and peace to everyone and these young rascals cannot disturb us especially in the day, but when the police leave, everybody begins to shake as they do not always come for night duty.*

This was attested to by the District Police Commander who commented that:

*The police offer patrol services to the various communities during the day because of human resource and capacity issues. We have encouraged the various neighbourhoods to form neighbourhood watch groups and resource them adequately to carry out community watch activities during the night to support the effort of the police thereof.*

#### *4.10.2 Fear of Crime*

Fear may be defined as a feeling of vulnerability, perceived danger and anxiety. In this vein, the survey gauged the level of fear of crime in the various research localities before CP was introduced, as part of strategies for crime prevention as well as the level of fear of

crime after the introduction of CP and its consequent effects on crime and fear of crime.

Table 4.8 presents the results from the survey.

**Table 4.8: Effects of CP on Fear of Crime**

<b>Level of Fear of Crime</b>	<b>Zongo Freq(%)</b>	<b>Ofaakor Freq(%)</b>	<b>Krispol City Freq(%)</b>
<b>Level of fear before CP introduction</b>			
Very high	24(60.0)	3(7.5)	4(10.0)
High	6(15.0)	2(5.0)	7(17.5)
Moderate	3(7.5)	6(15.0)	5(12.5)
Low	4(10.0)	10(25.0)	2(5.0)
Very low	-	15(37.5)	7(17.5)
Don't know	3(7.5)	4(10.0)	15(37.5)
<b>Has introduction of CP reduced fear</b>			
Yes	18(45.0)	7(17.5)	3(7.5)
No	8(20.0)	19(47.5)	14(35.0)
Don't know	14(35.0)	14(35.0)	23(57.5)

Source: Field Data, 2015

Fear of crime refers to the likelihood of a person being a victim of crime and feeling of vulnerability as opposed to the actual probability of being a victim of crime. The concept is generally a response to perception of crime. When there is fear, it increases the probability of sedentary lifestyles and due to socio-environmental factors certain populations are more exposed to that threat than others (Gomez2 010).

In ascertaining the people's level of fear before the introduction of the concept of CP within the municipality, about 24 (60%), 3 (7.5%) and 4 (10%) respondents from Kasoa Zongo, Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively indicated that their level of fear before the introduction of CP was very high. About 3 (7.5%), 6 (15.0%) and 5(12.5%) of the respondents said their level of fear of crime was moderate and 4 (10%), 10 (25%) and 2 (5%) indicated that their level of fear was low in the three neighbourhoods as presented in Table 4.8.

Respondents were further asked if the introduction of CP has reduced their fear. About 18 (45.0%), 7 (17.5%) and 3 (7.5%) answered Yes, another 8 (20.0%), 19 (47.5%) and 14 (35.0%) answered no and finally 14 (35.0%), 14 (35.0%) and 23 (57.5%) indicated that they do not know if the introduction of CP has reduced their level of fear in the three communities respectively as shown in Table 4.8.

#### 4.10.3 Risk of Victimization

Risk of victimisation is an assessment of probability of a person being a victim of crime. To ascertain the likelihood of a resident falling a victim to any form of crime (that is risk of victimisation level), the researcher set out to investigate the levels of criminal activities before the introduction of CP in all the three neighbourhoods. Table 4.9 presents the results of the study.

**Table 4.9: CP effect on Neighbourhood Security and Risk of Victimization**

<b>Risk of Victimization</b>	<b>Zongo Freq(%)</b>	<b>Ofaakor Freq(%)</b>	<b>Krispol city Freq(%)</b>
<b>Levels of criminal activity before CP</b>			
Very high	28(70.0)	3(7.5)	3(7.5)
High	4(10.0)	5(12.5)	6(15.0)
Moderate	-	7(17.5)	8(20.0)
Low	-	4(10.0)	2(5.0)
Very low	5(12.5)	13(32.5)	13(32.5)
Don't know	3(7.5)	8(20.0)	8(20.0)
<b>Has introduction of CP reduced crime</b>			
Yes	22(55.0)	6(15.0)	2(5.0)
No	8(20.0)	14(35.0)	15(57.5)
Don't know	10(25.0)	20(50.0)	38(95.0)
<b>How likely were you to be a victim of crime before CP</b>			
Very likely	12(30.0)	1(2.5)	2(5.0)
Likely	17(42.5)	10(25.0)	3(7.5)
Not likely	10(25.0)	29(72.5)	35(87.5)
<b>How likely are to be a victim of crime after CP</b>			

## introduction

Very likely	12(30.0)	-	1(2.5)
Likely	17(42.5)	6(15.0)	3(7.5)
Not likely	11(27.5)	34(85.0)	36(90.0)

Source: Field Data, 2015

The results revealed that about 28 (70%) of respondents interviewed from Kasoa Zongo indicated that criminal activities in the neighbourhood was very high before the introduction of CP, whereas only 5 (12.5%) respondents said criminal activities in the area was very low prior to CP and 3 respondents representing 7.5 percent did not know what the state of criminal activities was before the inception of CP.

