EXAMINING THE IMPACT OF THE YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AGENCY (YEA) IN THE FOURTH REPUBLIC: A CASE STUDY OF THE ROLE OF THE GHANAIAN YOUTH TOWARDS COMMUNITY POLICING UNDER THE SIXTH MODULE

BY

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AN MPhil THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE, UNIVERSITY OF GHANA-LEGON IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF A MASTERS DEGREE IN POLITICAL SCIENCE

SEPTEMBER, 2020

DECLARATION

I, Ibrahim Bashiru, humbly declare that I wrote this thesis on my own under the supervision of Prof. Abeeku Essuman-Johnson and Prof. Ransford Edward Gyampo, the Department of Political Science, University of Ghana-Legon. I hereby do state that this work is not a reproduction of somebody's thesis. I have also referenced the sources of all academic materials (books, articles etc) cited in this work.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to Memuna Yamdella (my wife), my supervisors (Prof. Abeeku Essuman-Johnso and Prof. Ransford Edward Gyampo and my MPhil mates for their immense supports and directions throughout the study. Allah bless. Amen!!!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I write to express my sincere gratitude to the Almighty Allah for giving me the strength and understanding needed to write this thesis. I, equally, write to express my sincere gratitude to my wife, my supervisors and friends for their support.

TABLE OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

YEA	the Youth Employment Agency
YCP	the Youth in Cocoa Program
MDAs	ministries, departments and agencies
OECD	the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
BWT	The Broken Windows Theory
CPA	the community protection assistants
CETA	the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act
YEDPA	the 1977 Youth Employment and Demonstration Project Act
YIEPP	the Youth Incentive Entitlement Program Pilot
JAG	the Jobs for America's Graduates
JTPA	the Job Training Partnership Act
CED	the community economic development
YOI	the Youth Opportunities Initiatives
YEI	the Youth Employment Initiative
YG	the Youth Guarantee
YEP	the Young Employment Package
GYT	the German Youth Training
YWS	the Young Workers' Scheme
YTS	the Youth Training Scheme
MYS	the Ministry of Youth and Sports
NYSC	the National Youth Service Corps
COTVET	the Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training
NYEP	the National Youth Employment Program
STEP	the Skills Training and Employment Program
GSDI	the Ghana Skills Development Initiatives
NVTI	the National Vocational Training Institute
UNICEF	the United Nations Children's Fund
UNDP	the United Nations Development Programme
NYPD	the New York Police Department
CCP	the Comprehensive Communities Program

CAPS	the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy
RUC	the Royal Ulster Constabulary
PSNI	the Police Service of Northern Ireland
ICITAP	the International Criminal Investigative Training Assistance Program
CPPA	the Community Protection Personnel Association (s)

Contents

ABSTRACT

Youth unemployment, including its related challenges (e.g., crime), is one of the major challenges facing many countries in the world. Youth unemployment, for example, remains a major challenge in Europe, Asia, Australia, Latin America, North America and, of course, Africa. In response, the government of Ghana established the Youth Employment Agency (YEA) to deal with youth unemployment and its related challenges in 2015. One of the modules which was designed to directly deal with youth unemployment and its related challenges is the 6th module which concerns itself with the "Youth in Community Service and Security Module" [otherwise known as "Community Protection Assistants—CPAs"].

The study was designed to appraise and measure the 6th module—the "Youth in Community Service and Security Module" (otherwise known as "Community Protection Personnel")—against YEA's objectives using the mixed method. The results showed that YEA works to offer the youth with temporary employment and connects them to lifelong employments through its Job Portals and Job Centre. Moreover, interactions with YEA top officials and CPAs showed that YEA provides the CPAs with 'Exit-Fund' at the end of the two-years-stay on the program. Still, a larger proportion (80.6%) of the CPAs believed that they have been able to reduce crime in the communities under study. Equally, a greater proportion of the community-residents who know about the work of the CPAs (i.e., 56% of them) confirmed that there was a reduction of crime in the communities due to the activities of the CPAs. However, low salary and lack of funding have generally destabilized operation as most of them are unable to feed themselves and families well, rent and renew rents and transport themselves to and fro.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0. INTRODUCTION:

Currently, it is generally established (Anyanwu, 2013; Zakaria et. al., 2014) that youth unemployment is, indeed, a global issue. Youth unemployment, for example, exists in Europe (Papadopoulos, 2014; Lewis and Heyes, 2017), North America—Canada (Shaw, 2007), Southeast Asia, the Pacific (Baah-Boateng, 2016), Latin America (Hodge, 1964), and in Africa—Burkina Faso (Calves and Schoumaker, 2004), Zambia (Gough et. al., 2016), Egypt (Murata, 2014) and, of course, Ghana (Baah-Boateng, 2015; Rhoda, 1980). The phenomenon is not only high in West Africa (Gough et. al., 2016), but also, it is a "pressing" issue in Sub-Saharan Africa [SSA] (Hilson and Osei, 2014). Globally, the United Nations [U.N.] (2011), statistically, reported that the proportion (or percentage) of youth unemployment was 12.6% in 2010. In 2011, according to the ILO (2012), there were 74.8 million unemployed youth (aged 15 and 24) in the world. Besides, Baah-Boateng (2015) reported, the proportion of youth unemployment exceeds that of the adults in Ghana. Oppenheimer and Spicer (2011) reported that the rate of youth unemployment is 80% in Ghana. In Ghana, the youth unemployment rate was 14.8% [1992], 16.4% [2000] and, 29% [2009] (ISSER, 2010).

Moreover, the literates (the educated) feel the impacts more than the illiterates (the less/non-educated) in societies (Baah-Boateng, 2016). In Egypt, the illiterates, often, get work to do more than the literates (Murata, 2014). Equally, the same trend has, in fact, been observed and confirmed in Ghana (Baah-Boateng, 2015). In addition, the phenomenon is felt more among the female youth than their male counterparts and, of course, more in the urban centres than the rural centres (Baah-Boateng, 2016). Consequently, youth unemployment is not only "exceedingly complex" (Hilson and Osei, 2014: 85), but triggers serious physiological and psychological sorrows and pains (Mroz and Savage (2006). When the problem of youth

unemployment remains unresolved, it can, in fact, trigger serious social vices and thus, slow economic growth down (Baah-Boateng, 2016; Braimah and King, 2006). Youth unemployment, for example, has resulted in, inter alia, youth-militancy in Nigeria (Wapmuk, 2012), street hawking in Liberia (Munive, 2010), galamsey and gambling in Ghana (Andrews, 2015; Tagoe, 2018), illegal migration in Ghana (Yeboah, (2017; Porter et. al., 2007; Sarfo-Mensah, 2009; Rhoda, 1980), crime (*robbery, rape etc*) and overcrowding in Accra [Ghana] (Bob-Milliar and Obeng-Odoom, 2011), Child-labour in Ghana (Mull and Kirkhorn, 2005) and illegal migration in Congo (Raeymekers, 2011).

Lack of employment opportunities and housing shortages led some Accra-based unemployed youth (the Gas or Ga Shifimo Kpee) to angrily demonstrate against the then CPP government in 1957 (Hodge, 1964). In response to the challenges facing the youth, and given the fact that the youth constitutes the utmost proportion [and potential] of the labour force in almost every state, most intergovernmental organizations and states have initiated various interventions to help alleviate youth unemployment (Sumberg et. al, 2014; Ayura and Ulzen-Appiah, 2016) and its attendant challenges, including, among others, robbery and illegal migration. The 2001 U.N., World Bank, and ILO youth initiative—Youth Employment Network—is a case in point (Munive, 2010).

In Ghana, the CPP responded to the youth's demands by establishing the Brigade in 1957 (Hodge, 1964). Today, the Ghanaian government has formulated and implemented many youth-related programs, such as, inter alia, the Youth Employment Agency [YEA] (*our focus*), the Youth in Cocoa Program (YCP), and the Youth in Agriculture Program, to deal with youth unemployment and its attendant challenges in Ghana. YEA, Avura and Ulzen-Appiah (2016) reported, is, however, the largest (employing 100, 000 youth), of all state-initiatives on youth in Ghana. Began as the National Youth Employment Program (NYEP) in 2005, the 2015 Youth Employment Agency Act (ACT, 887) changed the name from NYEP to YEA "...for the

purpose of the development, coordination, supervision, and the facilitation of employment for the youth and to provide for related matters" in Ghana (YEA, ACT, 887, 2015: 3). Specifically, YEA; under the 2016 Youth Employment Agency Regulations (L.I. 2231); was directed to implement some twelve (12) youth-related program and employment modules, including, inter alia, "the Youth in Community Improvement Programme", the "Youth in Agriculture and Afforestation Module", the "Youth in Sanitation and Coastal Sanitation Module", the "Youth in Trade and Vocations Module", and the "Youth in Community Service and Security Module" [otherwise known as "Community Protection Assistants"] {YPA} (YEAR, L.I. 2231, 2016: 2). It is, however, important to state that, of the twelve (12) youth program and employment modules, the current work seeks to appraise and measure the 6th module—the "Youth in Community Service and Security Module" [otherwise known as "Community Protection Personnel"]—against YEA's objective.

Indeed, the 6th module is considered ***unique*** because it was the only module designed to *directly* address youth unemployment and its related challenges (i.e., crime) in Ghana. The youth who have been recruited under the "Youth in Agriculture and Afforestation Module" are largely into 'farming', those who have been recruited under the "Youth in Trade and Vocations Module" are largely into 'trade', but the ***youth*** under the "Youth in Community Service and Security Module" help to ***fight*** 'crime' in Ghana. This, undoubtedly, makes the 6th module much more ***unique*** than its counterparts in Ghana.

1.1. STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The youth constitutes one of the most important resources needed for economic growth and development (Baah-Boateng, 2016; Hoetu, 2011). In 1990s, much of the "economic development discussions", for example, was based on youth unemployment and its attendant

negative impacts (Fox et. al., 2016). Today, this phenomenon has gained scholarly attention across the disciplines in modern universities.

In North America, scholars, such as Shaw (2007), sought to focus on the nexus between youth employment and the disabled persons. Still, others, such as Selenko (2019), sought to focus on the relationship between NEET ("Being not in employment, education or training") adolescents and apprenticeship programs in Europe. These studies reported that NEET renders adolescents on Youth Guarantee Programs in*effectiv*e. In Africa, Calves and Schoumaker (2004), equally, wrote on youth unemployment, focusing, exclusively, on Burkina Faso. The youth unemployment rate, according to the authors, is high, with many of them falling "outside the paid labor force". The difficulty involved in getting formal jobs drove many youth into private businesses in Chawama, Zambia (Gough et al., 2016).

Also, many have extensively written on this phenomenon in Ghana (Avura and Ulzen-Appiah, 2016; Enu-Kwesi and Asitik, 2012; Hoetu, 2011; Gyampo and Obeng-Odoom, 2013). Indeed, Gyampo and Obeng-Odoom's (2013) work, for example, sought to examine the contribution of Ghanaian youth towards development planning. In the case of Hoetu's (2011) work, however, it sought to examine how the interest of the youth could be taken seriously in government ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) in Ghana. Enu-Kwesi and Asitik (2012) looked at the interconnections between "unemployment situation and youth enterprise" under the Ajumako-Enyan-Essiam District (AEED) of the Central Region, Ghana. Most scholars have equally examined the contribution of community policing [mostly involving the national police and the youth] towards addressing crime [largely resulting from youth unemployment] in **Europe** (Reiner, 1992; Zedner, 2006; Martin, 2006), **the U.S.** (Chesluk, 2004; Tyler, et al; 2010; Rukus et al, 2018) and **Africa** (Brogden, 2004; Baker, 2002; Hills, 2012). Undoubtedly, most of these studies are either too general (Avura and Ulzen-Appiah, 2016; Hoetu, 2011) or off-mark (Enu-Kwesi and Asitik, 2012; Hoetu, 2011; Gyampo and

Obeng-Odoom, 2013; Gough et al., 2016; Shaw, 2007; Reiner, 1992; Zedner, 2006; Martin, 2006; Chesluk, 2004; Tyler, et al; 2010; Rukus et al, 2018) when applied to the Ghanaian youth under YEA's 6th module. The situation of YEA's trained-employees under that module, both before and after recruitment, has not been dealt with in the above studies.

Besides, the agency has suffered some major setbacks since its inception in 2005. It has, for example, lost a significant proportion of its trained-employees, causing severe financial lost to the Republic of Ghana. How, then, can these setbacks be explained? It is believed that lack of information undermines the ability of YEA to adopt the necessary measures to reverse the emerging trend. This study, therefore, seeks to review and examine the activities of YEA under the 6th module, focusing, in particular, on the achievements, challenges and the way forward.

1.2. JUSTIFICATION FOR CHOICE OF ACCRA AS THE SITE OF THE STUDY

This research sets out to appraise and review YEA's 6th module—that is, the Community Protection Personnel. Under this module, YEA recruits and trains some youth (aged 18-35) to assist the national security service in intelligence gathering, patrol, traffic regulation, community protection, among others. These personnel, mostly, live and work in areas in which they were born and bred. Thus, to reiterate, the 6th module was developed, as part of efforts, to, among others, reduce the youth unemployment rate, regulate traffic, and fight crime in *those* communities. On the strength of this, Accra was chosen, as the site of the study, for the following reasons.

It was observed that Accra has been attracting multi-ethnic migrants over the past decades (Getis, 2015; Owusu and Agyei-Mensah, 2011; Geest, et al., 2010, Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008), making it more heterogeneous than the remaining cities in Ghana (Agyei-Mensah1 and Owusu, 2010). In effect, in terms of population, Accra has the largest "urban

population" (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2002) and thus, represents the "largest metropolis" in Ghana (Owusu, 2013; Agyei-Mensah and Owusu, 2010). The city's population has been exploding following its declaration as the capital in 1877 (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 1998). The population of Accra, for example, was 16, 000 in 1891 and over 1 million in 1990s (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2003). Thus, one of "the melting pots of Ghana's population" is Accra (Owusu and Agyei-Mensah, 2011: 342). Thirdly, it has the "highest" crime rate in Ghana (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2002), making it unsafe for residents, both foreigners and indigenes (Owusu, 2016). Fourthly, the city is choked with vehicular and pedestrian traffic daily (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2003). Finally, the unemployment rate, in such urban areas, is more than the rural areas (Baah-Boateng, 2016).

The same evidence unfolds, even, as we zoom into the Accra Metropolitan area, the Ayawaso East Municipal and Ayawaso Central Municipal. James Town (which is under the Accra Metropolitan area), for example, "marks the origin of the city of Accra" (Owusu and Agyei-Mensah, 2011:346). Also, some major migrant-residential areas, under the Accra Metropolitan area, include Kokomelemele (Harvfy and Brayd, 1974) and Sabon Zongo (Agyei-Mensah1 and Owusu, 2010). In Accra, other major migrant-residential areas include Nima (ibid) [under the Ayawaso East Municipal District] and Accra New Town (Harvfy and Brayd, 1974) [under the Ayawaso Central Municipal District]. Mostly, these migrants live in overcrowded-slums [e.g, Nima (Owusu, 2016)] in Accra (Tutu, 2013).

Then again, Owusu and Oteng-Ababio (2015) opined that the more the city began to urbanize, the more **crime** began to multiply. For example, some of the areas with a high rate of crime, under the Accra Metropolitan area, include Mataheko (Adu-Mireku, 2002), Dansoman (Brookman-Amissah, 2014) and the Airport Residential area (Wrigley-Asante, 2016). Multiple incidents of crime, under the Ayawaso East Municipal District—have also been reported in Nima (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2003; Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2007).

It is important to state that YEA, under the 6th module, was established and mandated to 'ruthlessly' deal with the situation we painted above, which is why the Districts serve as some of the best places for the study. The foregoing extract, in other words, provides the grounds on which to storm the selected Districts. Here, we will appreciate the work of YEA and the community protection personnel more than any other area.

1.3. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES:

The research seeks to achieve the following objectives:

1. To examine the factors that trigger employment insecurity and their effects on the well-being of YEA's employees under the 6th Module.
2. To assess the extent to which the module makes the youth secure and allows them to ascend the ladder up into life-long jobs.
3. To examine the impact of community policy assistants and explore the measures that can be put in place to enhance the effectiveness of the Community Protection Personnel under the 6th module.

1.4.THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY:

1. The findings of this study should contribute to enrich the body of literature in the area under study
2. The findings of this study will enhance YEA's policies on youth unemployment in Ghana

1.4. THE ORGANIZATION OF THE WORK:

Chapter One: Chapter one will constitute the introduction of this study, the statement of the research problem, the research objectives and the significance of the study.

Chapter Two: This chapter constitutes the literature review on youth employment in Europe, North America, Latin America, Asia, and Africa. It will examine the contending debates in the area as well as youth unemployment policies globally. The chapter is also made of a review on community policy, the successes of community policing and the challenges of community policing.

Chapter Three: This chapter is made up of the theoretical framework of the study.

Chapter Four: This chapter constitutes the methodology for the study.

Chapter Five: Chapter Five constitutes the data analysis. The chapter, in other words, analyses the impacts (achievements) and challenges of YEA based on the views of respondents.

Chapter Six: This chapter constitutes the research findings and discussion.

Chapter Seven: Chapter Seven is made up of summary of findings, conclusion and recommendations. Finally, the student will add the interview discussion guide, the questionnaire, the bibliography, together with other field materials (if any) at the tail end of the thesis.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. STUDIES ON THE CIRCUMSTANCES SURROUNDING YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT IN NORTH AMERICA, EUROPE, AND AFRICA

2.2. INTRODUCTION:

This section intends to review the literature on the circumstances surrounding the youths and youth programs in North America, Europe and Africa. The review intends to understand and define the *youth unemployment problem* and examine the various efforts that have been put in place to counter it across the world. To do this, it will begin with *North America*, work its way through *Europe* and, down to *Africa*.

2.3. NORTH AMERICA: THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA (U.S.A) AND CANADA

THE CASE OF THE U.S.A:

*Beginnin*g in 1950s, the rate of teenage unemployment has been on the rise in the U.S. (Bresnick, 1984; Levin, 1983), hitting 11% in 1955 (Levin, 1983) and almost 20% in 1975 (Bresnick, 1984). Increasingly, the unemployment rate among the black youth, according to the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1994), hit 39% in 1993 (Kaestner, 1996). The evidence, however, shows that the illiterates and the black-youths often suffer more than the literates and the white youths (Raphael, 1998; Levin, 1983). In effect, Rees (1986: 613) lamented, "The high unemployment rate of American youth, especially of black youth, has been a source of deep concern for many years". Besides, in late-1980s, Kolberg (1987: 95) reported that "*Current data on American youth, and predictions based on that data, tell a story of impending crisis and profound economic and social costs. Each year, about 700,000 high school students*

drop out. Another 300,000 are constant truants". Furthermore, "*the involvement of the young in crime has been increasing over the last several decades. The homicide rate for nonwhite teens rose by 16 percent between 1950 and 1978, while for white teenagers the rate jumped by 232 percent"*. Still, "*millions of children, our next generation, are being raised in poverty. The sad fact is that the number of children growing up in poverty has been increasing in this country, up from 16.8 percent in 1975 to 21.0 percent in 1985*" (ibid: 96). Consequently, Gilmore, (2009: 321) observed that "Young people in the United States are on the verge of losing the economic advantages gained by their parents"

In response, the U.S. adopted various measures to address the youth unemployment problem. Haisch (1964: 182), for example, traced these efforts back to the 1800s, reporting that "*The first labor laws passed in the United States involved child labor, and they grew out of a concern over the lack of education of young workers. Connecticut in 1813 passed a law requiring mill owners to provide for the teaching of the three R's to their child employees. This was followed by a law in 1836 in Massachusetts which required that all children under 15 working in factories attend school three months of the year*". Moreover, the U.S. passed the Economic Opportunity Act under its War on Poverty in 1964 (Levin, 1983). It moved academics and "training supervisors" to upgrade the skills of citizens in U.S. (ibid). Bresnick (1984: 26), for example, reported that "*During the 1960s..., labor and business generally supported the expansion of the Manpower Development and Training Act.... the Department of Labor was delegated responsibility for the Neighborhood Youth Corps work experience program. The problem of coordinating this diverse group of programs led to the adoption of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA).... Under the new approach CETA once more attempted to expand the role of the private sector in the training of youth*". Others such as Braverman (1981) further itemized some of the youth-programs that were implemented during this period (i.e., the 1960s), including, among others, the Neigborhood

Youth Corps, the Job Corps, and the work-study programs. These programs, he asserted, were designed to enhance the prospects of the youth in the job market.

Furthermore, the passage of the 1977 Youth Employment and Demonstration Project Act (YEDPA) led to the initiation of the Youth Incentive Entitlement Program Pilot (YIEPP) between 1978 and 1980 (Farkas, et al., 1983). To implement YIEPP, the authorities sampled and interviewed as much as 130,000 households in order to find out "the presence of program-eligible youths" in the designated "local markets", including, inter alia, Cincinnati, Denver and Baltimore. Under YIEPP, the youth were "*offered a minimum- wage job, part-time during the school year and full-time during the summer, to 16-19-year-olds from low-income households who had not as yet graduated from high school, and who were enrolled in school and making satisfactory progress toward a degree. School dropouts were prohibited from entering YIEPP employment, as the aim of the program was to increase youth employment while requiring school enrolment*" (ibid, 558). Indeed, "the program succeeded at its primary operational goal—to increase dramatically the joint school/employment experience of the target population" (ibid, 565). In 1978, Levin and Ferman (1986) reported, YEDPA trained ("on-the-job training and practical arithmetic") as much as 450, 000 youths (more than 80% from low-income homes) and assisted them to get jobs. These studies allow us to examine the implementation procedures and the successes under YEA's sixth module. Strictly, the current study seeks to examine (a) the mode of YEA's training, (b) YEA's assistance to acquire new jobs after exits and (c) the income levels (low, medium and high) of the family members of YEA recruits.

In 1979, one of the major youth employment programs—the Jobs for America's Graduates (JAG)—was launched in Delaware. Today, this program; first initiated with the help of the International Manpower Development Group, Ltd and the then Governor (Pierre S. du Pont);

has not only been expanded, but remains active in Massachusetts, Tennessee, Arizona and Missouri. The program has been described as "a joint public-private venture" with the aim to providing students with "job-finding" and "job-keeping" skills. To JAG, a collective force; involving the private sector (business), education and the government; is needed to tackle the youth unemployment problem in U.S. The impact assessment shows that JAG was a "highly successful…youth employment program" (Wichess (1984: 197). Furthermore, Lawson and McNally (1995) reported about some impressive youth-programs under the Berkeley Youth Alternatives (BYA)—a non-profit organization—in Berkeley, California. The BYA has, through these programs, provided the youths with skills and employment and thus, raise the economic-status of these youths.

Moreover, in 1982, the government passed the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) to create the "framework on job training" in U.S. (Kolberg, 1987). This Act required the private industry councils (PICs)—made up of, among others, personnel from trade unions, community-based organizations, education, and business—to craft policies to regulate job-training programs. The focus of PICs, for example, was to upgrade the skills of the youth in order to make them relevant to the job market under the JTPA (ibid). Again, the U.S. sought to establish the "youth sub-minimum wage" (largely, this benefited the employee) and "tax credits" for employment and training (this benefited the employer) (Kaestner, 1996). Still, "the federal government allowed the real value of the minimum wage to erode throughout the 1980s. The economic justification for these compensation-based policies is straight forward: a reduction in the employer's labor cost will lead to an increased demand for young workers" (ibid, 122). The focus, then, is to examine issues on public-private partnerships (PPP), tax credits/holidays (for private employers of YEA security personnel) and youth minimum wage (for the youth employees) under YEA sixth module.

Also, in 1990s, U.S. policymakers, according to Williams (2004), sought to push the youth towards self-employment in order to (1) reduce poverty among the youth and (2) propel economic growth in the U.S. Gilmore (2009), for example, reported that the advocates of community economic development (CED) have, through the Youth Entrepreneurship Initiative, sought to create "community-based small businesses" so as to upgrade the economic-status of the youths in Baltimore. These efforts were, thus, intended to push the youths, particularly, those with low education and less skills, to set up their own businesses in U.S. (ibid). Consequently, the current study seeks to examine the extent to which YEA sixth module pushes the Ghanaian youth towards self-employment in Ghana.

THE CASE OF CANADA:

The youth unemployment problem, according to Gaetz (2018), exists not only in the U.S., but in Canada, as well. In Canada, the youth unemployment problem originated in the 1970s following the Baby Boom generation (Foot and Li, 1986) and worsened during the 1970s and 80s (Weiermair, 1986). But then, Canadian policymakers began to recognize youth unemployment as a 'problem' in 1984 (Foot and Li, 1986). Recently, Bridgman (2001), for example, pointed to widespread youth-homelessness in Toronto. Furthermore, in early-2000s, it was observed that "youth unemployment rates are slightly over twice the adult rate" (Gunderson et al, 2000: 97), propelling the rates of youth-poverty, together with its attendant challenges, high (Bridgman, 2001).

The youth unemployment problem, as we noticed previously, caught the attention of Canadian policymakers in 1984, leading "all three major political parties" to declare actions (in their manifestoes) against it in that year (Foot and Li, 1986). By mid-1980s, scholars such as Weiermair (1986) began to advise that policymakers need to develop sound policies to address the youth unemployment problem in Canada. To Foot and Li (1986), however, "The youths of

yesterday and today are the young adults of today and tomorrow, and as the Baby Boom generation ages the youth unemployment problem is rapidly being converted into an unemployment problem for young adults" (ibid: 505). Now, Gaetz (2018) reported, the Canadian government has intensified efforts to uproot homelessness following its interactions with the international communities (*with Australia and Europe—through the European Observatory on Homelessness and FEANTSA*) and policy initiatives. Matthew and Webb (2016: 427), for example, examined the effectiveness of the Youth Hires—a Canadian Program launched to eradicate youth unemployment temporary—and reported that it has "increased employment rates by 3.5 percent to 4.4 percent" in Canada. Thus, the current study seeks to investigate the extent to which the sixth module works to resolve the future unemployment challenges of the youth of today.

Eva's Initiatives ("an organization serving homeless youth in Toronto") launched one of the major projects—Eva's Phoenix—to address the youth unemployment problem in Toronto, Canada (Bridgman, 2001). This project was initiated to relieve homeless youth by providing them with "housing and employment-training opportunities". One of the managers of the project, for example, attested that "The kids are getting jobs. The construction industry is getting the badly needed workers to replace our aging workforce" (ibid: 789). Bridgman (2001), however, warned that the inability of the initiators to resolve "different values and expectations", consult the youth and facilitate their (the youth) participation may land the project on rocks. Bridgman's (2001) work highlighted some key issues (consultation and participation) that require a thorough investigation to boost the current research. But while the focus of Bridgman (2001) was on youth programs in Canada, the focus of the current work is on youth programs in Ghana.

2.4.EUROPE:

The youths in Europe, like those in North America, have been struggling with the issue of unemployment. Banducci's (1984) account, for example, showed that the youth in Spain and Italy struggled with it in 1980. In late-1990s, Roberts et al (1999) reported that the rate of youth unemployment was 30% in East-Central Europe—Slovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria and Poland. In 1980, the youth unemployment rate was 14% in U.K., 4% in Germany and 15% in France (Hart, 1986). "This year", the author asserted "it is expected by OECD that these rates will be 21 per cent in this country, 31 per cent in France and 9 per cent in Germany" (ibid: 43). By mid-2000s, Aassve (2006) reported that "Across the European Union youth poverty varies greatly, being higher in Southern European countries, as well as in the 'liberal' regimes of the UK and Ireland". Consequently, in France, it has been observed, "increases in youth unemployment induce increases in crime" (Fougere, 2009: 909).

But, O'Reilly et al (2015: 1) remarked that "Current levels of youth unemployment need to be understood…" and "European-wide policies and investments have significantly increased with attempts to support national policies". The E.U., for example, put in place some measures to counter the youth unemployment problem, including, among others, the Europe 2020 Strategy, the Youth Opportunities Initiatives (YOI), the Youth Employment Initiative (YEI), the Youth Guarantee (YG), the Traineeships and Apprenticeships programs and the Young Employment Package (YEP) (ibid). France, Denmark and Germany have, for example, attempted to reform their educational systems, including, among others, enhancing the relationship between schools, on the one hand, and business, community and trade unions, on the other hand. Also, some pre-apprenticeship programs have been introduced in schools in Ireland, France and Denmark. Sweden provides "guidance and counselling" services to the youth, as well (Banducci, 1984; Bruce, 1982). Also, Bell and Blanchflower (2011: 257) reported, the duration of formal education has been elongated in most of these countries as "a defensive strategy, with

enrolment increasing when the labour market deteriorates. For example, in 2010, applications to UK universities increased by 22 per cent over the previous year, reflecting the fall in employment opportunities". Surely, the focus of the current study is to find out if the sixth module provides "guidance and counselling" services.

Steedman (1993) has, equally, reported about the German Youth Training (GYT, otherwise known as the Dual System) in Germany. Not only do the youths yearn, in their numbers, to get enrolled on the GYT program, but, according to the author, employers have demonstrated a high level of interest in GYT trainees. This is due to the [positive] credibility-level that has been attached to the training system (ibid). Hart (1986), Crisp and Powell (2017) have, equally, pointed to the Young Workers' Scheme (YWS), the Youth Training Scheme (YTS), the £680 million Future Jobs Fund, the Youth Opportunities Fund and the Youth Capital Fund in the U.K. YTS, according to Hart (1986), enrols as much as 350, 000 youths while YWS enrols as much as 54 000 youths. Even though, according to Hart (1986: 44), "It can be seen that special training measures for young people in Great Britain have been in operation on a large scale at least since 1981", Crisp and Powell (2017: 1803), however, reported that "the flawed and increasingly narrow policy concept of employability has been shown to be all pervasive in contemporary policy responses to youth unemployment in the UK". The above studies, thus, allow us to investigate and examine the credibility level of YEA's 'training' under the sixth module.

2.5. AFRICA:

The youth, according to Mugabi-Mugambwa (1996), constitutes more than 60% of the population of Africa. The records, however, showed that the youth have been rendered unemployed in Somalia (Ali, 2014), Kenya (Ojwang, 2017), Ethiopia (Dendir, 2006), South Africa (Haldenwang, 1994), Nigeria (Okedara, 1971), and in Botswana (Malema, 2014). Ali

(2014), citing the 2012 UNDP Human Development report, indicated that the proportion of the unemployed youth constitutes 67 % in Somalia. In 1992, the youth (age 15-29) unemployment rate was 43.3% in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso (Calves and Schoumaker, 2004). Ethiopia has declined to award "automatic employment" to university graduates (Dendir, 2006). Many often describe the South African youth as the "lost generation". In 1992, for example, the youth unemployment rate was 52% (Haldenwang, 1994) and "commercial sexual exploitation" has been on the rise in that country (Snell, 2003). Moreover, in Malema's (2014) view, unemployment is a "serious problem" in Botswana. In Zambia, Gough (2016: 354) lamented, "Poor chances of ever obtaining a permanent formal job are part of the reality for youth in Chawama".

In Ghana, the youth (age 15-24) constituted 21% of the nation's population in 1984 and 20% in 2000. The absolute figures, however, showed that the population of the youth has been on the increase, moving from 2, 302, 391 *in 1984* up to 3, 484, 574 *in 2000* (Braimah and King, 2006). Sadly, many have attributed the nation's [high] unemployment rates to increase in the size of the labour force, inadequate "labour-market experience", inadequate "job-search experience", and a sluggish economic growth (Baah-Boateng, 2013; Andrews, 2015; Baah-Boateng, 2015). In early-2000s, Bosompem (2013), for example, reported that unemployment among the youth (age 18-35) constituted 45% in Ghana. This has, unfortunately, pushed many of them to move *either* into illegal mining [galamsey] (Andrews, 2015; Tagoe et al, 2018) *or* across local and national borders [migration] (Rhoda, 1980). In Ghana, however, the mining areas have failed to absorb these youths, leading to high unemployment rates in these areas (Sarfo-Mensah et al, 2009). In effect, Burton (2006: 363) opined, "MASS unemployment has been an important and enduring feature of post-colonial urban Africa".

Most states have, however, initiated some actions against the youth unemployment problem on the African continent. In 2010, Malawi, for example, launched the Youth Enterprise Development Fund (YEDF) with the aim to resolving the youth unemployment problem in that country. Indeed, "*When it was introduced in 2010, YEDF targeted young people between 18 and 30 years of age but eligibility was then extended to 35. According to its guidelines, the fund caters for out-of-school youth, both skilled and unskilled who are expected to engage in various trades such as agricultural production, construction, carpentry and joinery, panel beating, welding, metal fabrication and woodwork. The fund is implemented by MARDEF, the Ministry of Youth and Sports (MYS) and district YEDF committees and is characterized as 'a key development agenda for young people in Malawi…"* (Sumberg et al, 2014: 13). In 2007, Ethiopia launched the UNICEF-assisted Youth Development Program (2007-11) with the aim to providing the youth with, among others, (1) credit to either start or expand existing businesses, (2) "life skills", (3) "livelihood development", (4) "behaviour change" and (5) "peer education". Still, Sumberg et al (2014: 13) remarked, "The main indicators of success were growth of self-employment and formal/informal employment opportunities and increased participation of young people in the economic, social and political transformation of the country". Consequently, an investigation of *age-and-financial* issues will go a long way to boost the current research. Does the YEA sixth module, for example, extend some "special credit" to the beneficiaries after exit? Still, the current work will examine the proportion that is interested in (a) setting up their own business, (b) looking for government works and (c) getting other security jobs with private companies after exit.

Nigeria, in the past, was reluctant to adopt youth programs to resolve unemployment among the youth. The initiation of the Youth Employment Program, however, showed the federal government's readiness to tackle it in Nigeria. In 1973, for example, the government launched the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC), as part of efforts, to "enhance high-level manpower

mobility" and induce "employers…to employ more readily qualified Nigerians irrespective of their states of origin" (Ojo, 1980: 52). Besides, in Senegal, including other Sub-Saharan Africa countries, the rate of youth unemployment has pushed female youths to move into dressmaking and hairdressing businesses (Langevang and Gough, 2012). Furthermore, in Kenya, the government set up the Youth Fund, the Youth Enterprise Development Fund and the Uwezo Fund to support and boost youth development-oriented activities. One of these is the government's willingness to open up, support and facilitate the activities of FM stations, including the Koch FM Radio based in Korogocho slums. This FM station (Koch FM) works to provide the youth with education, leadership skills and, of course, employment opportunities in Kenya (Ojwang, 2017). In mid-1960s, governments, according to Hodge (1964), have formulated and implemented various programs to provide the youth with "vocational training and employment" in Tanganyika. These studies, thus, enhance our understanding on the various efforts to tackle the youth unemployment problem in Africa.

In Ghana, lack of employment prompted some disgruntled youth (The Ga Shifimo Kpee) to demonstrate against the Nkrumah-led government in 1957. Indeed, not only was "The response of the Ghana Government to this deteriorating position…quick" and "A White Paper on a National Workers Brigade was published in August 1957…" but the Brigade achieved "rapid expansion" (Hodge, 1964: 115). The Brigade, for example, enrolled roughly 25, 000 beneficiaries by 1966 (Ahlman, 2012). The Brigade, through its training programs, "provided new avenues for political and social mobility…. Through the types of work they engaged in and regular access to money, Brigade life also offered them alternative paths to male and female respectability in their communities" (ibid: 88). These studies allow us to investigate the expansion rate of YEA's sixth module under the current study. To do this, the study will be interested in looking at its 'expansions' rate, that is, both in terms of its annual admissions and training programs. Also, the current study will examine how the sixth module facilitates the

"political and social mobility" of the youth in Ghana. However, while the above studies focused on the Brigade under the 1st republic, the current study focuses on YEA's sixth module (youth security) under the 4th republic.