The results received from Ofaakor and Krispol City did not vary much from each other as in both instances only 3 (7.5%) respondents mentioned that crime was very high, 13 (32.5%) said criminal activities were very low and 8 (20.0%) did not know the state of criminality in both communities prior to the introduction of CP. It can be deduced from the account given by the respondents that criminal activities were generally higher in the low-income community (Kasoa Zongo), than in the middle and high-income neighbourhoods. This reveals that there are more opportunities for a motivated offender to translate his or her criminal inclinations into a criminal act in the low income areas than there are in the middle and high income neighbourhoods.

Respondents cited poor housing structure, lack of spatial planning and access routes as well as numerous hideouts for criminals as the enablers of the criminal activities in the low-income communities. The District Police Commander supported this argument when he commented that:

*The biggest problem we have now is planning our neighbourhoods. Where is a policeman going when there are no access routes? Unlike in the advanced countries where all the places and streets are well planned, Ghana and especially*

*Kasoa lacks any good spatial plan. And this makes it very difficult for patrols because even if care is not taken, before you realise it, you have walked your way into somebody's room.*

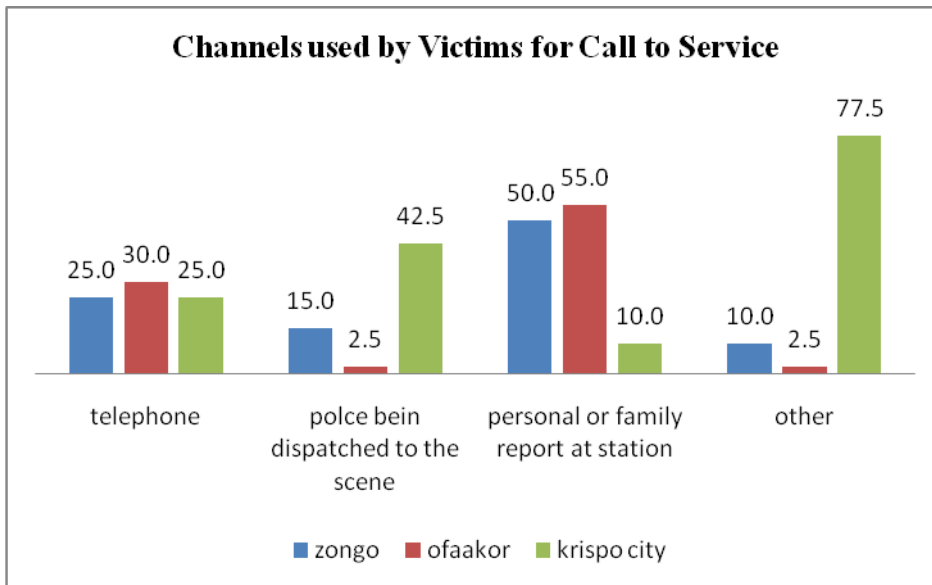
After the introduction of CP about 22 (55%) of respondents felt the level of crime has indeed reduced in Kasoa Zongo, while 20 (50%) and 30 (95%) did not know the effects CP have had on the level of crime in Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively. Also a significant number of respondents felt the introduction of CP has not reduced crime at all as shown in Table 4.9. This was expected because residents in the two upper income communities did not have serious issues with criminal activities as discussed early on.

To conclude this section, answers were solicited to the question relating to the likelihood of respondents being a victim of crime before the introduction of CP. While 30 percent of the respondents claimed they are very likely to be victims of crime in Kasoa Zongo, only 2.5 percent and 5.0 percent of the respondents said they are very likely to be victims of crime in Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively. In addition, about 10 (25%), 29 (72.5%) and 35 (87.5%) of the respondents from Kasoa Zongo, Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively said they were not likely to be victims of crime in the various neighbourhoods before the introduction of CP. The results received concerning the likelihood of respondents being victims of crime, in all the three neighbourhoods after the introduction of CP did not change much as shown in Table 4.9.

#### *4.10.4 Channels of Engagement with CP (Victims)*

In the event of victimisation, respondents were asked how they engage with the CP in terms of call for service. Figure 4.2 presents the results of the enquiry.

**Figure 4.1: Channels used by Victims for call to service**



Source: Field Data, 2015

About 25 percent, 30 percent and 25 percent of the respondents from Kasoa Zongo, Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively said they use the telephone to call for service when they fall victims to any sort of crime. Out of these, calls placed 15 percent, 2.5 percent and 42.5 percent of the respondents from Kasoa Zongo, Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively indicated that police are likely to be dispatched to the crime scene. Some of the respondents or their families also report the matter directly to the police and these numbers stood at 50 percent, 55 percent and 10 percent of the respondents from Kasoa Zongo, Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively.

The choice of respondents from Ofaakor to opt for self-reporting maybe attributed to the fact that their calls for service via the telephone have not yielded any positive feedback. On the other hand, respondents from Krispol City favoured using the telephone to call for service because they received a prompt response to their request. This notwithstanding, the majority of respondents especially from Krispol City (77.5%, high-income community) use other means to prevent themselves from being victims of crime in the first place, and

make them less attractive for a motivated offender (Lersch, 2007). Some of the other means include hiring a private security firm/ man, owning a personal licensed weapon and using electrified wire fencing. Other methods used in the low-income and middle-income include instant justice or lynching and abuse of the rights of a motivated offender (Brenya & Warden, 2014). This is based on the assumption that when a motivated offender is apprehended and sent to the police they will eventually be set free.