Furthermore, governments and some private organizations have launched several youth policies and programs in Ghana. In all, Avura and Ulzen-Appiah (2016) identified about forty (40) youth programs, eighteen (18) in the public sector and twenty two (22) in the private sector. For example, many often point to the National Youth Policy (2010), the GNPC and Oil and Gas Training, Tullow's Scholarship and Training Programs, the National Youth Policy Implementation Plan (2014), the National Employment Policy (2015), the National Youth Employment Program [NYEP] (2006), the Youth in Agriculture Program [YIAP] (2009), the Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training [COTVET] (2006), the Skills Training and Employment Program (STEP), the National Apprenticeship Program (NAP), and the Ghana Skills Development Initiatives [GSDI] (Avura and Ulzen-Appiah, 2016; Sumberg et al, 2014; Ranford, 2014; Debrah, 2007). But then, "*In 2012, the National Youth Employment Program was restructured into the Ghana Youth Employment and Entrepreneurial Development Agency, which was then restructured into the Youth Employment Agency (YEA) under Act 887 in 2015* ***to empower young people to contribute meaningfully to the sustainable socioeconomic development of Ghana***. *The YEA is but 1 of 17 public sector initiatives related to youth employment, albeit the largest in terms of youth coverage*" (Avura and Ulzen-Appiah, 2016: 6). Equally, Gyampo (2012) opined that though the formulation of the National Youth Employment Program (NYEP) excluded the youths, they were supposed to get involved in its implementation. In all, Avura and Ulzen-Appiah (2016) asserted, "The goal…is to create decent, gainful employment opportunities so the growing labor force can improve their living conditions and contribute to economic growth and national development within the framework of equity, fairness, security, and dignity" (ibid: 6).

In Palmer's (2009) view, NAP was launched following the increasing levels of graduate unemployment in Ghana. In 2007, the government inaugurated the National Apprenticeship Board (NATB) and COTVET to oversee the implementation of NAP. It seeks to recruit JHS graduates and provide them with [one-year] apprenticeship skills. The state, however, needs to build NAP based on the mistakes of the past (ibid). In most instances, Rhoda (1980) asserted, the females learn weaving and hairdressing while the males learn fitting and construction under apprenticeship programs. In addition, the state, according to Debrah (2007), sought to provide the youths (including students) with the necessary skills to undertake "carpentry and joinery", "refrigeration and air conditioning", "building and construction", "dressmaking, tailoring and hairdressing" and "electrical repairs and metalwork" under STEP. Institutions, such as the National Vocational Training Institute (NVTI), have helped to train, inter alia, wielders, designers, auto mechanics and caterers in Ghana (Asunsung, 2013). The above studies differ from the current study because while they sought to focus on 'apprenticeships', the current study seeks to focus on 'security'.

2.6.THE CHALLENGES SURROUNDING THE YOUTH AND YOUTH EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMS IN NORTH AMERICA, EUROPE AND AFRICA

2.7. INTRODUCTION:

This sub-section will examine the following issues (a) Lack of Skills and Labour-Markets (b) Poor Managements and Exclusions (c) Immigrations and Economic Declines (d) Shrinking Resources and Youth-Adult Unemployment and (d) Population Explosions, Regionalism and Gender Discriminations. The sub-section will, thus, examine the above points one after the other in the up-coming pages.

Lack of Skills and Labour-Markets: Generally, the youths lack the requisite skills needed to meet the specifications of the labour markets. Bell and Blanchflower (2011: 259), for example,

remarked that "The changing structure of labour demand may also be adversely affecting young people's labour-market prospects…. Technical change increases the skill requirements of production, leaving the unskilled, and particularly the young unskilled, at a significant disadvantage in the labour market". In effect, employers do not want to engage these young ones because of lack of skills and experiences (Lange et al, 2013). In Ghana, for example, education, according to Asafu-Adjaye (2012), enhances the prospects of employees in the labour market. Unfortunately, the Ghanaian educational system is unable to train the youth to meet local and international standards (Panford, 2014), leading to widespread "no employable (i.e. clerical, technical or artisanal) skills" in Ghana (Debrah, 2007). Thus, on the one hand, while Ghana's educational system is unable to upgrade skills (Panford, 2014), its "economy", on the other hand, "is not expanding fast enough to provide decent jobs (i.e. relatively well paid jobs, with reasonable levels of income and job security) especially for the growing youth" (Braimah and King, 2006: 25). Equally, in early-1980s, Ojo (1980) observed that the youths lack "employment opportunities" in Nigeria. These studies, thus, allow us to explore the available opportunities for YEA recruits after exit.

Poor Managements and Exclusions: The evidence showed that youth employment programs have been mismanaged worldwide. In Ethiopia, in the case of the UNICEF-assisted Youth Development Program (2007-11), for example, Sumberg et al (2014: 13) lamented that "the programme suffered from poor management, and the lack of a regular budget". This, according to Steedman (1993), has the potential to undermine the "credibility" of such youth employment programs completely. Besides, the 'structures' do not involve the youths in the formulation and implementation of youth employment programs. In Ghana, for example, the 'system' did not involve the youths in the formulation of the National Youth Employment Policy [NYEP) (Gyampo, 2012). Still, the NYEP, Gyampo and Obeng-Odoom (2013) argued, did not include the youths in the Regional Monitoring Team (RMT)—a body responsible for monitoring the

implementation of the NYEP at the district level. These challenges tend to obstruct youth employment programs across the world. Therefore, the current study seeks to examine the extent to which the 'system' allows the youths in the various implementation and management boards of YEA.

Immigrations and Economic Declines: It is believed that immigration and economic declines can negatively affect the prospects of the youths in the labour market. Bell and Blanchflower (2011), for example, observed that immigration has reduced the employment opportunities of indigenous-youths in the U.K. Besides, in the case of the impacts of the Great Recession (2007-2009) on the youth, Dietrich (2013: 306) reported that "*The first signs of recession were to be seen in 2007, with the full-blown financial crisis spilling over into the real economy and labour markets worldwide over the next one to two years. GDP growth and employment suffered a significant downturn from 2008 onwards, though with country-specific variations. EU GDP fell by 4.3 per cent in 2009, and youth unemployment in Europe rose sharply between the second quarter of 2008 and the third quarter of 2009 and again, after an intermediate recovery, from the third quarter of 2011 onwards*". The focus of the current study is not to examine the impacts of immigrations on the youths, but to examine the situation of the youths (***security***) under the sixth module. The study does not, however, rule out the impacts of economic declines on the youths in Ghana.

Shrinking Resources and Youth-Adult Unemployment: Not only does the shrinking in resources (wages, land, and credits) affect the youth, but youth unemployment often translates into adult unemployment. Kristensen and Birch-Thomsen (2013), for example, reported that the youths do not have access to land and capital to go into businesses in Uganda. In Europe, Orszag and Snower (1999: 198) asserted, "youth unemployment often leads to long-term adult unemployment" in most countries. In effect, the above studies allow us to examine the 'wages', 'lands' and 'credits' of the sixth module's employees under the current study. The focus is to

examine the extent to which these resources help to either accelerate or deaccelerate the opportunities of the youths. This will allow us to examine as to whether 'exits' translates into employment or unemployment in the future.

Population Explosions, Regionalism and Gender Discriminations: Population explosions and gender discriminations have been militating against the youths and youth programs over the past decades. Today, Ali (2014: 13) opined, the population of the youths is more "than at any point in history". The youths, for example, constitute more than 60% percent of the population of Africa (Mugabi-Mugambwa, 1996). In Zambia, one often finds most of them in the urban areas (Gough, 2016). Besides, in Nigeria, many are reluctant to work "outside their states of origin" because of regionalism (Ojo, 1980: 55). Increasingly, in Africa, female-youths suffer more than male-youths in labour markets. In Botswana, for example, the proportion of the unemployed-female-youths (20-34) is more than the proportion of the unemployed-male-youths (Malema, 2014). Still, in Burkina Faso, Calves and Schoumaker (2004: 1347) observed that "our data show that, overall, young women in Ouagadougou and Bobo Dioulasso have less access to apprenticeship than young men, and are more likely to be at home". These studies allow us to examine the impacts of population growth on the youth employment program—YEA—under the current study. Furthermore, the student will investigate 'discriminations' and 'prejudices' based on 'gender' and 'region'.

2.8. A REVIEW OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN NORTH AMERICA, EUROPE AND AFRICA

2.9. INTRODUCTION:

This sub-section will review the literature on community policing in North America (taking the U.S. as a case study), Europe and, of course, Africa. The section will investigate the 'benefits' and 'challenges' associated with community policing, as well.

THE U.S.:

It was reported, in late-1960s that "good will" citizens condemned the riots, tensions, rebellions and revolts in U.S. cities (Germann, 1969). Notwithstanding, most citizens became dissatisfied with the harsh methods adopted by the police to coil the riots, tensions, rebellions and revolts of the 1960s (Reisig, 2010). Equally, Crank (1994: 326) remarked that, "The police had failed by many accounts to do much in the way of controlling sharply increasing crime; moreover, they were implicated by the 1967 Kerner and 1968 Crime Commissions in the devastating urban riots of the 1960s". In Los Angeles, for example, citizens became dissatisfied with the police beating of the motorist Rodney King ***[1991]*** and went on demonstration against the exoneration of the culprits ***[1992]*** (Roussell, 2015).

In effect, many states began to roll out measures to retool the police in order to combat crime in the U.S. The brainstorming, according to Skolnick and Bayley (1988), led to the emergence of community policing in 1970s and 1980s. In 1994, President Clinton promised to deploy extra 100, 000 patrol officers across U.S. (Meares, 2002). The federal government—through the Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) program—began to disburse billions of dollars to expand community policing in U.S. (Reisig (2010). Under the community policing agenda, most patrol officers have been redeployed into "small, decentralized police posts" in the U.S. Furthermore, the police headquarters decentralized its command structures down to the local areas under this agenda. This was designed to allow the police work together with groups and institutions (Skolnick and Bayley (1988). The New York Police Department (NYPD), for example, holds regular meetings with the Midtown North Precinct Community Council, the Citizens' Police Academy and the Kitchen Neighborhood Association under the community policing agenda (Chesluk, 2004). Still, the Muslim Community has been cooperating with the police, and with other law enforcement agencies, to detect and combat terrorism in New York (Tyler, 2010).

Baltimore launched the Comprehensive Communities Program (CCP) to boost police-resident relation in mid-1990s. The Community Organizers/Associations, together with the Mayor's Coordinating Council on Criminal Justice, helped to organize various programs on crime prevention under the CCP (Tyler et al, 2010). The Washington, DC, Metropolitan Police Department (DC MPD) has, equally, created an online platform to engage the citizens on crime-control in all the seven districts (Brainard and Derrick-Mills, 2011). In Florida, the police have been deployed to regulate traffic, engage citizens and arrest criminals under the community policing agenda (Chappell, 2009). Furthermore, the U.S. police and the media have developed stronger ties with the aim of combating crime under the principles of community policing. Indeed, under this Police-Media engagement, "media personnel said that about 15% of news space was devoted to police initiatives, 9% of news space was devoted to police misconduct" (Chermak, 2006: 145-146).

Then again, the Houston Police Department sought to befriend the community so as to deal with crime between 1982 and 1989 (Brown, 1987; Kessler, 1999). Also, the police adopted community policing to combat gun violence in San Diego, Chicago and Boston. In Boston, for example, the police worked with community and religious leaders under the Boston Gun Project (Fagan, 2002). In 1993, the Chicago Police Department officially launched the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy (CAPS) to "improve the quality of life" in that state. Under the motto "Together We Can", CAPS (a) trains and deploys officers across all the districts under Chicago (b) allows the police to hold regular meetings with the residents (c) creates "rapid response units" to respond to all emergency calls and (d) establishes advisory committees at the district levels (Daley, 1997; Rai, 2011). In Chicago, Klinenberg (2001:76), for example, captured one of these police-community meetings as follows: "*It is 6:00 o'clock on a warm August evening and more than 20 residents of a mixed Czech and Latino neighborhood crowd into a small meeting room of a park building on Chicago's West Side. They are engaged in*

heated dialogue with a group of city police officers who have come to update the group on local crime issues. The residents complain about teenagers who loiter on their streets and gun shots fired late at night; they ask for help controlling the unruly patrons of a neighborhood tavern, request new lighting for dark alleys, and lament the problems stemming from an abandoned building. The officers insist that the job of protecting the streets does not belong to the police department alone. "We can't do this all by ourselves," the lieutenant in charge explains. "This is your problem to manage; it is our problem. We're going to do this together." Members of the crowd nod in agreement". But, in U.S., "It appears that community policing is working best in terms of youth services, where it is needed least, low crime communities, and is not working where it is needed most" (Rukus et al., 2018: 1876). The above studies allow us to examine (a) government's budget on community policing (b) the command structures between the national police and YEA's community policing personnel (e.g., the ceding of powers) (c) the regular meetings, if any, between community policing personnel and neighbourhood watch groups (d) response units (e) the use of online discussion to combat crime and (f) the media-community personnel engagements under this study.

EUROPE:

Reiner's (1992) work showed that public confidence in the police has been plummeting in Britain since the 1980s. In a 1962 survey ("the Royal Commission on the Police Report"), it was reported that the proportion of the public that had respect for the police was 83%. In 1988, according to the British Crime Survey (BCS), 85% of the public rated the police service "very or fairly good" in its work. However, only 18%, the Operational Policing Review reported, rated the police service "very good" in its operations in 1990 (ibid). Thus, Wood (2003: 109), stated that "Questioning of the role and competency of the police in controlling crime has become prevalent at various levels in British society".

In Europe, the idea of policing, according to Zedner (2006), has been in existence before the emergence of the modern state. In response to "widespread opposition", however, the "modern British police" emerged and won the support of the public in the 19th and mid-19th century respectively (Reiner, 1992). The latter is, indeed, important because "Public approval, then, is the linchpin of British law enforcement efforts" (Kalliney, 1996: 87). Thus, the Police Departments, Skolnick and Bayley (1988) observed, have been working closely with "crime-prevention" institutions in Britain. The British Police, in response to the 1979-81 public revolts, sought to adopt community policing to prevent crime and improve its relations with the Asian and black communities in England (Kalliney, 1996).

Hamilton-Smith et al (2014) pointed to the National Reassurance Policing Program (NRPP) in Scotland. The NRPP seeks to, among others, involve the communities in the fight against crime in Scotland. Moreover, in 2009, the author asserted, the Scottish Government published the Community Policing Engagement Principles to strengthen "visible policing, community consultation and communication, responsiveness, local accountability, partnership working and a commitment to problem solving" (ibid: 165). Still, Northern Ireland's policing has been in operation *since* the late-1960s (Hillyard and Tomlinson, 2000). Martin (2006), citing others, showed that while some view the Royal Ulster Constabulary (RUC)—the erstwhile police force in Northern Ireland—as a 'protector', others, however, view it as a 'brutal' force. Now, the reform agenda seeks to demilitarize community policing within the limits of the law in Northern Ireland (Shearing, 2000; Hillyard and Tomlinson, 2000). Martin (2006: 320), for example, stressed that "The reformed police service, the Police Service of Northern Ireland (PSNI), is being reconstructed as the result of the peace accord known as the Good Friday Agreement (United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland, 1998)". Furthermore, Topping (2008: 785) observed that there are "youth intervention services" in support of community policing in Northern Ireland. Thus, the current study will investigate the role of the various

crime-prevention institutions in support of YEA's activities under the sixth module. Moreover, the emphasis on ***'reforms'*** in the above studies allows us to investigate the various reforms that have been rolled out to strengthen the activities of community personnel under the sixth module. However, while the focus of the above studies is on Europe, the focus of the current study is on Africa.

AFRICA:

The urban areas, according to the evidence, have been choked with multiple challenges in Africa. In Ghana, the population of Accra, for example, has been exploding following its declaration as the capital in 1877 (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 1998). Moreover, the city of Accra has the "highest" crime rate in Ghana (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2002), making it unsafe for foreigners and indigenes alike (Owusu, 2016). In addition, the city's vehicular and pedestrian traffic continues to exacerbate on daily basis (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2003). It is important to state that these challenges exist in all the major cities in Africa. Meanwhile, the police have been criticized of not doing enough to prevent and control crime in Kenya (Ruteere and Pommerolle, 2003) and Nigeria (Hills, 2012).

Namibia launched its community policing program and created the Windhoek NWS to facilitate police-resident discussions in 1990. These discussions mostly centre on how to develop sound measures to prevent and counter crime. Equally, Lesotho launched its community policing program with the aim to strengthening police-resident relations between 1998 and 2003 (Brogden, 2004). In South Africa, "Community policing…follows from a long experience in the townships of fear and hatred of the police during apartheid" (Ruteere and Pommerolle, 2003: 589). For example, community policing, involving the state, private organizations and citizens, often takes the form of foot and vehicle patrols to protect lives and properties in Cape Town. "A survey of 120 homes in the wealthier western suburbs showed 83

% were protected by electronic alarms linked to a security firm's armed response team, which attended to calls within minutes" (Baker, 2002: 39).

Furthermore, protracted civil wars subverted the ability of the police to protect lives and properties in Rwanda and Sierra Leone. This paved the way for the emergence of "local forms of policing" in Rwanda and Sierra Leone. Indeed, the youth believe that they are the 'guardians of security' in these war-torn states. Even, traditional leaders do acknowledge the role of the youth towards policing in Sierra Leone. In Yengema, the Youth Chairman, for example, asserted that "We know everybody and everything. If there is a fight they go to the youth group or after them the chiefs; only finally do they go to the police ... We patrol at night. We respond if there is a problem. We harass anybody who brings drugs. We arrest them, destroy the drugs; we give them a beating. Solved! No more drugs!" Furthermore, in Freetown, a member of the Camp Divas Youth remarked that, "We never see the police down here ... If there is fighting or stealing we take them to the police. And if there is provocation or abusive language we fine them" (Baker, 2008: 560). Moreover, in Nigeria, the Nigerian Police Force (NPF), the Hisba ("state-sponsored Islamic guards"), and vigilante groups (involving the youth wings) have forged strong ties to combat crime in Kano (Hills, 2012). In Nigeria, Ikuteyijo (2009: 285) reported, "A situation whereby the police stand aloof from other members of the society and are treated like unwanted strangers is no longer tolerable in most societies where community policing is practised". In Ghana, it was the International Criminal Investigative Training Assistance Program [ICITAP] that helped to launch community policing in 1998. Indeed, the initiator's major aim was to strengthen police-resident relations, prevent crime, boost public confidence in the police and improve the Ghana Police Academy (Brogden, 2004). It is important to state that the role of the youth towards security has not been adequately dealt with in the above studies. The above scholars, in particular, have failed to investigate the contribution of YEA's recruits towards policing in Ghana. Baker's (2002) work, however,

leads us to launch investigations into the mode of patrols (foot and vehicle) used to combat crime under the current study.

2.1.0. A REVIEW OF THE POSITIVE IMPACTS OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN NORTH AMERICA, EUROPE, ASIA, CENTRAL AMERICA AND AFRICA

2.1.1. INTRODUCTION:

The effectiveness and efficiency of community policing has been measured across the world (Charbonneau and Riccucci, 2008). Today, most states have adopted community policing following the successes in other states (Chakraborty, 2003). This sub-section will deal with (a) *'Community Policing Enhances Relations'* and (b) *'It Works to Reduce Disorder and Crime'* in the up-coming pages.

Community Policing Enhances Relations: Community policing, it has been observed, enhances relations between and among police, on the one hand, and between the police and residents, on the other hand. In Scheider et al's (2003) view, for example, the police-resident interactions do not only enhance "personal relationships", but the latter gets to know more about the "procedures" of the former. Conversely, Kessler (1999) observed that the deployment of "cooperative strategies" enhances police-resident relations, allowing the former to know more about the latter. To Topping (2008: 786-787), police-resident interactions is a "conduit for inter-communal relations" in Northern Ireland. In South Africa, state policies seek to capitalize on these interactions to build 'trust' between the police and residents in post-apartheid era (Bénit-Gbaffou, 2008). In India, the adoption of community policing has helped to promote "greater accessibility", "greater sense of security among the populace", "better behavior of police" and "better perception of police" in Kerala state (Kumar, 2012: 397). Liou and Savage (1996) have, similarly, reported that community policing has worked to promote "police-community relationships" in Florida, U.S.

Community Policing Promotes Partnerships: Still, community policing has worked to promote partnerships between the police, on the one hand, and the media, state agencies, non-profit organizations, religious leaders, community members, on the other hand, in the U.S. (Scheider, 2013). In the U.S., *"The survey results indicate that both sides of the police-media transaction have a very positive view of the relationship. For example, nearly 90% of the PIOs [Public Information Officers] either agreed or strongly agreed that the current status of their relationship with most news organizations is good. Similarly, 72% of the combined media sample (television/newspaper managers/reporters) agreed or strongly agreed that the relationship was good"* (Chermak, 2006: 144). In Chicago, Klinenberg (2001) reported, community policing has worked to strengthen social relations in the neighbourhood, modernise "city service delivery systems", and helps to direct state agencies under the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy (CAPS). The above studies have highlighted the major ingredients that are needed to prevent and control crime under community policing programs. These ingredients include, among others, the relationships that exist between the police, on the one hand, and citizens, state agencies and non-profit organizations, on the other hand. The focus, then, is to examine these relationships under the current study.

It Works to Reduce Disorder and Crime: Scholars have observed that community policing can work to prevent and control disorder and crime. Scheider (2003) stated that it allows the police to develop "new ways" to counter disorder and crime. It is, for example, believed that police-resident interactions have worked to reduce *disorder* and *crime* (parking cars on the streets, drinking, robbery, terrorism, gun violence, violation of traffic laws etc) in both the U.K. and the U.S. (Tyler et al, 2010; Sherman, 2013; Sherman, 1986; Fagan, 2002). Community policing has worked to reduce crime and improve neighbourhood, boosting the confidence level of the public in the police in Indiana and Florida, U.S. (Liou and Savage, 1996; Reisig and Parks, 2004; Connell et al, 2008). In addition, the adoption of community policing—

involving institutions such as the neighbourhood associations, city code enforcement agencies and non-profit Community Law Center (CLC)—has led to the interdiction of drug-addicts and traffickers in Baltimore (Goetz and Mitchell, 2003). Furthermore, it helps to promote peace and safety in Northern Ireland (Martin, 2006). To MacDonald (2002), however, the effects of community policing on crime-reduction is minimal in the U.S.

In Tegucigalpa and Choluteca (Honduras), "Overall, citizen assessment of community policing is positive in both cities, with majorities reporting improved security, reduced crime, and better community-police relations" (Arias and Ungar, 2009: 414). In Nigeria, the introduction of new policing tactics worked to reduce disorder and crime in Kaduna (Hills, 2012). The above scholars examined the effectiveness of community policing using some key variables such as 'disorder' and 'crime'. The current study seeks to deploy cross-tabulation to dissect and analyse these variables under the sixth module.

2.1.2.A REVIEW OF THE CHALLENGES SURROUNDING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF COMMUNITY POLICING PROGRAMS IN NORTH AMERICA, EUROPE, ASIA, LATIN AMERICA, CENTRAL AMERICA AND AFRICA

2.1.3. INTRODUCTION:

The sub-section will review the following (a) ***The Failure of Leadership and Coordination*** (b) ***Lack of Resources*** (c) ***Police-Corruption*** (d) ***Divided-Societies*** (e) ***Lack of Proper Training and Police-Brutality*** and (i) ***Conflict over Values and Broken-Relations.*** Below is a review on the above issues.

The Failure of Leadership and Coordination: Lack of leadership has rendered most community policing programs fruitless and ineffective worldwide. Frankly, leaders have refused to fully commit themselves to the philosophy of community policing (i.e., the principles governing it) in U.S. (Vito, 2005). In Florida, for example, leaders have failed to decentralize the bureaucratic structures (the ceding of power) to enable officers resolve problems at the local levels (Chappell, 2009). Also, many have questioned the methods deployed to counter disorder and crime (Moore, 1992). Fielding (2000), for example, observed that leaders often attempt to deploy officials without coordination "across the ranks and functions" in London. The above studies' emphasis on 'leadership' and 'coordination' make them relevant to the current study. In effect, the student will investigate the impact of poor leadership and coordination on community policing in Ghana.

Lack of Resources: Lack of resources (personnel, time and money) can undermine efforts under community policing completely. Lack of resources, for example, undermined the implementation of community policing in Florida (Skolnick and Bayley, 1988). In Florida, it has further been asserted, officers lack enough time to thoroughly engage the communities as a result of work overload (Chappell, 2009). Besides, Allison et al (2009 327), citing the 2004 records of the Office of Community Oriented Policing Services, lamented that "*Although the Violent Crime Control Act of 1994 provided $8.8 billion in federal funding to local police departments for community policing between 1995 and 2000, the amount of federal funds appropriated to community policing was reduced to approximately $400 million in 2004, representing less than half the yearly funding available before September 11*". Indeed, in the U.S., Wells (2003) elucidated, the federal government deprived community policing of the needed resources (funding) because of its scepticism [about community policing] and the 9/11 events. Now, the funding, he asserted, is rechannelled into homeland security (in Lee, 2010). In Thailand, the Police Department has been unable to "equip its officers" as a result of

inadequate budget (Puthpongsiriporn and Quang, 2005). Furthermore, it was lack of funding that has weakened the ability of the Royal Malaysian Police to deliver on its mandate in Malaysia (Cheurprakobkit and Puthpongsiriporn, 2005). The above studies have highlighted some key issues (resources—personnel, money and time) that need to be investigated to boost the current research. The focus, then, is to investigate the extent to which lack of resources affect community policing in Ghana.

Police-Corruption: The records showed that police-corruption has the potential to undermine efforts under community policing programs. In Mexico City, for example, community policing may not yield positive results because of police-corruption (Muller, 2010). Similarly, the Alternative Sentencing Unit—the body responsible for implementing the Comprehensive Communities Program (CCP)—has been accused of corruption, making it difficult to achieve targets under the CCP in Baltimore (Goetz and Mitchell, 2003). Equally, Ikuteyijo (2009) reported, the effectiveness of community policing has been undermined as a result of police-corruption in Nigeria. In Hong Kong, Lau (2004: 76) stated that "Police–public relations have improved but this seems to have been less a result of community policing reforms than the uprooting of syndicated police corruption". The focus, then, is to examine corrupt practices, if any, under the current study.

Divided-Societies: Also, divided societies tend to pose a challenge to the implementation of community policing programs. Skolnick and Bayley (1998), for example, reported that the police have been struggling to maintain friendly relations with the Koreans (**Japan**), the blacks (**U.S.**) and the Indians and Afro-Caribbeans (**Britain**). It is "unique and complex" to implement community policing in Northern Ireland (Martin, 2006). The "diversity" and "contending social forces" make it difficult to implement community policing in that state (Topping, 2008; Weitzer, 1985). One of the Spokespersons for RUC, for example, noted that "Policing in Northern Ireland is like intervening in a marital dispute. Both sides are thumping you, and you

can never really win. The Chief Constable walks a tightrope between the two" (Weitzer, 1985: 50). How, then, do diversities—religion, culture and ethnic—affect the implementation of community policing in Ghana? Thus, the study will investigate the impact of these diversities on community policing in Ghana.

Lack of Proper Training and Police-Brutality: Many have questioned the mode of training officials under community policing programs. Officials do not understand the philosophy of community policing because of lack of training (Chappell, 2009). In the late-1960s, for example, Germann (1969) observed that only 10% of police-training was on human relations in the U.S. In the 2000s, Chappell (2009) equally observed, "What was even more funny was the officers' view of community policing. They had no interest in it at all or in using problem-solving techniques" in Florida (ibid: 19). In effect, lack of proper training often results in police-brutality in most parts of the world. The police, for example, have maimed and killed innocent people in Honduras (Arias and Ungar, 2009), the U.S. (Koslicki and Willits, 2018) and in most parts of the world. In some instances, however, some militant groups have sought to attack the national police forces, resulting in exchange of fire in, inter alia, Nigeria (Ikuteyijo, 2009) and Brazil (Arias and Ungar, 2009). Moreover, community policing "may" allow the police force to befriend criminals (Kessler, 1999), allowing the former (the police) to leak information to the latter (criminals). This, straightforwardly, endangers and jeopardizes the life of citizens in Nigeria (Ikuteyijo, 2009). The emphasis on police-brutality allows us to examine official-misconducts under the current study.

Conflict over Values and Broken-Relations: In most instances, different institutions champion different "social values", "competing demands and aspirations" under community policing in U.S (Thacher, 2001; Chappell, 2009). These differences have the potential to divide the police and residents and thus, undermine efforts (Stein and Griffith, 2017). Thacher (2001: 766), for example, observed that "*Police and their would-be partners do not always value the*

same, or even compatible, things, and there are often good (though not immutable) reasons for this. Neighborhood groups bespeak a commitment to quality-of-life in specific residential areas; landlords to the exchange and (perhaps) improvement of residential properties; service agencies to the welfare of their clients; and the courts to doing justice and the protection of individual rights. These values may have some overlap with the complicated mix of aims that shape the police mandate, but they are not identical to them. ***When the partners who cling to them try to work in collaboration with the police, conflict may flare up at the point of contact***". In Hong Kong, for example, the national police force failed to "engage the public" under community policing program. Likewise, the national police force has been struggling to establish partnerships with the communities in the U.S. (Vito, 2005). In Baltimore, "Citizens complained that they were less familiar with Hotspots officers" (Goetz and Mitchell, 2003: 239). The emphasis on the challenges that are involved in police-resident relationships make the above studies relevant to the current study. This emphasis, for example, allows us to examine the extent to which conflicting *values*, *demands* and *aspirations* tend to obstruct the relations between officials and residents in Ghana.

Clearly, the above studies do not tell us about the contribution of the youth towards community policing in Ghana. The current study aligns itself with that of Baker (2008)—***"Beyond the Tarmac Road: Local Forms of Policing in Sierra Leone & Rwanda"***. Baker (2008) argued that the youth have been instrumental in preventing and controlling crime in both Sierra Leone and Rwanda. Here, the role of the youth, he further argued, is extremely important given the inability of the two war-torn states to take the trouble upon themselves. The focus of Baker (2008), however, was on the contribution of the youth towards community policing in Sierra Leone and Rwanda while the focus of the current study is on the contribution of the youth towards community policing in Ghana.

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CHPATER THREE

THEORETICAL/CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

THEORIES OF EMPLOYMENT (JOB) SECURITY/INSECURITY AND BROKEN WINDOWS

2.0. INTRODUCTION:

The concept *employment security*, "is often used as a synonym for job-security", even though the two are not "entirely the same" (Dekker (2010). Zekic (2016: 1) stated that job security refers to the "security of staying in the same job with the same employer" while employment security refers to the "possibility to easily find a job at every stage of active life". The Broken Windows Theory (BWT), however, was propounded by scholars such as George Kelling and James Q. Wilson in 1982. These scholars simply adopted the term "broken windows" to represent "disorder" in society. This theory upholds that 'disorder' sets the stage for serious 'crime' and that there can be no 'crime' without 'disorder'.

3.1.THE THEORIES OF EMPLOYMENT (JOB) SECURITY AND INSECURITY

The concept employment security, according to Dekker (2010), originated in the not too distant past. Scholars, such as Gallie (2017), for example, observed that intense discussions on this concept began during the 1980s. Fevre (2007: 517), for example, wrote: "During the 1990s, social theorists popularized the idea that the affluent societies of the West were entering a new age of insecure employment in which more and more people would be forced to stitch together patchwork careers consisting of short-term spells of work". Some major contributors to this concept include, among others, Doogan, Mythen, Castelss, Giddens, Sennett, and Beck (ibid).

Zeytinoglu (2012: 124) asserted that both employment security and insecurity define the perceptions workers hold about "their future in the current job but from different perspectives: positive and negative". Employment security, observes Bredgaard (2005), is when workers are "staying employed" either under the same or different employer (s). Equally, it is, Lovell (1989: 163) stated, "An economic state wherein an individual worker is able to have continuity of work opportunity throughout the years he wishes to be employed". "This work", the authors asserted, "certainly does not have to be on the same job, with the same employer or even with the same industry".

Employment (job) insecurity, on the other hand, is "a multi-dimensional construct that identifies the jeopardy to the job generally and to its features specifically, as well as powerlessness to resist the threat" (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 2010: 9). Employment insecurity has been broken down into two dimensions, including cognitive and affective. Whereas cognitive job insecurity, according to Jiang and Probst (2014: 558-559), "refers to perceptions regarding the extent to which the future of one's job is at risk", affective job insecurity, on the other hand, "refers to the employee's evaluative/affective reaction to that cognitive perception, i.e., whether that perception causes them anxiety, worry, etc". These terminologies (cognitive and affective) are, indeed, "two separate constructs" (Jiang, and Lavaysse, 2018).

Many factors trigger employment insecurity, including globalization [political, technological, and economic changes] (Benach et al., 2014; Kalleberg, 2011; Gélinas, 2006), workers' perceptions (Låstad, et al., 2018), global competition (Naswall and Witte, 2003), low-skill levels and low wages (Maurin and Postel-Winay, 2005), and global economic downturns (Burgard and Seelye, 2017).

In Europe, Marx (2014) observed that employment insecurity has been "on the rise" over the past few decades or so. Furthermore, in 1997, one study, initiated under the sponsorship of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), reported that while 48% of U.S. workers stayed secured, 52%, however, stayed unsecured (Jiang and Probst, 2014). Again, in 2017, Kambayashi and Kato (2017) reported that Japanese-workers (i.e., "prime-age male workers") tend to stay on jobs much longer ("job stability") than U.S.-workers (i.e., "prime-age male workers").

Moreover, a significant relationship has been established between employment security/insecurity and some variables in the literature. Yu (2017), for example, observed that secure-jobs pay well than insecure-jobs. Still, there is a relation between job security, on the one hand, and a person's "well-being" (that is, psychological, financial, and physical), on the other hand (Gélinas, 2006). Similarly, a relationship exists between job insecurity and a worker's "willingness" to involve him/herself in "training to strengthen the position outside the organization" (Hootegem, 2019: 395). Also, there is a positive relationship between job insecurity and redistribution in a welfare state (Marx, 2014). Finally, Nickie and Emma (2003) found that a relationship exists between job insecurity, on the one hand, and gender, on the other hand. Generally, males, according to the authors, tend to feel secure on jobs than females.

Furthermore, some of the negative consequences of employment insecurity have been enumerated in the literature. It, for example, raises the anxiety and depression levels of workers high (Berglund, 2014) and thus, affects their capabilities to perform well on jobs (König et al., 2010 Fried, 2003; Burchell, 2011). In addition, it can bring about "burnout and psychological" trauma on its victims (Rigotti, 2015; Jiang and Probst, 2019). To Naswall and Witte (2003), employment insecurity has the potential to seriously demotivate workers and thus, reduce production. Still, others, such as Glavin (2013), asserted that it can reduce the ability of its victims to control themselves. These impacts, Carr and Chung (2014) opined, can be minimised

through, among others, state-supports, job protection, income protection, employability, and market regulation. Indeed, laws have been developed to reduce the likelihood of job losses (Heckman, 2000; Suk, 2007), a phenomenon which became rampant in the 21st century (Hur and Perry, 2016). These laws, for example, have been formulated and implemented in U.S., Europe (Lazear, 1990; Audenrode, 1994), Latin America and the Caribbean (Heckman, 2000). The point is that employment security reduces stress and allows citizens to provide for themselves and the nation (Lovell, 1989). Ironically, these laws, however, work to reduce the willingness of employers to recruit "new workers", leading to widespread joblessness (Lazear, 1990). To Fevre (2007), the literature on employment insecurity has, however, failed to distinguish between "short-tenure" employments and "non-standard" employments.