#### **4.11 Engagement with Community Policing**

This section of the analysis was mainly aimed at exploring the mechanisms available through which CP engages with the public. Of significant interest was examining the role of neighbourhood watch groups in crime prevention. To arrive at appreciable findings, respondents were asked if they were aware of any crime prevention groups operating within their various neighbourhoods.

**Table 4.10: CP and Public Engagement**

<b>Community Policing and Public engagement</b>	<b>Zongo Freq(%)</b>	<b>Ofaakor Freq(%)</b>	<b>Krispol City Freq (%)</b>
<b>Awareness of Crime prevention groups</b>			
Yes	10(25.0)	7(17.5)	3(7.5)
No	30(75.0)	33(82.5)	37(92.5)
<b>Does your neighbourhood have a crime watchdog committee</b>			
Yes	3(7.5)	6(15.0)	4(10.0)
No	23(57.5)	27(67.5)	31(77.5)
Don't know	14(35.0)	7(17.5)	5(12.5)
<b>Any idea about how they engage with CP</b>			
Yes	2(5.0)	2(5.0)	1(2.5)
No	38(95.0)	34(85.0)	27(67.5)
<b>How will you rate the relationship between the Police and members of this community</b>			
Very cordial	1(2.5)	4(10.0)	-
Cordial	20(50.0)	9(22.5)	7(17.5)
Hostile	10(25.0)	5(12.5)	8(20.0)
Don't Know	9(7.5)	22(40.0)	25(62.5)

Source: Field Data, 2015

Table 4.10 presents the results of study. About 25 percent, 17.5 percent and 7.5 percent of the respondents from Kasoa Zongo, Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively answered yes to the question, whereas 75 percent, 82.5 percent and 92.5 percent of the respondents from Kasoa Zongo, Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively answered no as depicted in the results. Thus from the findings, it can be concluded that the majority of the respondents were not aware of any neighbourhood crime prevention groups. This may be due to the fact that they are either completely absent or they are largely ineffective towards crime prevention.

A chat with the District Police Commander and the Municipal Chief Executive (MCE) in an attempt to answer the puzzle, revealed that the operations of the neighbourhood watch groups were functioning very well about three to four years back. Their operations however have reduced as a result of lack of cooperation and support from the other

community members. The District Police Commander supported his assertion with a fact that:

*Whenever we meet with the people, we encourage them to form groups and strengthen them to support the police in combating crime, because the police have limited human and material resources and cannot be every place all the time. We tell them CP is where experts and opinion leaders in communities come together to identify people who are prepared and willing to police their communities together with the police. This is the most effective way to solve the crime situations in our neighbourhoods.*

The commander further stated that;

*The nature of the relationship between the police and the community makes it difficult for criminals to penetrate because the volunteers make it easy in identifying who and who are strangers within the communities. So when we come together, it makes it easy to identify and apprehend the criminals when something goes wrong. Hitherto, the police will send someone to police the community and it happens that such officers have inadequate knowledge about the environment. So when there is an incident and the perpetrator is running it makes it very difficult for such officers to go after them. But when we have some of the local people on board, such situations could be avoided as they are more abreast with the surrounding.*

To the MCE who is the Chairman of the Municipal Security Council, these groups did not survive because the community did not commensurate the efforts of the Municipal Security Council (MISEC) to combat crime within the municipality. He commented that

*We do our best to put measures in place to beat down criminal activities but the communities do not support us. Imagine a person works in a neighbourhood watch group without any remuneration from the community, that person will soon grow tired and give up, or tend to perpetuate crime himself. We continue to encourage the community to levy the various resident association members 10 Ghana Cedis a month towards neighbourhoods watch activities such as buying torch lights, batteries, rain coats etc. to provide logistical support and a stipend for these local policemen, but they fail to do it.*

Therefore it was not surprising when many of the respondents had no idea as to how the neighbourhood watch groups engages with the CP, because the majority answered No, when they were asked if they had any idea about how CP engages with these local crime prevention groups, details are shown in table 4.10.

#### *4.11.1 Relationship between CP and Community*

To deepen the understanding of the researcher in terms of the engagements of CP, respondents were asked to rate the sort of relationship that exist between CP and the community. From table 5.0, one (2.5%) respondent and four (10%) from Kasoa Zongo and Ofaakor respectively rated this relationship as very cordial, while 20 (50.0%), 9 (22.5%) and 7 (17.5%) rated it as cordial and 10 (25.0%), 5, (12.5%) and 8 (20.0%) rated the existing relationship as hostile in Kasoa Zongo, Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively. The majority of the respondents who did not know the sort of relationship existing between CP and the Community emanated from Ofaakor (40%) and Krispol City (62.5%). This was not surprising because they had fewer interactions and contacts with CP as earlier indicated in table 4.10.