3.2.BROKEN WINDOWS:

The Broken Windows Theory (BWT), on the other hand, was propounded by George Kelling and James Q. Wilson in 1982. It is important to note that these scholars adopted the term "broken windows" to represent "disorder" in society. In very simple terms, the theory of broken windows posited that 'disorder' sets the stage for serious 'crime' and that the latter will not occur without the former. These minor crimes include, among others, begging, littering, graffiti, drunkenness, prostitution, and vandalism.

The BWT posited that lack of strictness in law enforcement allows crime to thrive and blossom on the streets. In effect, the BWT sought to redirect the attention of the police away from major crimes towards minor crimes. Consequently, it called for the adoption of some strategies to root out crime and improve lives, including, among others, community policing, conditional prevention and arrests of misdemeanour.

Today, many studies have found evidence in support of the BWT. In Colorado, Xu et al.(2005: 174), for example, reported that "the current study provides supportive evidence to the broken windows thesis that the physical and moral decay of the community leads to increased criminality. Because disorder has significant direct, indirect, and total effects on crimes, the connection between incivility and crime is well established in the data". Equally, Funk and Kugler (2003) found that minor crimes eventually lead to major crimes—such as robbery—in Switzerland.

Today, the BWT has been widely recommended (Sridhar, 2006) and most countries have adopted its tenets "as a motivation for and justification of zero tolerance with respect to petty crime. One should therefore expect that would-be offenders are more likely to desist from antisocial behavior if they are deterred" (Beckenkamp et al., 2013: 4). In the U.S., for example, the BWT was heavily adopted in New York (Sridhar, 2006), leading the media to describe "the "famous" Broken Windows essay as "the bible of policing" and "the blueprint for community policing" (Harcourt, 1998: 292). Indeed, the adoption of the BWT contributed towards the reduction of crime in New York between 1990 and 1999 (Thompson, 2015; Corman and Mocan, 2005).

However, it has been argued that the distinction between minor and major crimes is blurred and that the BWR needs "to be reconsidered" (Gau and Pratt, 2008). While Harcourt and Ludwig (2006), for example, found no evidence in support of the BWT, Sampson and Raudenbush (1999) found that BWT effects are but minimal. Besides, the dictates of BWT have triggered negative effects in most societies (Thompson, 2015). It has, for example, led to police-brutality in the U.S. (Joanes, 2000) and this, in turn, prompted public-demonstrations against the police in that country (Thompson, 2015).

These theories, undoubtedly, provide the framework within which to examine the situation of the youth under YEA's 6th module. This framework, for example, allows us to examine the relationship between employment insecurity, on the one hand, and the well-being, wages, training, skills, and gender, on the other hand. Still, it allows us to examine the nexus between the security situation of the selected districts, on the one hand, and the activities of the community protection assistants (CPAs), on the other hand. Moreover, the consequences (negative and positive) of employment [in]security on the youth following political, economic, and technological changes will be scrutinized, as well. Furthermore, the concepts shed light on the role of implementation-actors (state, employers, etc) and this allows us to examine the role of the actors (public and private) involved in the execution of YEA's 6th module (state, employers, trainers, employees, and supervisors).

Thus, we are being led to examine the question as to whether the module allows the youth (who are in informal sector) to ascend the security ladder into the national security service (the formal sector). Indeed, YEA, under this study, provides employment and job security if it pays well and allows the youth to ascend the security ladder with ease and certainty. The inability of the youth, on the other hand, to capitalize on the available opportunities to meet the demands of a globalizing world could make them insecure on the module, as well. Besides, we are being led to examine the extent to which the CPAs have been able to uproot crime and improve security in the three selected districts, Accra. Thus, the study will be interested in looking at the kind of training given, the form of strategies adopted and, of course, the impacts of these strategies on the communities under study.

3.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

Arising from the theory, the following questions will guide the research:

1. What are the major factors that trigger employment insecurity under YEA's 6th Module?
2. How does employment insecurity/security affect the wellbeing of YEA's employees under the 6th Module?
3. What is the nature of the CPA's training and how do the strategies adopted affect the security situation in Accra?
4. How can the effectiveness of the CPAs be improved to counter crime and improve lives in Ghana?

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CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

3.0. INTRODUCTION:

Methodology, as used in research, is "a scientific methodology as an open-ended set of strategies through which the investigator defines research questions, formulates hypotheses and explanations, gathers and analyzes data, and assesses the credibility of the hypotheses and explanations that are put forward" (Little, 2015: 463-464). Mostly, social scientists tend to adopt either the quantitative, the qualitative, or the mixed methods when storming the field to gather data. The current study adopted the mixed-method to collect its primary-data. The mixed-method allowed the student to make use of the merits of both the quantitative and qualitative methods. In addition, the mixed method allowed the student to collect and analyse objective primary data.

4.1. Research techniques:

Research techniques are the various strategies involved in collecting data. The two main research techniques, Burgess (1931) opined, include (a) data-gathering techniques and (b) data-handling techniques. In Burgess' (1931) view, (b) has to do with description, comparison, analysis, and synthesis and (a) has to do with consensus, documentation, observation, questionnaire, and experimentation. This required the researcher (i.e., the student) to remain attentive, listen with rapt ears, jot down important points, and record (with permission) during the interview exercise. The student, then, transcribed the information recorded into his field note book which was, in turn, used to confirm and correct the data the student wrote with his hand during the qualitative-interviews with GPS and YEA officials. Surely, these strategies

allowed the researcher to categorise and compare quantitative data to the qualitative data during the analysis.

4.2. The Sources of Data:

The student established contacts with officials and residents in/with the relevant institutions, communities and association (s) and interviewed them. These institutions, association (s) and communities include the Ghana Police Service (GPS), YEA, the Community Protection Personnel Association (s) [CPPA), Adentan, Ashaiman, La Dadekotopon, La Nkwantanan-Madina, Ledzokuku Krowo, Ayawaso, Ablekuma, Okaikoi and Weija Gbawe in the Greater Accra Region (GAR). It should be noted that YEA relies on the GPS to train the Community Protection Assistants (CPAs). In effect, the student contacted the GPS officials in Nima, Airport Residential area, Kokomelemele, Sabon Zongo, Accra New Town, and Dansoman police Divisions. Thus, the student's contact with the GPS officials was intended to understand the nature of this training and how it differs, if any, from that of the national police personnel. Secondly, the interaction with the GPS was meant to understand how the two teams (the national police personnel and the community protection assistants) have been collaborating to deal with crime in Accra. How about our contact with YEA? It was meant to gather biographical data on the successes and challenges of YEA's 6th module since its inception in 2015. Moreover, our contact with the leaders of the CPPA was meant to understand the experiences of the youth on the 6th module. Furthermore, the student's contact with the community-residents was meant to solicit their views on the impact of CPAs in their communities. Finally, the student hoped to extract document-materials on the *field* to buttress his primary data.

Increasingly, the sources of the secondary data included the internet, journals, magazines and, of course, books. The student stormed the Faculty of Law Library, the Department of Political

Science Library (UG), the African Studies Library, and the University of Ghana Balme Library to collect this data.

4.4. Gathering Primary Data:

There are two main forms of sampling methods, including the purposive and the random sampling methods (Sudman, 2001). The researcher does not consider the expertise of the population under the random sampling. The purposive sampling, however, requires the researcher to consider the expertise of the population (O'Sullivan and Rassel, 1995). The student considered and adopted both the purposive (already discussed under "The Sources of Data") and random sampling methods. Moreover, this study relied on the convenience sampling method to sample five hundred (500) CPAs since it did not intend to use the sample data to estimate the population characteristics. Finally, the study interviewed two hundred and fifty-two (252) community members to complete the Community Member module of the CPAs survey.

Once the sample size was determined, the student, again, relied on the systematic sampling method to select his respondents. Currently, YEA has fifteen thousand (15000) community protection assistants (CPAs) under it—this figure represented our sample frame. Now, the systematic sampling method required the student to divide the sample frame (i.e., 15000) by the sample (i.e., 500) to get the skip interval (i.e. 30). To avoid the problem of periodicity, the student, then, doubled the skip interval and proceeded to choose any number (*between 1 and 30*) to begin the selection of his respondents. The student, however, used the random sampling method to select respondents in the various communities.

The contact with the members of the CPPA was meant to gather biographical data on the experiences of the youth under the 6th module. Here, the major purpose was to understand whether the module truly makes the CPAs secure or not. Borrowing Nickie and Emma (2003),

Yu (2017), Gélinas (2006), Hootegem (2019), and Marx's (2014) approaches, employment security became our dependent variable while salary, gender, the willingness to undertake further training, and skills became our independent variables. The study, however, overturned the position of employment security (the dependent variable) in order to measure the health (physical and psychological well-being) of the youth. In effect, *employment security* became the independent variable while health (physical and psychological) became the dependent variable.

4.5. Interviews:

The two main types of interviews, according to Wu (1967), are the structured and the unstructured interviews. The responses tend to vary under unstructured interviews but remain the same under structured interviews (ibid). To Farrell (1940), interviews ought to be carried out to satisfy some objectives and aims. The current study relied on unstructured interviews in order to boost the freedom of expression. He (the student) scheduled official appointments using direct visits, emails and phones calls. However, the student relied on the face-to-face interviews to engage the respondents. To sum up, he got back to respondents to rectify minor errors (i.e., those who refused to be recorded) when all was said and done.

4.6. Interview Discussion Guide and Questionnaire:

In simple terms, the interview guide—a set of questions—is mostly designed to direct/guide interview exercises. The current study developed a guide with various questions to engage officials in both the GPS and YEA. Equally, the questionnaire was developed to provide the respondents with some options (a, b, c, d, e, f, g,) to choose. Here, the questions were written under different sub-themes. Surely, these instruments allowed the researcher to carry out the field exercise with ease and certainty.

4.7. Strategy to Store and Transcribe Data:

This involved the attempt to download and store messages, record phone conversations and write important points during interviews. However, the strategy to download and store messages and record phone conversations was deployed *during* and *after* the actual interview exercises on the field. In points of fact, this method enabled the student to reaffirm major points and rectify major mistakes.

4.8. Analysis of Data:

This sub-section concerned itself with data analysis. It was remarked that the "interview data are not only the literal words from a respondent but include evaluator assumptions, biases, and questions. The interview is cocreated between the evaluator and the respondent. It is the job of analysis to give concrete form to the meaning of the interview which is called the interpretation. The words of the interview constitute raw data, somewhat like the numbers resulting from a test. Raw data does not in itself reveal its meaning; rather it must be interpreted" (Griffe (2005: 36). The student adopted the following methods to analysis both the quantitative and qualitative data. Firstly, the qualitative data (both written and audio) was decoded and transcribed under different themes and sub-themes. This enabled the student to analyse the data using the recurrent themes which was, in turn, used to confirm and dispute the extant literature.

Secondly, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was accurately deployed to aid the data analysis. Here, the student used the **percentages** and **totals** to interpret the statistical charts, tables, and figures. He was mindful to differentiate between YES, NO, and I DON'T KNOW answers using the corresponding totals (as some statistical tables may produce two totals) aptly. The YES and NO answers, in other words, were not mixed with the I DON'T KNOW answers.

Finally, the student used cross-tabulation to explain most of the categorical variables into details. The statistical tables and charts were unable to dissect and explain these variables into details which was why the cross-tab was needed to clarify them. Cross-tab was used to dissect and explain categorical data such as, among others, **gravity of crime** (robbery and defilement) vs. **Districts** (Accra Metropolitan area, the Ayawaso East Municipal and Ayawaso Central Muncipal), **training** (training relating to robbery, traffic regulations, rape and defilements) vs. **professionalism towards crime** (robbery, disrespect for traffic rules, and defilement), **gravity of crime** (robbery, disrespect for traffic rules, and defilement) vs. **areas within districts** (Mataheko, Dansoman, and the Airport Residential area). This provides YEA and GPS with the information needed to deal with crime in Accra.

4.9. The Reliability and Validity of the Method:

It has been remarked that validity "refers to how well a test or an instrument measures what it purports to measure. In surveys, validity represents the extent to which the questionnaire or other instrument used to collect information is able to approximate the truth about people's behaviour or knowledge" (Dare and Cleland, 1994: 95). However, "The reliability of a measuring instrument is commonly defined as the level of precision of the instrument" (Huizinga and Elliott, 1986: 295). The questionnaire and the interview guide were designed after the student has reviewed the literature. This allowed him to develop reliable research instruments and generate valid data.

4.1.0 The Ethical Principles of Research:

This study paid maximum respect to the existing ethical principles in the field of Political Science. Firstly, the student, for example, sent the statement of the research problem and introductory letters to the institutions under study. Secondly, he scheduled all appointments

using official means and procedures—visits, emails, phone calls. Thirdly, the student was well composed and respected all appointment times. Finally, he accurately presented and analysed the research findings without distortions.

4.1.1. The Mixed-Method:

It has been asserted that the "Mixed method research designs encompass collecting, analyzing, and integrating quantitative and qualitative data and their analyses and interpretations" (Aarons, 2012: 68). Equally, the mixed-method is "where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study" (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004: 17). The two major types of this method include the concurrent and sequential mixed-methods (Farquhar, Ewing, and Booth, 2011). The concurrent mixed-method, according to the trio, requires one to deploy the qualitative and quantitative methods at the same time. However, the sequential mixed-method requires one to either begin with quantitative and end with qualitative or begin with qualitative and end with quantitative (ibid). Many believed that the mixed-method can be used to investigate almost every topic (Jefferson et al., 2014; Brannen and Moss, 2012; Kozlowski, 2013; Abutabenjeh, 2018). In effect, the current study deployed the concurrent mixed-method to collect and analyse his data. The major objective was to analyse the quantitative and qualitative data in order to determine the extent to which the two methods *agree* and *disagree* under this study.

4.1.2 The Mixed-Method's Merits and Demerits:

The mixed-method allows one to capitalize on the merits of quantitative and qualitative methods (Jefferson et al., 2014). Then again, it allows the researcher to cover the length and breadth of a particular phenomenon (Wilkins and Woodgate, 2008). In Morse's (2005) view, it promotes "validity" in data collection and analysis. In view of this, Brannen and Moss (2012)

urged scholars to adopt the mixed-method all the time. However, some believed that the mixed method has still not been developed fully (Morse, and Cheek, 2014), making it difficult to fully adopt and use it in research (Morse, 2005; Ramlo, 2016). This method can trigger inconsistencies in academic research (Morris and Burkett, 2011 in Dupin, Debout, and Rothan-Tondeur.2014). In Maxwell's (2009) view, however, the more scholars criticise the mixed-method, the more it becomes refined.

4.1.3. Limitations/Challenges of the Study:

The major challenge that confronted the student [on the field] had to do with the outbreak of COVID-19 in Ghana. This virus broke out just when the student was set to go out and collect his data. Indeed, the outbreak of COVID-19 did not only delay the exercise, but also, it made most respondents reluctant to respond to questions.

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CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS OF THE CPAs SURVEY

4.0. INTRODUCTION:

The quantitative aspect of the assessment of the Youth Employment Agency's (YEA) Sixth Module was done using two main target groups – 1. community policing assistants and 2. the community members.

5.1. Demographic characteristics of community policing assistants:

Five hundred and nine (509) Community Policing Assistants (CPAs) were successfully interviewed for this module of the survey. Among these were 333 male CPAs, representing 65.4 percent of the respondents. These respondents were drawn from 2 metropolitan and 17 municipal areas in the Greater Accra Region. The two metropolitan areas were Accra and Tema whilst all the remaining districts were municipalities. The remaining 17 municipal areas are Adentan, Ashaiman, Ga Central, Ga East, Ga North, Ga South, Ga West, La Dadekotopon, La Nkwantanan-Madina, Ledzokuku Krowo, Ayawaso East, Ayawaso West, Ayawaso North, Ablekuma West, Ablekuma North, Okaikoi and Weija Gbawe. These districts align with the Ghana Police administrative areas. A greater proportion of the respondents were drawn from Ledzekuku Krowo (12.6%), followed by Ashaiman (11%), Ablekuma North (9.2%) and Accra (8.6%). Few of the respondents were drawn from Ga Central (0.4%), Tema (0.8%) and Ga East (1.8%). In addition, the student qualitatively interviewed over 20 top officials (from YEA) and security professionals (in the Nima, Airport Residential area, Kokomelemele, Sabon Zongo, Accra New Town, and Dansoman police Divisions) to buttress the quantitative data.

The age group of these respondents fall within 25-35, 35-45 and 45-55. Of the 20 officials, 8 were females and 12 were males.

Table 4.1 Distribution of respondents by municipal area and sex:

	Male		Female		All	
Location	N	%	N	%	N	%
Accra	34	10.2	10	5.7	44	8.6
Adentan	16	4.8	5	2.8	21	4.1
Ashaiman	29	8.7	27	15.3	56	11
Ga Central	1	0.3	1	0.6	2	0.4
Ga East	8	2.4	1	0.6	9	1.8
Ga North	16	4.8	15	8.5	31	6.1
Ga South	22	6.6	6	3.4	28	5.5
Ga West	25	7.5	15	8.5	40	7.9
La Dadekotopon	10	3	8	4.5	18	3.5
La Nkwantanan-Madina	12	3.6	6	3.4	18	3.5
Ledzokuku Krowo	42	12.6	22	12.5	64	12.6
Tema	2	0.6	2	1.1	4	0.8
Ayawaso East	7	2.1	11	6.3	18	3.5
Ayawaso West	6	1.8	6	3.4	12	2.4
Ayawaso North	6	1.8	9	5.1	15	2.9
Ablekuma West	27	8.1	10	5.7	37	7.3
Ablekuma North	36	10.8	11	6.3	47	9.2
Okaikoi	22	6.6	9	5.1	31	6.1
Weija Gbawe	12	3.6	2	1.1	14	2.8
Total	333	100	176	100	509	100

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

At least, half of the respondents from Ayawaso East (61.1%), Ayawaso North (60%), Ayawaso West (50%), Tema (50%) and Ga Central (50%) were females. However, the majority of the respondents from Ga East (88.9%), Weija Gbawe (85.7%), Ga South (78.6%), Accra (77.3%), Ablekuma North (76.6%), Adentan (76.2%), Ablekuma West (73%) and Okaikoi (71%) were males.