## 4.12 Testing of Study's Hypothesis

### 4.12.1 Test of Hypothesis of Study- CP Performance and Perceived Safety

Table 4.11 looks at the relationship between CP performance measures discussed earlier and the perception of safety by respondents from the various study neighbourhoods. Three performance measures were used and these were effectiveness, trust and engagement with the public. From the three performance measures used, trust was statistically significant at ( $X^2 = 17.849$   $df=9$   $p=0.037<0.05$ ). This indicates that people's perception of safety depends on the trust they have in CP. Similarly, CP's engagement with the public is seen to be significant at ( $X^2 = 21.115$   $df=9$   $p=0.012<0.05$ ). This means that frequent engagement with the public by CP makes people feel safer and in the long run increases their trust in CP.

**Table 4.11: CP Performance and Perceived Safety**

CP Performance Measures	Perceived safety during the night after CP introduction				Total
	Very safe	safe	Not safe	Don't know	
<b>Effectiveness toward crime prevention</b>					
<b>Very high</b>	15.4	53.8	30.8	0.0	100.0
<b>High</b>	26.9	23.1	30.8	19.2	100.0
<b>Low</b>	13.0	24.1	42.6	20.4	100.0
<b>Very low</b>	26.9	26.9	42.3	3.8	100.0
					<b><math>X^2 = 13.074</math> <math>df=9</math> <math>p=0.159&gt;0.05</math></b>
<b>Trust</b>					
<b>Very high</b>	18.2	54.5	27.3	0.0	100.0
<b>High</b>	40.0	25.0	20.0	15.0	100.0
<b>Low</b>	9.4	28.1	45.3	17.2	100.0
<b>Very low</b>	29.2	16.7	41.7	12.5	100.0
					<b><math>X^2 = 17.849</math> <math>df=9</math> <math>p=0.037&lt;0.05</math></b>
<b>Engagement with the public</b>					
<b>Very high</b>	25.0	58.3	16.7	0.0	100.0
<b>High</b>	30.0	35.0	30.0	5.0	100.0
<b>Low</b>	10.2	20.3	45.8	23.7	100.0
<b>Very low</b>	28.6	25.0	39.3	7.1	100.0
					<b><math>X^2 = 21.115</math> <math>df=9</math> <math>p=0.012&lt;0.05</math></b>

Source: Field Data, 2015

Further, only effectiveness was not significantly related with perceived safety ( $X^2 = 13.074$   $df=9$   $p=0.159>0.05$ ). Thus CP's effectiveness towards crime prevention does not determine people's perception of safety, in other words whether CP is effective or not does not determine how safe people feel. This is perhaps the case because performance management is an ambiguous term and its measurements vary significantly at different levels. Therefore a measurement of the effectiveness of the police is best executed at the organisational level and this is not within the purview of the public (Alpert, Flynn & Piquero I, 2001).

#### *4.12.2 Test of Hypothesis of Study - CP Performance and Likelihood of Victimization*

The chi-square test results presented in Table 4.12 relates CP's performance measures with the likelihood of victimization after the introduction of CP. The test results indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between trust and CP's engagement with the public and people's likelihood of victimisation after the introduction of CP. That is, for people to be to feel less vulnerable as likely victims of any criminal activity in their various neighbourhoods there should be high engagement with CP and in addition, CP should be trusted to deliver on their promise of ensuring public safety. Put differently, whether people will say they are likely to be or are victims of crime after CP introduction does not depend on the effectiveness of CP.

**Table 4.12: CP Performance and Likelihood of Victimization**

CP Performance Measures	Likelihood of Victimization after CP introduction			Total
	Very likely	likely	Not likely	
<b>Effectiveness toward crime prevention</b>				
Very high	0.0	15.4	84.6	100.0
High	0.0	28.0	72.0	100.0
Low	0.0	9.4	84.9	100.0
Very low	2.6	16.0	84.0	100.0
<b><math>X^2 = 7.727</math> df=6 p=0.259&gt;0.05</b>				
<b>Trust</b>				
Very high	0.0	18.2	81.8	100.0
High	5.3	10.5	84.2	100.0
Low	3.2	19.0	77.8	100.0
Very low	0.0	8.7	91.3	100.0
<b><math>X^2 = 3.433</math> df=6 p=0.753&gt;0.05</b>				
<b>Engagement with the public</b>				
Very high	0.0	25.0	75.0	100.0
High	5.3	10.5	84.2	100.0
Low	1.7	17.2	81.0	100.0
Very low	3.7	11.1	85.2	100.0
<b><math>X^2 = 21.115</math> df=9 p=0.012&lt;0.05</b>				

Source: Field Data, 2015

However, there was no significant relationship between the effectiveness of CP towards crime prevention and the likelihood of victimisation after the introduction of CP due to prior discussions.

#### 4.13 Conclusion

This chapter focussed on the presentation of the results and the analysis of the findings of the survey. It included details of the results of the field work and these were segmented along the lines of the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. It was further found that CP evolved as a strategy to involve the public in crime identification and prevention. The concept was institutionalised as part of models employed by the Ghana Police Service to identify and fight crime in 2002. The study also covered the analysis of the respondents' interaction and engagement with CP, and results revealed that respondents had minimal to no contact with CP and in most cases these contact or

interactions were unpleasant. Finally, the inception of CP activities has improved the security arrangements in the various neighbourhoods. Respondents from Kasoa Zongo and Ofaakor claimed they felt safer during the day and night with the introduction of CP. In addition, respondents' perceived safety has improved and their fear of crime and risk of victimisation were reduced with the introduction of CP.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

Chapter Five of the study primarily focussed on presenting the results of the study which addresses the study objectives. It gives a blueprint within which to place community policing in relation to crime prevention especially in an edge city such as ASEMA. Attempts were made to juxtapose the findings within the strategic framework of the Ghana Police Service. Based on the analysis and summary of findings, conclusions and inferences were made. The chapter ends with recommendations put forward to inform policy decisions.

#### **5.2 Summary of Findings**

The overarching objective of this study was to examine the effects of Community policing on crime rates and crime prevention in an edge city, specifically the Awutu Senya East Municipality (ASEMA). As part of efforts to achieve the overall objective of the study, the researcher set out to investigate the institutional arrangements governing community policing within the Ghana policing strategy more generally and specifically within crime prevention efforts within ASEMA.

The study further endeavoured to assess the effects the presence of a community police has on community safety, crime reduction and fear of crime with consideration to the features peculiar to edge cities. Attempts were also made to evaluate the mechanisms employed by the community police in engaging the community in crime prevention and the maintenance of public order. In addition to this, other models which are potentially

viable and effective towards crime prevention and ensuring community safety were also analysed.

It was highlighted succinctly from reviewed literature, that the basic unit that breeds crime and disorder in the society is a breakdown in formal and informal community control as well as broad changes in the society. These changes have altered the way people live their lives, that is changes in the routine activities of people have increased the number of suitable targets as people continually work to amass wealth.

Also as people work away from their homes, their property is left without any capable guardian and this seems to be the attraction points for a motivated offender to commit crime (Cohen & Felson, 1979). In a similar vein, Shaw and McKay (1969) adopted the neighbourhood structure to define the characteristics of a socially disorganised society. A socially disorganised community is characterised by the inability of that community to identify with the common values of its residents and maintain effective social controls.

In line with this claim, the research was designed to assess the impact CP on neighbourhood crime, its attendant fear and neighbourhood safety in ASEMA. The establishment of an appreciable context for the research work and further investigation into the gaps in existing research works was done through the review of various empirical and theoretical literatures concerning the subject matter. These included a broad definition of concepts pertaining to urbanisation and the growth of edge cities, the evolution and institutionalisation of community policing within the strategic framework of Ghana Police Service and finally, the current and viable models for crime prevention were explored.

The study was conducted within the Awutu Senya East Municipality and specifically focused on three distinct neighbourhoods which comprise low, middle and high-income communities. The selected neighbourhoods to represent these named categories were

Kasoa Zongo, Ofaakor and Krispol City respectively. These neighbourhoods were sampled using purposive sampling and the selection was also guided by their unique ecological characteristics. In addition, the absence of an appropriate sampling frame to aid in a systemic sampling of households within the neighbourhoods resulted in the utilisation of simple random sampling straight away to sample respondents within the neighbourhoods. The basis for this choice was premised on the fact that there might be some level of homogeneity within the area and therefore a simple random sampling may be near appropriate for sampling respondents.

Questionnaires were administered to the sampled respondents i.e. inhabitants of the three selected neighbourhoods, and this informed quantitative datasets. Also, key informant interviews were conducted with subject matter experts in community policing and this influenced the qualitative dataset. The interviews were done with semi-structured questionnaires.

In the following, some of the study's objectives were restated and the key findings and conclusions reached are presented:

- i. To examine the institutional arrangements governing the evolution of CP in Ghana*

Community policing was found out to have evolved out of a need to solve society's recurring crime issues. It was initiated with the assumption that the police cannot identify and prevent crime alone. They need the collaboration and support of local hands that know their neighbourhoods and know what, how and where crimes are often committed. This was necessary if long lasting and innovative solutions were to be devised specifically for different forms of crime and for different kinds of suitable targets. (Skogan, 1998).

The study also revealed that CP arose throughout the world as a philosophy, but the Ghana Police Service has adopted it as a strategy for crime prevention. Nonetheless, it was also unearthed that the police service has learned from CP best practices from around the world and has tailored CP in Ghana to suit the logistical deficiencies existing in the country. The police service in Ghana are deficient in human and material resource to carry out a full fledged and widely accepted CP of assigning police officers to the various neighbourhoods (beats) to identify and solve crime with the people.

Thus CP in Ghana has been institutionalised in its unique way but suited to operate within the Ghanaian security constraints. CP has been incorporated into the broader police training framework and newly recruited and existing servicemen (senior and junior officers) are mandated to take the course as a requirement for passing out and promotion respectively. The police assumes that this is the best way forward as good and lasting relations and problem oriented policing is every officer's business.