Table 4.2 Distribution of respondents within the municipal areas by sex:

	Male		Female		Total	
Location	N	%	N	%	N	%
Accra	34	77.3	10	22.7	44	100
Adentan	16	76.2	5	23.8	21	100
Ashaiman	29	51.8	27	48.2	56	100
Ga Central	1	50	1	50	2	100
Ga East	8	88.9	1	11.1	9	100
Ga North	16	51.6	15	48.4	31	100
Ga South	22	78.6	6	21.4	28	100
Ga West	25	62.5	15	37.5	40	100
La Dadekotopon	10	55.6	8	44.4	18	100
La Nkwantanan-Madina	12	66.7	6	33.3	18	100
Ledzokuku Krowo	42	65.6	22	34.4	64	100
Tema	2	50	2	50	4	100
Ayawaso East	7	38.9	11	61.1	18	100
Ayawaso West	6	50	6	50	12	100
Ayawaso North	6	40	9	60	15	100
Ablekuma West	27	73	10	27	37	100
Ablekuma North	36	76.6	11	23.4	47	100
Okaikoi	22	71	9	29	31	100
Weija Gbawe	12	85.7	2	14.3	14	100
All	333	65.4	176	34.6	509	100

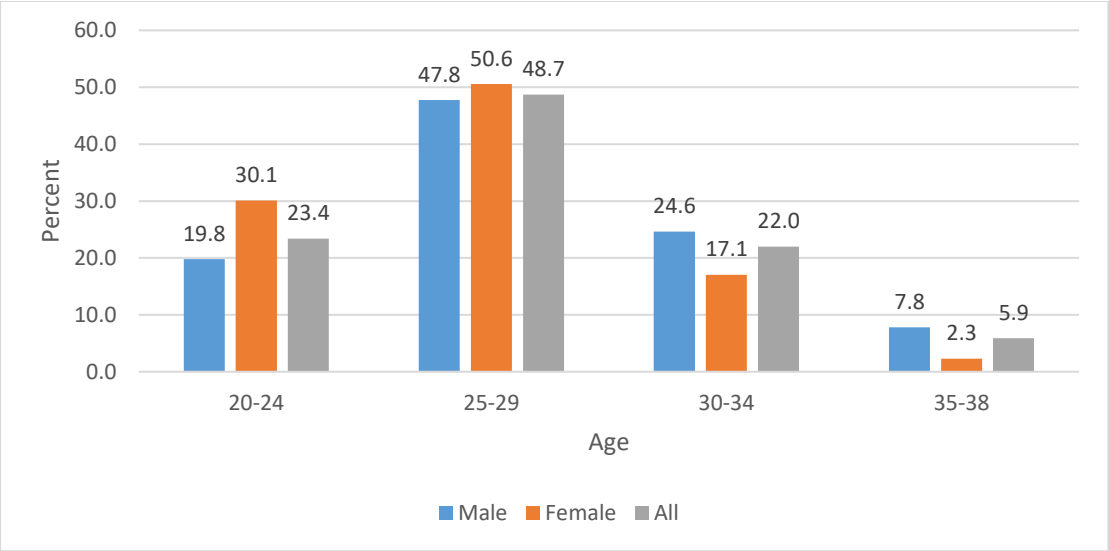
Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

The youngest CPA interviewed was 20 years whilst the oldest was 38 years. But the mean age of the respondents was 27.6 years with a standard deviation of 3.78. Moreover, the average age of the male CPAs was 28 years, slightly higher than that of their female counterparts by 1.5 (approximately, 2) years. This difference was found to be statistically significant at a level of 1 percent given a p-value of 0.000 from a t-test (see table A1 in appendix).

Almost half of the respondents were aged between 25 and 29 years (48.7%). The proportion of female CPAs in this age category slightly outnumbered that of their male counterparts by 2.8 percentage points. A significantly higher proportion of the female CPAs were in the youngest age category that is 20 – 24 years, 10.3 percentage points than their male colleagues. Relatively, the male CPAs dominated the older age brackets of 30 – 34 years and 35 – 38 years;

24.6 percent and 7.8 percent compared to 17.1 percent and 2.3 percent respectively (see figure 4.1). These differences were found to be statistically significant at a level of 1 percent given a p-value of 0.002 from a Pearson's chi-squared test.

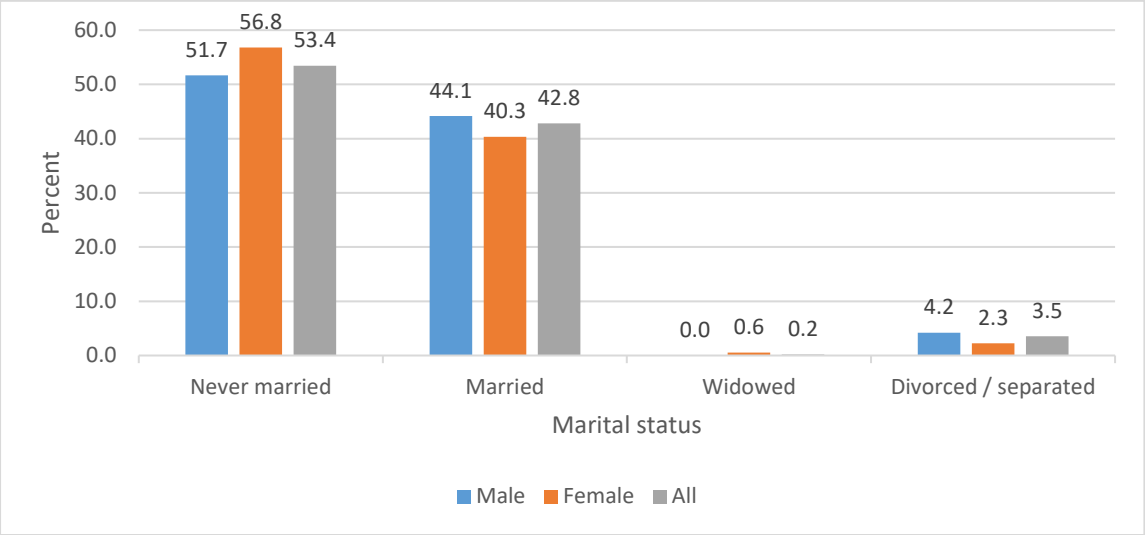
Figure 4.1 Age of CPAs by sex:



Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

As shown in figure 4.2, a little over half of the CPAs were never married but this was slightly prevalent among female CPAs (56.8) than their male counterparts (51.7%). Overall, about two in five CPAs were married. Nearly 4 percentage points in excess of the female proportion were male who were married but these differences were not found to be statistically significant given a p-value of 0.248 from a Fisher's exact test.

Figure 4.2 Marital status of CPAs by sex:



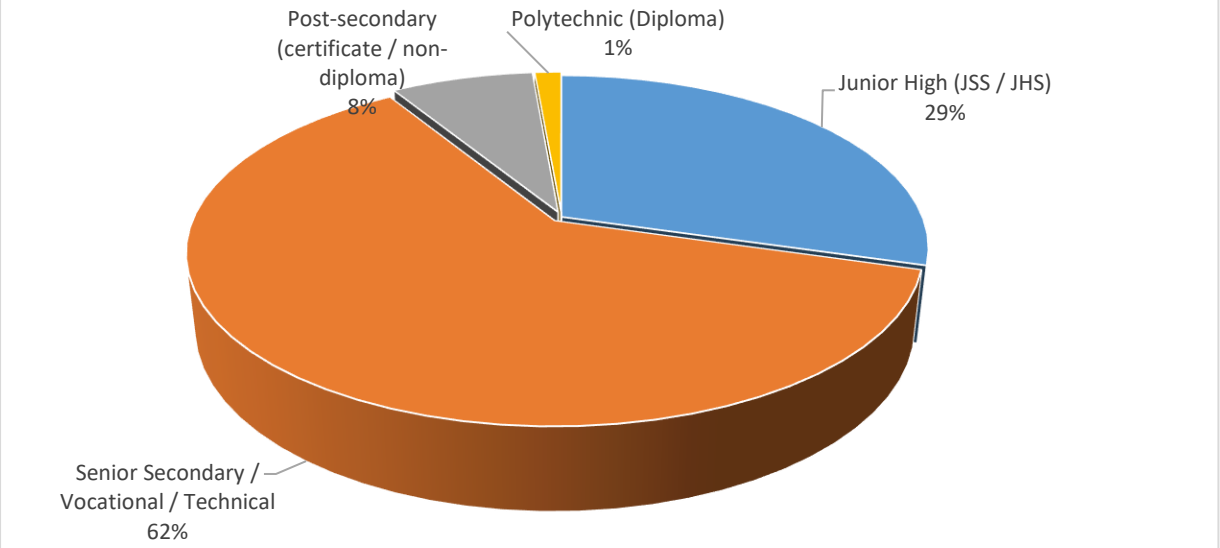
Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

One female was widowed and she had two children. In general, 56.2 percent of the CPAs did not have any children and the proportion of females who had no children was slightly higher (59.7%) than the male CPAs (54.4%). Among those who had children, the average number of children each of them had was 1 with a standard deviation of 0.96. The mean for those who were married was not different from the overall mean but it increased to 2 with a standard deviation of 1.00 among those who were divorced or separated.

The majority of the respondents were Christians (74.5%) followed by Muslims (18.3%), Traditionalists (5.5%) and the non-religious (1.8%). At least one third of the CPAs surveyed were Ga Dangme (37.9%) followed by Akans (35.2%), Ewes (14.9%), Mole-Dagbani (6.1%), and Gonja (1.6%), among others.

Presented in figure 4.3 is the highest educational attainment of the CPAs. About six out of every 10 of the CPAs had a senior secondary / vocational / technical school qualification followed by those with junior secondary school qualification (29.5%).

Figure 4.3 Highest educational level of CPAs:



Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Relatively, the females dominated CPAs with senior secondary / vocational / technical qualification (69.9%) and post-secondary certificate (non-diploma) holders (10.2%) compared to their male counterparts; 57.4% and 6.0% respectively. On the other hand, the males dominated CPAs with junior secondary (34.8%) and polytechnic (diploma) qualifications (1.8%) compared to the female CPAs of 19.3 percent and 0.6 percent respectively. These differences were statistically significant at a level of 1 percent given a p-value of 0.001 from a Fisher's exact test.

Table 4.3 Highest educational level of CPAs by sex:

	Male		Female		All	
Educational level	N	%	N	%	N	%
Junior High (JSS / JHS)	116	34.8	34	19.3	150	29.5
Senior Secondary / Vocational / Technical	191	57.4	123	69.9	314	61.7
Post-secondary (certificate / non-diploma)	20	6	18	10.2	38	7.5
Polytechnic (Diploma)	6	1.8	1	0.6	7	1.4
Total	333	100	176	100	509	100

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Households of the CPAs were predominantly traders (30.1%), artisans (16.3%) and farmers / fishermen (12.4%). Households whose main occupation engaged private sector employees including those in self-employment constituted 18.3 percent of the sample (see table 4.4).

Table 4.4 Main occupation of households of CPAs by gender:

	Male		Female		All	
Occupation	N	%	N	%	N	%
Trader	93	27.9	60	34.1	153	30.1
Artisan	65	19.5	18	10.2	83	16.3
Farmer / fisherman	47	14.1	16	9.1	63	12.4
Private sector employee (informal)	25	7.5	12	6.8	37	7.3
Unemployed	25	7.5	11	6.3	36	7.1
Self-employed	20	6	16	9.1	36	7.1
Public servant	14	4.2	14	8	28	5.5
Teacher	14	4.2	11	6.3	25	4.9
Private sector person (formal employee)	12	3.6	8	4.5	20	3.9
Civil servant	14	4.2	5	2.8	19	3.7
Student	2	0.6	4	2.3	6	1.2
Other	2	0.6	1	0.6	3	0.6
Total	333	100	176	100	509	100

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

About 8.3 percent of the households of the CPAs were not earning any income prior to their employment in the Sixth Module of the YEA. The average monthly household income was estimated to be GH₵788.13 but the minimum was GH₵100 whilst the maximum was GH₵3000. The data showed that households of female CPAs earned higher monthly incomes in excess of GH₵43.60 than households of male CPAs. Additionally, households of CPAs aged 30 – 34 years had the lowest average monthly income of GH₵757.89 with a standard deviation of 507.06 whilst households of CPAs aged 35 – 38 had the highest average monthly income of GH₵914.50 with a standard deviation of 587.03. In general, households in Adentan, La Nkwantanan-Madina, Ayawaso West and Ablekuma West had average monthly incomes of at least GH₵1,000 whereas those in Ayawaso East, Ga West and Ga Central had average

monthly incomes of less than GH₵500. Details of household income of CPAs prior to their engagement with YEA by sex, age and location have been provided in table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Monthly income of households of CPAs by sex, age and location:

Variables	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Sex					
Male	302	772.73	532.41	100	3000
Female	165	816.33	598.02	100	3000
Age					
20 - 24	102	804.45	558.18	100	2500
25 - 29	228	779.77	574.97	100	3000
30 - 34	109	757.89	507.06	200	3000
35 - 38	28	914.50	587.03	200	2500
Location					
Accra	38	902.89	464.29	250	2000
Adentan	21	1352.38	443.42	600	2500
Ashaiman	55	948.18	800.98	100	3000
Ga Central	1	200.00		200	200
Ga East	8	550.00	162.57	350	800
Ga North	31	503.23	213.67	250	1000
Ga South	20	890.00	526.06	300	2000
Ga West	40	387.50	155.97	200	1000
La Dadekotopon	16	841.63	541.73	208	2000
La Nkwantanan-Madina	18	1183.33	406.20	600	2000
Ledzokuku Krowo	58	573.42	497.62	100	2000
Tema	4	525.00	330.40	300	1000
Ayawaso East	18	420.00	168.80	150	800
Ayawaso West	12	1108.33	535.06	500	2000
Ayawaso North	15	536.67	217.51	200	1000
Ablekuma West	31	1089.74	678.32	150	3000
Ablekuma North	40	956.15	578.95	200	3000
Okaikoi	29	723.31	328.60	300	1800
Weija Gbawe	12	638.33	254.05	300	1200
All	467	788.1333	556.2259	100	3000

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

5.2. EMPLOYMENT ASPECTS OF THE YOUTH UNDER THE YEA'S 6TH MODULE:

The respondents were asked to state their immediate previous employment and the results showed that almost a quarter of the respondents were artisans (23.2%), followed by other

informal private sector employees (14.2%), traders (12.2%) and the self-employed (7.9%). On the other hand, 15.7 percent of them were completely idle (i.e. unemployed) whilst 14.5 percent were students who just passed out of school.

They were also asked to indicate their income level prior to their current employment. The data showed that the CPAs were earning, on average, GH₵467.48 each month. Male CPAs, prior to their current employment, received higher mean values of income than female CPAs in the various occupations they engaged in except formal employees in the private sector where female CPAs had a mean income of GH₵45.87 in excess of what the male CPAs earned. Overall, the male CPAs earned GH₵95.30 above what their female counterparts earned in their previous employment.

Table 4.6 Income levels of CPAs in their previous employment:

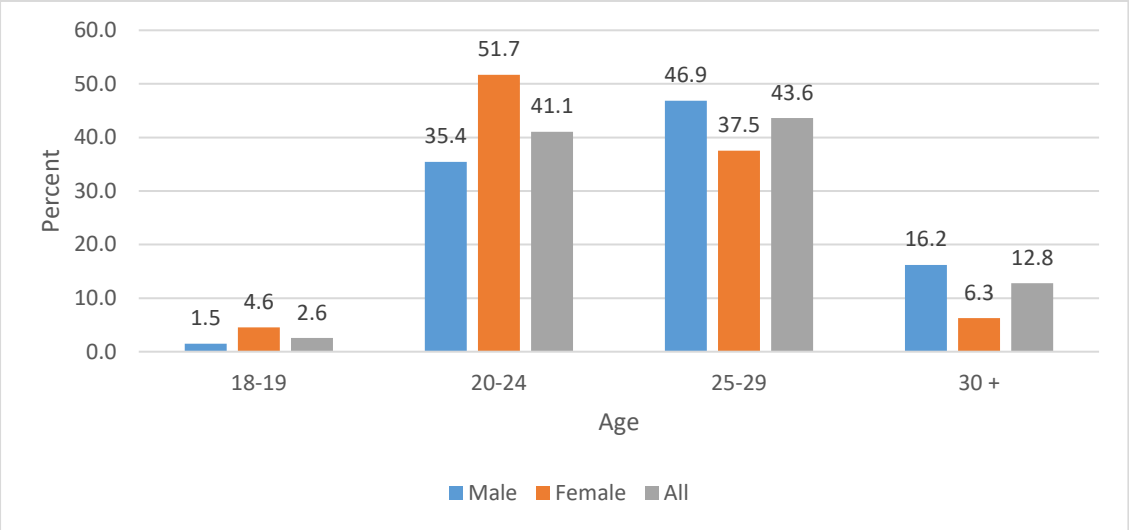
	Male			Female			All		
Occupation	N	Mean	Std. dev	N	Mean	Std. dev	N	Mean	Std. dev
Farmer / fisherman	22	438.86	191.06	3	416.67	236.29	25	436.20	191.44
Trader	31	458.24	224.89	31	399.19	205.69	62	428.72	215.79
Artisan	84	538.10	195.66	33	464.35	192.57	117	517.30	196.80
Student	7	187.29	177.70	9	155.56	76.83	16	169.44	126.66
Private sector person (formal employee)	28	599.46	157.83	9	645.33	206.63	37	610.62	169.03
Self-employed	22	386.02	172.17	18	374.44	227.24	40	380.81	196.22
Private sector employee (informal)	53	527.08	209.34	19	332.79	220.01	72	475.81	227.61
Unemployed	3	366.67	202.07	0	-	-	3	366.67	202.07
All	250	498.74	209.26	122	403.44	223.03	372	467.48	218.23

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

As at the time the CPAs were being absorbed into the 6th Module, the males were aged 25 years with a standard deviation of 3 whilst the females were aged 24 years also with a standard deviation of 3. The youngest persons as at that time for both sexes were 18 years whilst the oldest were 35 years. Over half of the female CPAs were aged between 20 and 24 years at the time of recruitment compared to a little over one-third of the male CPAs. The male CPAs,

however, dominated the age brackets of 25 – 29 and 30 years and above at the time of their engagement (see figure 4.4). These differences were found to be statistically significant at a level of 1 percent given a p-value of 0.000 from a Pearson's chi-squared test.