*ii. To assess impact of the presence of community police on community safety, crime reduction and fear of crime*

The nature and the dynamics existing in edge cities make the fight of crime and its evaluation a difficult task, but according to the police and municipal officials, CP has registered some successes in relation to crime prevention since its inception within the municipality. Analysing the effects of community policing was done against the backdrop of five variables. These were: level of crime, fear of crime, risk of victimisation, public perception of CP's general performance and level of public engagement. An analysis was carried out to assess the state of the selected neighbourhoods before the introduction of CP and then after effects of introducing CP. This was necessary because, the upward or

downward changes in the variables that were being studied determined the success or failure of CP.

The results from the study, however, showed significant variations in responses concerning the level of crime in the three neighbourhoods under study. The findings from the lower income community revealed that crime rates were higher in the lower income communities than in the middle and high income communities. Hence the effect of CP activities was much more evident in the low income communities than in the middle and high income communities. With respect to fear of crime, respondents indicated that it was very much higher in the low income communities than in the middle and high income communities, and the introduction of CP reduced the fear in the low income communities.

Similarly the risk of victimisation was very much higher for respondents from the low income communities than for respondents from the middle and high income communities.

The extent of public engagement was carried out in respect of the respondents' awareness of neighbourhood watch groups within their community; the findings concluded that the majority of the respondents were not aware of any neighbourhood crime prevention groups. This may be due to the fact that they are either completely absent or they are largely ineffective towards crime prevention. This assertion was confirmed by the district police commander. He stated that the operations of neighbourhood watch groups have reduced significantly due to lack of support and cooperation from community members. Thus within edge cities, there are more opportunities for a motivated offender to translate his or her criminal inclinations into a criminal act in the low income areas than there are in the middle and high income areas.

### *iii. Some Challenges in Implementing CP Strategies*

The major challenges recorded from interactions with municipal assembly and police officers were centred mainly on lack of human and material resources to carry out the work of CP in ASEMA. The police reiterated that,

*‘CP is expensive and the 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 is killing it slowly’.*

Poor collaboration between local government agencies was also cited as a challenge for CP activities. Furthermore, the community themselves were apathetic in developing strong partnership with the police. 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.

From the summary findings, it may be concluded that, the assessment of CP on five variables, namely level of crime, fear of crime, risk of victimisation, public perception of general CP performance as well as public engagement with CP, showed varying responses from all the three neighbourhoods under consideration.

Though it was generally accepted that CP activities have reduced the prevalence of these named variables across all the neighbourhoods, the effects were very high in the low income communities which appeared to have high levels of criminal activities prior to the introduction of CP. The results concerning the public’s general perception of CP activities in terms of their general performance, attitude of towards public, effectiveness towards crime prevention and trustworthiness were generally found to be low across all the neighbourhoods.

Most of the respondents do not trust the CP to deliver on their promise due to the poor feedback received when they call for service. Thus in order to succeed with CP within the

police service in Ghana, the force should endeavour to learn from the difficulties encountered by others countries that have implemented this strategy and use their successes to our advantage. This could lead to safer futures for the communities and increased effectiveness for the police.

### **5.3 Recommendations for Policy Making**

Based on the research findings, the researcher will make the following recommendations for policy consideration:

- i. The strength in CP lies in the ability to establish long lasting relationships with the residents of a community as they know their community best. The police have to work to build a healthy reputation and trust as well as gain legitimacy in the eyes of the public to foster the establishment of vigorous collaboration between the force and the community especially allied government agencies in matters relating to community policing.
- ii. In order for the police service to achieve its dual bottom line objectives, that is; upholding law and order while respecting the rights of individuals at the same time, community policing must be regarded as an opportunity for the government and the police to attend to the needs of their ‘customers’ in society. Thus servicemen should be oriented to deliver good customer service at all times to ensure customer satisfaction and customer success at all times.
- iii. The education and training needs of community police officers and the entire police force should be based on specialised instruction in community policing and community restructuring at the local level where the breakdown in formal and informal social control are the main source of crime. As already being done, basic training in community policing should be intensified for new recruits and the retraining of existing officers in this new strategy.

- iv. To improve the commitment of the neighbourhood watch groups to service efficiency, the community members must be encouraged to contribute to their welfare through the municipal assembly also that the police training department should consider attaching some level of importance to their work by offering them periodic training sessions in techniques for identifying, solving and reporting crime. Finally, the watch groups may be considered as a media for co-opting new officers into the community policing force, thereby serving as a means of employment generation.
- v. The findings revealed that currently there are two CP desk officers operating in each police district. The limited number of officers automatically transforms the CP role into an administrative role. Thus increasing the number of CP officers who should be considered to ensure they carry out their duties judiciously.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1: Interview Guide

**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON**  
**INSTITUTE OF STATISTICAL, SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC RESEARCH**  
**ISSER**

**Head office & District Police (Officials)**

Good morning /afternoon /evening, I am a student at ISSER; conducting a survey on “**Community Policing and Crime Prevention in Edge Cities: Insights from Awutu Senya East Municipality**”. You would therefore be contributing greatly to the success of this survey if you can set aside sometime to answer the questions here. All responses made shall be kept confidential.