Figure 4.4 Age of CPAs during recruitment by sex:



Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

The CPAs receive a uniform amount of GH₵400 as salary from the National Youth Employment Agency. Less than 1 percent of the CPAs indicated they were very satisfied with their salary whilst about 8.1 percent said they were fairly satisfied with it. Majority of them were dissatisfied – fairly dissatisfied (39.5%) and very dissatisfied (37.9%). Essentially, only 9 percent of the CPAs were satisfied with their salary. It is interesting to note that the highly educated ones among the CPAs were more satisfied with their salary than the less educated as the proportion of those satisfied increased from 6.0 percent to 14.3 percent for the junior high school leavers and polytechnic (diploma) certificate holders respectively. On the other hand, apart from those aged 35 – 38 years, the level of satisfaction with salary dropped as age increased (see table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Satisfaction with salary by sex and age:

	Not satisfied		Satisfied		Total	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	304	91.3	29	8.7	333	100
Female	159	90.3	17	9.7	176	100
Age						
20-24	99	21.4	20	43.5	119	23.4
25-29	228	49.2	20	43.5	248	48.7
30-34	109	23.5	3	6.5	112	22
35-38	27	5.8	3	6.5	30	5.9
Education						
Junior High (JSS / JHS / MSLC)	141	94	9	6	150	100
Senior Secondary / Vocational / Technical	282	89.8	32	10.2	314	100
Post-secondary (certificate / non-diploma)	34	89.5	4	10.5	38	100
Polytechnic (Diploma)	6	85.7	1	14.3	7	100
Total	463	100	46	100	509	100

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

They were asked whether they intend to exit the program before the two years expire and about 19.3 percent of them responded in the affirmative whereas half of them said no.

A slightly higher proportion of the female respondents (21%) would exit compared to their male counterparts (18.3%). With the exception of those aged, 20 – 24 years, the proportion of CPAs who plan to exit the program before the end of the two years increased with their age groups. A similar pattern was observed for educational levels as few of the less educated plan to exit the program compared to the more educated ones (see table 4.8).

Table 4.8 Intentions of CPAs to exit program before expiration:

	Yes		No		Haven't decided		Total	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex								
Male	61	18.3	183	55	89	26.7	333	100
Female	37	21	73	41.5	66	37.5	176	100
Age								
20-24	30	25.2	55	46.2	34	28.6	119	100
25-29	42	16.9	136	54.8	70	28.2	248	100
30-34	19	17	52	46.4	41	36.6	112	100
35-38	7	23.3	13	43.3	10	33.3	30	100
Education								
Junior High (JSS / JHS / MSLC)	20	13.3	88	58.7	42	28	150	100
Senior Secondary / Vocational / Technical	65	20.7	153	48.7	96	30.6	314	100
Post-secondary (certificate / non-diploma)	11	28.9	13	34.2	14	36.8	38	100
Polytechnic (Diploma)	2	28.6	2	28.6	3	42.9	7	100
Total	98	19.3	256	50.3	155	30.5	509	100

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Most of those who plan to exit would do so because of the low salary (60.2%), followed by those who would leave for further studies (12.2%) as well as those not just satisfied with the work (11.2%). A few of them would leave for other jobs (9.2%) or other personal reasons (7.1%).

Nearly half of the respondents (48.9%) knew others who have already exited or intend to exit the program before the expiration of the two years. About 6 out of every 10 of these had left due to low salary. Other reasons include not satisfied with the work (11.2%), new job offer (11.2%) and personal reasons (12.1%), among others. In fact, interviews with top YEA and GPS shows that low wages and salaries have demotivated most CPAs to give out their best at the duty posts. The CPAs were asked whether they have been trained on how to setup their own businesses. The results showed that 28.3 percent have been trained on how to establish their own businesses. Proportionately, more female CPAs have been trained on how to setup their own business than the male CPAs; excess proportion of 6.3 percentage points. The proportion of CPAs who had received training to establish their businesses increased as age and educational levels increased. Two thirds of the respondents from Adentan, La

Nkwantanan-Madina, Ayawaso West and Ayawaso North had received such training whereas none of those from Weija Gbawe, Ga East and Ga Central had it.

Table 4.8 CPAs trained on how to set-up their own businesses by sex, age, education level and location:

	Yes		No		Total	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	87	26.1	246	73.9	333	100
Female	57	32.4	119	67.6	176	100
Age						
20-24	23	19.3	96	80.7	119	100
25-29	68	27.4	180	72.6	248	100
30-34	39	34.8	73	65.2	112	100
35-38	14	46.7	16	53.3	30	100
Education						
Junior High (JSS / JHS / MSLC)	40	26.7	110	73.3	150	100
Senior Secondary / Vocational / Technical	89	28.3	225	71.7	314	100
Post-secondary (certificate / non-diploma)	12	31.6	26	68.4	38	100
Polytechnic (Diploma)	3	42.9	4	57.1	7	100
Location						
Accra	10	22.7	34	77.3	44	100
Adentan	14	66.7	7	33.3	21	100
Ashaiman	9	16.1	47	83.9	56	100
Ga Central	0	0	2	100	2	100
Ga East	0	0	9	100	9	100
Ga North	12	38.7	19	61.3	31	100
Ga South	1	3.6	27	96.4	28	100
Ga West	31	77.5	9	22.5	40	100
La Dadekotopon	7	38.9	11	61.1	18	100
La Nkwantanan-Madina	12	66.7	6	33.3	18	100
Ledzokuku Krowo	7	10.9	57	89.1	64	100
Tema	1	25	3	75	4	100
Ayawaso East	7	38.9	11	61.1	18	100
Ayawaso West	8	66.7	4	33.3	12	100
Ayawaso North	10	66.7	5	33.3	15	100
Ablekuma West	4	10.8	33	89.2	37	100
Ablekuma North	6	12.8	41	87.2	47	100
Okaikoi	5	16.1	26	83.9	31	100
Weija Gbawe	0	0	14	100	14	100
Total	144	28.3	365	71.7	509	100

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

About 41.9 percent of the CPAs revealed YEA provides beneficiaries with some special fund after exit whereas 17.3 percent had no idea of any such special funds. A little over one-third (37.1%) of those who were aware that YEA provides beneficiaries with an exit fund were optimistic the fund would help them set up their own businesses. Most of the respondents would use the exit fund to set up their own businesses (63.8%) whilst 18.8 percent would use it to fund their higher education. A few of the junior high school leavers would use the exit fund to further their education; most of them would use it to establish a business. The proportion of those who would use it to further their education increased as the educational level of respondents increased with the exception of those with polytechnic (diploma) qualification. On the other hand, the proportion of those who would commit the exit fund into a new business reduced as educational levels of respondents increased with the exception of those with polytechnic (diploma) qualification. Furthermore, apart from those who were aged 35 years or older, the proportion of CPAs who would use the exit fund to establish new businesses increased as age of respondents increased (see table 4.9).

Table 4.9 CPAs use of special exit fund by sex, age and educational level:

	Business		Further education		Other		Total	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex								
Male	82	63.1	22	16.9	26	20	130	100
Female	54	65.1	18	21.7	11	13.3	83	100
Age								
20-24	14	37.8	18	48.6	5	13.5	37	100
25-29	76	67.3	21	18.6	16	14.2	113	100
30-34	41	75.9	1	1.9	12	22.2	54	100
35-38	5	55.6	0	0	4	44.4	9	100
Education								
Junior High (JSS / JHS / MSLC)	47	67.1	8	11.4	15	21.4	70	100
Senior Secondary / Vocational / Technical	77	62.1	27	21.8	20	16.1	124	100
Post-secondary (certificate / non-diploma)	11	61.1	5	27.8	2	11.1	18	100
Polytechnic (Diploma)	1	100	0	0	0	0	1	100
Total	136	63.8	40	18.8	37	17.4	213	100

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

The Majority of the CPAs thought of joining the nation's security force (79.0%) whilst the rest would venture into self-employment (11.0%), or work with a private company (4.9%), among others. More male CPAs preferred to be in the nation's security force (84.1%) to self-employment (6.9%) whereas relatively higher proportion of the female CPAs preferred to be in self-employment (18.8%) to being with the nation's security force (69.3%). With the exception of those aged 30 – 34 years, the proportion of CPAs that sought to remain with the nation's security force increased as the age of the CPAs increased. On the other hand, the proportion of the CPAs that wanted to be with the nation's security force decreased as the level of education increased with the exception of those with polytechnic (diploma) qualifications (see table 4.10).

Table 4.10 Employment prospects of CPAs after exit by sex, age and educational level:

	Nation security force		Self-employment		Work with private companies		Other	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex								
Male	280	84.1	23	6.9	19	5.7	11	3.3
Female	122	69.3	33	18.8	6	3.4	15	8.5
Age								
20-24	81	68.1	10	8.4	10	8.4	18	15.1
25-29	206	83.1	29	11.7	8	3.2	5	2
30-34	87	77.7	17	15.2	7	6.3	1	0.9
35-38	28	93.3	0	0	0	0	2	6.7
Education								
Junior High (JSS / JHS / MSLC)	122	81.3	13	8.7	9	6	6	4
Senior Secondary / Vocational / Technical	247	78.7	35	11.1	14	4.5	18	5.7
Post-secondary (certificate / non-diploma)	27	71.1	7	18.4	2	5.3	2	5.3
Polytechnic (Diploma)	6	85.7	1	14.3	0	0	0	0
Total	402	79	56	11	25	4.9	26	5.1

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Almost half (47.2%) of the respondents were of the view that acquisition of land in setting up their businesses was a problem.

Indeed, in-depth interviews with top security experts showed that the training provides the CPAs with the skills needed to go into most public and private security services in Ghana. This,

according to them, puts the CPAs ahead of the non-CPAs in the job market. To them, the CPAs, for example, may easily gain employment into the Ghana Police and Military Services more than the non-CPAs applicant. Besides, the creation of YEA Job Portals and YEA Job Centre forms part of efforts to ensure CPAs employment security after exit. The aim of this initiative, according to The YEA Job Centre, is "connecting the youth to job opportunities" in Ghana. In effect, the participants can subscribe to these programs to facilitate their movement into the next level in the job market. Others have, however, indicated that YEA needs to do more to ensure CPAs' employment security in Ghana.

The respondents were asked whether YEA provides them with guidance and counselling services on how to stay employed and only one in every five of the CPAs responded in the affirmative. A significantly lower proportion of the females CPAs affirmed that YEA has provided them with that service compared to their male counterparts; 13.6% and 24.3% respectively. As much as 10.8 percent of the CPAs had no idea whether that service was available at YEA at all. At least, half of the CPAs from Ga East, Okaikoi and Weija Gbawe indicated they have benefited from that service from YEA compared to only 3.2 percent of CPAs from Ga North and none from Adentan, Ga Central and Ayawaso North (see table 4.11). Interviews with top YEA and GPS officials shows that the CPAs are often given guidance and counselling services during the training period. To others, however, guidance and counselling services are mostly informal, often provided by individuals who encounter these personnel. Like the CPAs, YEA and GPS officials are not very sure about the delivery of guidance and counselling services under the sixth module.

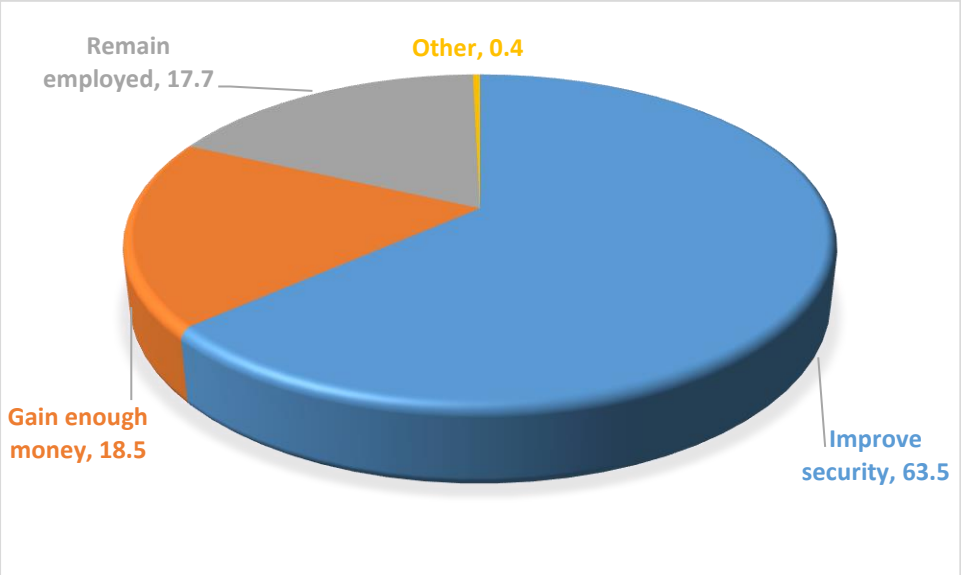
Table 4.11 YEA offer guidance and counselling services to CPAs:

	Yes		No		Don't know		Total	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex								
Male	81	24.3	227	68.2	25	7.5	333	100
Female	24	13.6	122	69.3	30	17	176	100
Total	105	20.6	349	68.6	55	10.8	509	100
Location								
Accra	14	31.8	24	54.5	6	13.6	44	100
Adentan	0	0	19	90.5	2	9.5	21	100
Ashaiman	7	12.5	32	57.1	17	30.4	56	100
Ga Central	0	0	2	100	0	0	2	100
Ga East	8	88.9	1	11.1	0	0	9	100
Ga North	1	3.2	30	96.8	0	0	31	100
Ga South	2	7.1	24	85.7	2	7.1	28	100
Ga West	6	15	32	80	2	5	40	100
La Dadekotopon	3	16.7	13	72.2	2	11.1	18	100
La Nkwantanan-Madina	1	5.6	11	61.1	6	33.3	18	100
Ledzokuku Krowo	7	10.9	49	76.6	8	12.5	64	100
Tema	3	75	1	25	0	0	4	100
Ayawaso East	3	16.7	10	55.6	5	27.8	18	100
Ayawaso West	5	41.7	6	50	1	8.3	12	100
Ayawaso North	0	0	15	100	0	0	15	100
Ablekuma West	8	21.6	26	70.3	3	8.1	37	100
Ablekuma North	13	27.7	33	70.2	1	2.1	47	100
Okaikoi	17	54.8	14	45.2	0	0	31	100
Weija Gbawe	7	50	7	50	0	0	14	100
Total	105	20.6	349	68.6	55	10.8	509	100

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

The core objective for almost two-thirds of the CPAs in the service was to improve security (63.5%) followed by gain enough money (18.5%) and remain employed (17.7%). Most of the male CPAs (68.5%) had this objective compared to 54 percent of their female colleagues. Further analysis of the data also showed that the proportion of CPAs whose main objective in the service was to improve security increased as age increased, thus 51.3%, 65.3%, 69.6% and 73.3% for 20-24, 25-29, 30-34 and 35-38 years respectively.

Figure 4.7 Personal objective of CPAs in the 6th Module:



Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

On the question of whether they have an association, only 5.5 percent said they had an association and 4.3 of the CPAs were members of such associations. One name came out clear, Nationwide CPA, but the other names seem to be social media channels purposely for communication. Over 44 percent of the respondents revealed they had leaders but only 16.2 percent of those who indicated they had leaders stated YEA allows their leaders to represent them on the various boards and departments. Interaction with top YEA and GPS showed that the system does not allow the CPA and its leadership, if any, to sit on YEA and GPS boards. This suggests that YEA and GPS do not involve the CPAs in their decision making in Ghana.

5.3. COMMUNITY POLICING UNDER THE YEA'S 6TH MODULE:

This section critically looks at community policing, primarily the activities of the CPA in the line of duty. The CPAs were asked to rank the types of crimes they are mostly confronted with in their communities or duty post. Robbery (30.5%) topped the list in the first rank followed by traffic offenses (23.6%), smoking of marijuana/cocaine (19.5%) and quarrelling (12.0%), among others. Rape / defilement (6.1%), trafficking (4.7%), excessively drinking of alcohol

(2%) and general assault (0.8) were the least reported offenses. The aggregate rank of all the crimes followed the same pattern as offenses in the first rank. Traffic offenses were ranked first among the crimes committed in Accra, Adentan, Ga Central, Ga East, Ga South and Ga West whereas robbery was the most common among crimes committed in Ashaiman, La Dadekotopon, La Nkwantanan Madina, Ledzokuku Krowo, Tema, Ayawaso West, Ablekuma West and Weija Gbawe. Smoking of marijuana / cocaine was quite prominent in Ga North, Ayawaso East, Ayawaso North and Okaikoi whilst quarrelling topped the crimes in Ablekuma North. Finally, rape/defilement topped the list in areas such as Ga East, Ga West and Ayawaso East.