**Evolution of community policing in ASEMA**

1. What does community policing mean to you?
2. When and how did the initiative start?
3. How is the CP team formed?
4. What is the command structure of the CP at the District or Divisional Command/who is in charge

**Mechanisms for engaging the community with CP in crime prevention and the maintenance of public order**

5. How do you engage with the community?
6. What has been the community support?
7. Do you work with specific groups or the general public?
8. What are the overlaps between CP with other community self-help groups?
9. What are the challenges that community police encounter at the community level?
10. What are the prospects for CP at the community level?

**Impact of the presence of community police on community safety, crime reduction and fear of crime**

11. What has been the impact on crime prevention?
12. How has the introduction of CP affected the prevalence of crime and neighbourhood safety?

**Models of community policing effective towards crime prevention and ensuring community safety**

13. What are some of the specific procedures or models employed in crime prevention?
14. With respect to providing support to community policing, the following agencies supportive, neutral and resistant?

	<b>Supportive</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Resistance</b>	<b>Remarks</b>
<b>Chiefs</b>				
<b>Municipal courts</b>				
<b>Fire Departments</b>				
<b>Child welfare</b>				
<b>Housing authorities</b>				
<b>Town &amp; Country Planning</b>				
<b>Health Institutions</b>				
<b>MP and MCE</b>				
<b>Assembly Members</b>				
<b>District Education</b>				



	2.Sales/services <input type="checkbox"/>	7.Agriculture <input type="checkbox"/>
	3.Skilled manual <input type="checkbox"/>	8.Pensioner <input type="checkbox"/>
	4.Unskilled manual <input type="checkbox"/>	9. Other ( <i>Please specify</i> ) <input type="checkbox"/>
	5.Clerical <input type="checkbox"/>	.....
<b>6.</b>	<b>Marital status:</b>	
	1.Single (never married) <input type="checkbox"/>	4.Divorced <input type="checkbox"/>
	2.Consensual/cohabitation <input type="checkbox"/>	5.Separated <input type="checkbox"/>
	3.Married <input type="checkbox"/>	6.Widowed <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>7.</b>	<b>Ethnicity:</b>	
	1.Asante <input type="checkbox"/>	7. Ahanta <input type="checkbox"/>
	2.Fanti <input type="checkbox"/>	8. Ga/Dangme <input type="checkbox"/>
	3.Akuapem <input type="checkbox"/>	9. Ewe <input type="checkbox"/>
	4.Sefwi <input type="checkbox"/>	10. Guan <input type="checkbox"/>
	5.Brong <input type="checkbox"/>	11. Buli <input type="checkbox"/>
	6. Nzema <input type="checkbox"/>	12. Mamprusi <input type="checkbox"/>
		13. Frafra/Gruni <input type="checkbox"/>
		14. Kassen <input type="checkbox"/>
		15. Dagomba/Dagbani <input type="checkbox"/>
		16. Wali/Dagaari <input type="checkbox"/>
		17. Sissala <input type="checkbox"/>
		18. Other ( <i>Please specify</i> ): <input type="checkbox"/>
		.....
<b>8.</b>	<b>Religion:</b>	
	1.Christian <input type="checkbox"/>	3.Traditional <input type="checkbox"/>
	2.Moslem <input type="checkbox"/>	4. Other ( <i>please specify</i> )..... <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>9.</b>	<b>What is your average monthly household income (<i>in Ghana cedis - GH¢</i>)?</b>	
	1. 1 – 500 <input type="checkbox"/>	4. 1,501 – 2,000 <input type="checkbox"/>
	2. 501-1,000 <input type="checkbox"/>	5. 2,001 – 2,500 <input type="checkbox"/>
	3. 1,001 – 1,500 <input type="checkbox"/>	6. Above 2,500 <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>10.</b>	<b>What is your highest level of education completed?</b>	

1. None (No formal education)	<input type="checkbox"/>	5. HND/Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Primary	<input type="checkbox"/>	6. Graduate (Tertiary)	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. JSS/JHS/Middle School	<input type="checkbox"/>	7. Postgraduate	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. SSS/SHS/Vocational/Technical	<input type="checkbox"/>	8. Other ( <i>Please specify</i> ): .....	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Section B: EVOLUTION OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN ASEMA**

11.	<p>Are you aware of the activities of Community Policing in your neighbourhood?</p> <p>1. Yes <input type="checkbox"/>      2. No <input type="checkbox"/></p>																																	
12.	<p>Have you ever had any contact with any Community Police team?</p> <p>1. Yes <input type="checkbox"/>      2. No <input type="checkbox"/></p>																																	
13.	<p>If Yes to Q. 12, describe how the interaction was.</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>																																	
14.	<p>How would assess CP's activities within this neighbourhood</p> <table border="0" style="width: 100%; text-align: center;"> <tr> <td></td> <td>Very High</td> <td>High</td> <td>Low</td> <td>Very Low</td> </tr> </table> <table border="0" style="width: 100%;"> <tr> <td style="width: 30%;">a. Performance</td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>b. Attitud□ towards public</td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>c. Effectiveness towards crime prevention</td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>d. Trust</td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>e. Engagement with public</td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> </table>					Very High	High	Low	Very Low	a. Performance	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	b. Attitud□ towards public	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	c. Effectiveness towards crime prevention	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	d. Trust	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	e. Engagement with public	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
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15.																																		





22.	<b>If yes, how often did you attend these resident meetings held in the past 12 months in your community?</b>							
	1. Every month <input type="checkbox"/>				3. Every six month <input type="checkbox"/>			
2. Every three month <input type="checkbox"/>				4. Every twelve month <input type="checkbox"/>				
23.	<b>How often do you do the following:</b>							
	No.	Statements	1 Once a day	2 About once a week	3 About once a month	4 Several times a year	5 About once a year	6 Never
	1.	Borrowing or exchanging things with neighbours such as food, tools, and other.						
	2.	Asking someone from the neighbourhood over to your house or go to their house for a meal, to play cards, watch TV, or talk, etc.						
	3.	Asking your neighbour for help, (like moving stuff, or taking care of a child, etc.)						
	4.	Going out for an evening with someone from the neighbourhood (to movie, sports events, for a drink, or others)						
	5.	Talking to someone in the neighbourhood about shopping, programmes for kids etc.						



29.	<b>How will you describe the relationship between the police and members of this neighbourhood?</b>		
a. Very Cordial	<input type="checkbox"/>	c. Hostile	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Cordial	<input type="checkbox"/>	d. Don't Know	<input type="checkbox"/>
30.	<b>Examining the role of neighbourhood watch /residents in crime prevention.</b>		
<b>Role of Neighbourhood Watch in Crime Prevention</b>	<b>Very Active</b>	<b>Somewhat Active</b>	<b>Not Active</b>
a. Reporting crime	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Working with the police to solve problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Working with each other to prevent crime	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Reporting suspicious activity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Protecting themselves from crime	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. Participation in problem identification and problem solving efforts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g. Crime prevention programmes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h. Youth-oriented educational and recreational programmes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i. Joining the police department by donating their time as police department volunteers, reserves, or auxiliaries	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
You need a final section on how to improve CP and community engagement			



<b>37.</b>	<b>What was the level of criminal activities in this neighbourhood before CP?</b>		
	1. Very High <input type="checkbox"/>	3. Moderate <input type="checkbox"/>	5. Very Low <input type="checkbox"/>
	2. High <input type="checkbox"/>	4. Low <input type="checkbox"/>	6. Don't Know <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>38.</b>	<b>Has the introduction of CP reduced crime prevalence in this neighbourhood?</b>		
	a. Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	b. No <input type="checkbox"/>	c. Don't Know <input type="checkbox"/>

39. What was the level of fear of crime in this neighbourhood before CP?

- |                                       |  |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| a. Very High <input type="checkbox"/> | d. Low <input type="checkbox"/>        |
| b. High <input type="checkbox"/>      | e. Very low <input type="checkbox"/>   |
| c. Moderate <input type="checkbox"/>  | f. Don't Know <input type="checkbox"/> |

<b>40.</b>	<b>Has the introduction of CP reduced the level of fear in this neighbourhood?</b>		
	a. Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	b. No <input type="checkbox"/>	c. Don't Know <input type="checkbox"/>

41.	<p><b>How likely were you to be a victim <input type="checkbox"/> of <input type="checkbox"/> rime before CP?</b></p> <p>a. Very Likely <input type="checkbox"/>                      b. Likely <input type="checkbox"/>                      c. Not Likely <input type="checkbox"/></p>		
42.	<p><b>If a or b, indicate the type of crime you are likely to be a victim?</b> <i>(Read out responses: multiple responses allowed)</i></p>		
	<b>No.</b>	<b>Type of crime</b>	<b>Tick appropriately</b>
<b>i. <input type="checkbox"/> Household crime</b>			
1.	Theft of car/car hijacking		
2.	Theft from car		
3.	Car vandalism/theft of car parts		
4.	Theft of motorcycle		
5.	Theft of bicycle		
6.	Theft of livestock		
7.	Burglary with entry		
8.	Attempted burglary		
9.	Kidnapping		
10.	Other (specify)		
<b>ii. Crime against the individual</b>			
1.	Drugs peddling/addiction		
2.	Robbery		
3.	Personal theft		
4.	Rape		
5.	Defilement		
6.	Incest		
7.	Prostitution		

	8.	Assault/threat		
	9.	Corruption		
	10.	Other (specify):		

43.	<b>Since its introduction how likely are you to be a victim of crime?</b>			
	a. Very Likely <input type="checkbox"/> b. Likely <input type="checkbox"/> c. Not Likely <input type="checkbox"/>			
	44.	<b>In the event of victimization, how do you engage CP?</b>		
	a. Telephone		<input type="checkbox"/>	
	b. Police being dispatched to the scene		<input type="checkbox"/>	
	c. Personal or family report at station		<input type="checkbox"/>	
	d. Other		<input type="checkbox"/>	
45.	<b>How likely are the CP team availability in the t <input type="checkbox"/> e <input type="checkbox"/> f attack?</b>			
	a. Very Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>	b. Somewhat Likely	<input type="checkbox"/> d. Not Likely at all <input type="checkbox"/>



THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

*Please, kindly provide me with the following details in case I need to come back to you for further clarification.*

Mobile phone number: .....

House No.: .....

Description of residence: .....

Date of interview: .....