Table 4.12 Distribution of common offenses by location:

Location	Robbery	Rape / defilement	Traffic offenses	Trafficking	Quarrelling	Smoking of marijuana / cocaine	Excessive drinking of strong alcohol	Others
Accra	54.6	52.3	79.6	2.3	27.3	27.3	0.0	2.3
Adentan	52.4	4.8	81.0	0.0	0.0	28.6	0.0	0.0
Ashaiman	53.6	0.0	12.5	3.6	10.7	48.2	8.9	3.6
Ga Central	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	0.0
Ga East	77.8	66.7	88.9	0.0	88.9	0.0	33.3	11.1
Ga North	32.3	0.0	74.2	51.6	77.4	77.4	6.5	0.0
Ga South	53.6	28.6	60.7	14.3	53.6	53.6	17.9	32.1
Ga West	77.5	55.0	95.0	70.0	95.0	92.5	57.5	2.5
La Dadekotopon	72.2	16.7	44.4	16.7	33.3	44.4	5.6	5.6
La Nkwantanan Madina	83.3	27.8	33.3	0.0	0.0	55.6	0.0	0.0
Ledzokuku Krowo	59.4	23.4	37.5	3.1	15.6	21.9	15.6	3.1
Tema	100.0	0.0	75.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	0.0
Ayawaso East	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	27.8
Ayawaso West	91.7	25.0	25.0	0.0	8.3	50.0	0.0	8.3
Ayawaso North	60.0	0.0	80.0	60.0	86.7	100.0	20.0	0.0
Ablekuma West	51.4	10.8	21.6	2.7	37.8	40.5	5.4	8.1
Ablekuma North	57.5	21.3	34.0	4.3	59.6	46.8	6.4	12.8
Okaikoi	54.8	6.5	38.7	3.2	41.9	77.4	0.0	0.0
Weija Gbawe	100.0	21.4	35.7	0.0	92.9	50.0	14.3	0.0
Total	61.5	24.2	51.5	17.3	43.0	51.1	15.5	6.3

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Among a list of seven items, the CPAs were asked to indicate the ones that their training equips them to perform in their duty post by ranking them. Gaining control over managing traffic offenses dominated the first rank (33.1%), followed by control of robbery (31.5%), control of rape / defilement (15.0%), and quarrelling (11.0%). The complete rank showed that the CPAs could first control traffic offenses followed by robbery, quarrelling, rape / defilement, smoking of marijuana / cocaine, excessive drinking of strong alcohol, and last but not the least, trafficking. Further analysis of the data showed that the male CPAs had an upper hand on control of robbery compared to the female CPAs who also had upper hand on control of traffic offenses. In fact, interaction with top GPS officials showed that the training requires all recruits to converge in particular training camps. The Ghana Police Service's top professionals help to train the CPAs under strict protocols; guidelines and discipline, marking it more credible and trustworthy. Indeed, the training given to the CPAs is the same as the one given to the national police recruits. To most of the respondents, however, the training is mostly carried out within two-weeks, making it less *effective* and *productive*.

At least, 87.9 percent of the CPAs indicated the cooperation from the community was good. The level of cooperation from the community was, however, not encouraging at Ashaiman and Tema as about half of the respondents indicated it was poor. A slightly higher proportion of the male CPAs received the cooperation of the community members than their female counterparts; a marginal deference of 4.6 percentage points. On the other hand, those aged 20 – 24 years were the least to receive the support of the community members as 21 percent rated it poor compared to 10 percent of those aged 35 – 38 years (see table 4.13).

Table 4.13 Level of cooperation from community members:

	Excellent		Very good		Good		Poor		Very poor	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex										
Male	61	18.3	101	30.3	126	37.8	31	9.3	14	4.2
Female	34	19.3	38	21.6	72	40.9	28	15.9	4	2.3
Age										
20-24	14	11.8	30	25.2	50	42	21	17.6	4	3.4
25-29	49	19.8	69	27.8	97	39.1	26	10.5	7	2.8
30-34	27	24.1	28	25	41	36.6	9	8	7	6.3
35-38	5	16.7	12	40	10	33.3	3	10	0	0
Location										
Accra	0	0	18	40.9	21	47.7	2	4.5	3	6.8
Adentan	0	0	2	9.5	14	66.7	3	14.3	2	9.5
Ashaiman	0	0	4	7.1	25	44.6	23	41.1	4	7.1
Ga Central	1	50	0	0	1	50	0	0	0	0
Ga East	1	11.1	1	11.1	6	66.7	1	11.1	0	0
Ga North	17	54.8	8	25.8	5	16.1	1	3.2	0	0
Ga South	0	0	12	42.9	8	28.6	7	25	1	3.6
Ga West	28	70	11	27.5	0	0	1	2.5	0	0
La Dadekotopon	5	27.8	8	44.4	5	27.8	0	0	0	0
La Nkwantanan-Madina	0	0	3	16.7	8	44.4	6	33.3	1	5.6
Ledzokuku Krowo	5	7.8	6	9.4	40	62.5	7	10.9	6	9.4
Tema	0	0	0	0	2	50	2	50	0	0
Ayawaso East	4	22.2	6	33.3	8	44.4	0	0	0	0
Ayawaso West	0	0	1	8.3	8	66.7	3	25	0	0
Ayawaso North	8	53.3	4	26.7	3	20	0	0	0	0
Ablekuma West	8	21.6	15	40.5	13	35.1	0	0	1	2.7
Ablekuma North	5	10.6	24	51.1	17	36.2	1	2.1	0	0
Okaikoi	13	41.9	8	25.8	9	29	1	3.2	0	0
Weija Gbawe	0	0	8	57.1	5	35.7	1	7.1	0	0
Total	95	18.7	139	27.3	198	38.9	59	11.6	18	3.5

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

This cooperation was mostly seen in community members helping to provide information on criminal activities (93.5%), helping to arrest criminals and handing them over to the CPAs (13.5%), whilst a few of them provided the CPAs with food and tips (1.3%).

The respondents were asked whether they were satisfied with the training given to them by the Ghana Police Service. A greater proportion of the CPAs were fairly satisfied (41.1%) with the

training they received whilst 15.2 percent were very satisfied. On the other hand, a few of them were very dissatisfied (2.4%). A quarter of the CPAs remained neutral to the level of training satisfaction. Relatively, a slightly higher proportion of the male CPAs (61.9%) were satisfied (both satisfied and very satisfied) with the training compared to 46.6 percent of the female CPAs. All CPAs from La Dadekotopon and Okaikoi were satisfied with the training they received compared to none from Ga Central and Tema.

Table 4.14 Level of satisfaction with training given to CPAs:

	Very satisfied		Satisfied		Neutral		Dissatisfied		Very dissatisfied	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex										
Male	52	15.6	154	46.2	69	20.7	52	15.6	6	1.8
Female	27	15.3	55	31.3	62	35.2	26	14.8	6	3.4
Age										
20-24	14	11.8	47	39.5	36	30.3	20	16.8	2	1.7
25-29	44	17.7	100	40.3	55	22.2	41	16.5	8	3.2
30-34	14	12.5	49	43.8	33	29.5	14	12.5	2	1.8
35-38	7	23.3	13	43.3	7	23.3	3	10	0	0
Location										
Accra	6	13.6	31	70.5	7	15.9	0	0	0	0
Adentan	0	0	13	61.9	8	38.1	0	0	0	0
Ashaiman	0	0	5	8.9	29	51.8	18	32.1	4	7.1
Ga Central	0	0	0	0	2	100	0	0	0	0
Ga East	2	22.2	6	66.7	1	11.1	0	0	0	0
Ga North	0	0	6	19.4	8	25.8	15	48.4	2	6.5
Ga South	1	3.6	19	67.9	1	3.6	7	25	0	0
Ga West	0	0	14	35	17	42.5	7	17.5	2	5
La Dadekotopon	12	66.7	6	33.3	0	0	0	0	0	0
La Nkwantanan-Madina	0	0	10	55.6	8	44.4	0	0	0	0
Ledzokuku Krowo	3	4.7	16	25	31	48.4	13	20.3	1	1.6
Tema	0	0	0	0	2	50	2	50	0	0
Ayawaso East	6	33.3	9	50	3	16.7	0	0	0	0
Ayawaso West	2	16.7	5	41.7	5	41.7	0	0	0	0
Ayawaso North	0	0	2	13.3	5	33.3	7	46.7	1	6.7
Ablekuma West	14	37.8	15	40.5	0	0	6	16.2	2	5.4
Ablekuma North	11	23.4	30	63.8	3	6.4	3	6.4	0	0
Okaikoi	20	64.5	11	35.5	0	0	0	0	0	0
Weija Gbawe	2	14.3	11	78.6	1	7.1	0	0	0	0
Total	79	15.5	209	41.1	131	25.7	78	15.3	12	2.4

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

The CPAs were asked whether they receive in-and-on-the-job training and the survey results showed that a higher proportion of the male CPAs (excess of 8.6 percentage points) received regular in-and-on-the-job training than the female CPAs. But, in general, one out of every four CPAs received this kind of training. All CPAs in Weija Gbawe and majority of those in Ga East (88.9%) and Ga South (85.7%) received in-and-on-the-job training whereas none of those in Adentan, Ga Central, Ga North, Ga West, Ayawaso North, Ablekuma West and Okaikoi received these kind of training (see table 4.15). The majority of those who received in-and-on-the-job training were satisfied (89%).

Table 4.15 CPAs who receive regular in-and-on-the-job training:

	Yes		No	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Sex				
Male	93	27.9	240	72.1
Female	34	19.3	142	80.7
Age				
20-24	28	23.5	91	76.5
25-29	73	29.4	175	70.6
30-34	20	17.9	92	82.1
35-38	6	20	24	80
Location				
Accra	24	54.5	20	45.5
Adentan	0	0	21	100
Ashaiman	3	5.4	53	94.6
Ga Central	0	0	2	100
Ga East	8	88.9	1	11.1
Ga North	0	0	31	100
Ga South	24	85.7	4	14.3
Ga West	0	0	40	100
La Dadekotopon	3	16.7	15	83.3
La Nkwantanan-Madina	1	5.6	17	94.4
Ledzokuku Krowo	12	18.8	52	81.3
Tema	1	25	3	75
Ayawaso East	10	55.6	8	44.4
Ayawaso West	1	8.3	11	91.7
Ayawaso North	0	0	15	100
Ablekuma West	0	0	37	100
Ablekuma North	26	55.3	21	44.7
Okaikoi	0	0	31	100
Weija Gbawe	14	100	0	0

	Yes		No	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Total	127	25	382	75

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Among the methods used to control crime are patrolling, mounting snap check-points, prosecution of offenders, effective management of tip-offs from informants, relaying information to superiors on time, prompt response to superiors' instructions, conducting effective investigations and implementing effective traffic control measures among others.

The majority of the CPAs (80.6%) agreed that they have contributed towards crime reduction in their areas with 32.4 percent agreeing to a higher extent. The results also showed that all the respondents in Accra, Adentan, Ayawaso East, Ayawaso North and Weija Gbawe believed they have helped to reduce crime in their areas.

Table 4.16 CPAs who have helped to reduce crime in their areas:

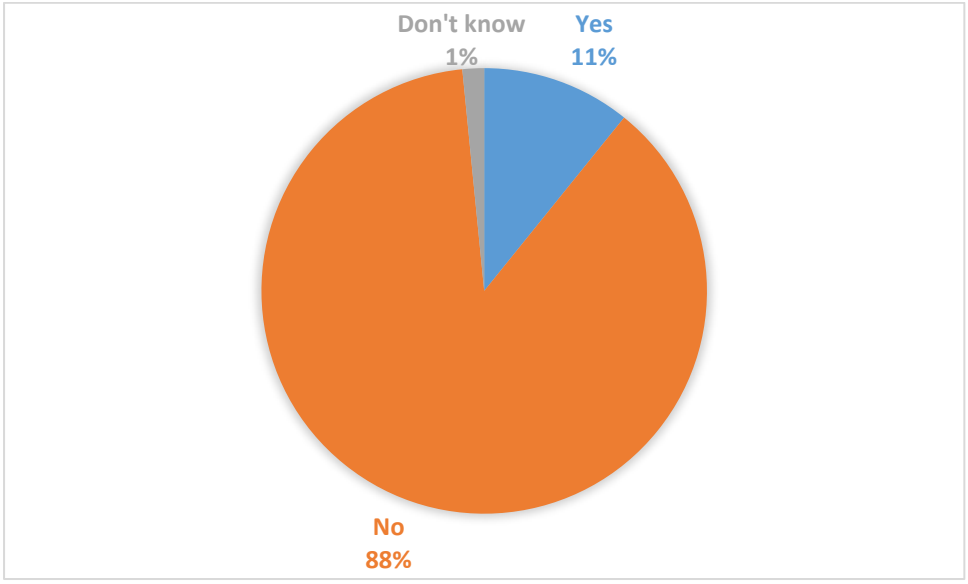
	Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex										
Male	118	35.4	165	49.5	30	9	19	5.7	1	0.3
Female	47	26.7	80	45.5	39	22.2	8	4.5	2	1.1
Age										
20-24	23	19.3	60	50.4	25	21	9	7.6	2	1.7
25-29	89	35.9	116	46.8	30	12.1	12	4.8	1	0.4
30-34	39	34.8	55	49.1	13	11.6	5	4.5	0	0
35-38	14	46.7	14	46.7	1	3.3	1	3.3	0	0
Location										
Accra	11	25	33	75	0	0	0	0	0	0
Adentan	1	4.8	20	95.2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ashaiman	2	3.6	20	35.7	22	39.3	10	17.9	2	3.6
Ga Central	0	0	0	0	1	50	1	50	0	0
Ga East	6	66.7	2	22.2	1	11.1	0	0	0	0
Ga North	22	71	6	19.4	1	3.2	2	6.5	0	0
Ga South	7	25	20	71.4	0	0	1	3.6	0	0
Ga West	34	85	3	7.5	3	7.5	0	0	0	0
La Dadekotopon	5	27.8	12	66.7	1	5.6	0	0	0	0
La Nkwantanan-Madina	3	16.7	14	77.8	1	5.6	0	0	0	0
Ledzokuku Krowo	6	9.4	27	42.2	22	34.4	8	12.5	1	1.6

	Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Tema	0	0	1	25	2	50	1	25	0	0
Ayawaso East	16	88.9	2	11.1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ayawaso West	2	16.7	5	41.7	5	41.7	0	0	0	0
Ayawaso North	11	73.3	4	26.7	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ablekuma West	13	35.1	19	51.4	2	5.4	3	8.1	0	0
Ablekuma North	10	21.3	35	74.5	1	2.1	1	2.1	0	0
Okaikoi	9	29	15	48.4	7	22.6	0	0	0	0
Weija Gbawe	7	50	7	50	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	165	32.4	245	48.1	69	13.6	27	5.3	3	0.6

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

The majority of the CPAs did not have the power to make and implement some decisions without having to consult their supervisors. About one out of every ten of them could make and implement some decisions without having to consult their supervisors (see figure 4.8). Proportionately, a lot more male CPAs (13.8%) could do this compared to their female counterpart (5.1%). This segment of CPAs were mostly found in Ga East (77.8%), Ablekuma West (32.4%), Okaikoi (29%) and La Dadekotopon (27.8%). In this regard, they could make arrests and hand suspects to superiors, direct traffic, go on foot patrol in the community, as well as resolve petty civil cases that need not to be filed such as quarrelling, among others.

Figure 4.8 Authority to make and implement some decisions by CPAs:



Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Hierarchically, the qualitative interviews identified a centralized command structure, consisting of the national police service on top, followed by the directors of YEA and, then, the CPAs. Clearly, this shows that 'power' is concentrated at the top—shared between the Ghana Police Service and YEA, leaving the CPAs with virtually 'nothing'. Still, this shows that the CPAs do not have the power to take and implement decisions during critical moments. One of the respondents, for example, remarked that "Little or no power is given to the CPAs per the information I received".

The CPAs were asked whether, in their opinion, the command structures should be decentralized to allow CPAs to take and implement some decisions. But then, the majority of them (80.2%) thought otherwise. On the other, 14.8 percent suggested they should be allowed to make and implement some decisions by decentralizing the command structures. There was no significant variation between the proportion of female and male CPAs who opted for this; 15.6 percent and 14.3 percent respectively. They believed this will grant them the power to make some quick decisions in times of emergency, to make instant arrest, to go on operations, and to earn respect from the community.

On the issue of whether the CPAs hold regular meetings with the communities in order to educate them on crime prevention and control, 12.4 percent of the CPAs had this and a slightly higher proportion of the male CPAs (13.5%) were involved in these meetings than their female counterparts (10.2%). Such meetings were usually done in Ayawaso East, Okaikoi, Ablekuma West, Ablekuma North and La Dadekotopon. Other districts who also held such sensitization meetings were Ashaiman, Ga South, Ledzokuku Krowo and Ayawaso West. In fact, during qualitative interviews with the GPS, one of the top officials noted that "The CPAs do not hold regular meetings with the various community groups". Equally, another top official noted, "there is nothing of that sort". On the contrary, some indicated that "This does not usually occur". Still, another indicated, "This happens occasionally". Finally, one indicated, "If there is any, then, it is done unofficially". Officially, this shows that the act of holding regular CPAs-Community meetings has not been formalized, structured and incorporated into the sixth module.

CPAs used such opportunities to encourage community members to report criminals without fear, oriented them on new techniques used by criminals, crime preventive measures, dangers of drug trafficking and excessive use of drugs whilst the community members expressed their worry on untimely arrival of the police/CPA during emergencies.

About 6.5 percent of the CPAs had dedicated mobile phones for their work. Those who had the dedicated phones were at Ayawaso East, La Nkwantanan-Madina, Adentan, Accra, Ashaiman, Ga North, La Dadekotopon and Ledzokuku Krowo.

The CPAs were asked if they make calls regarding crime control and prevention. The data showed that about two out of every five of them made such calls. The study went further to record the number of calls to combat crime that CPAs made each day and about 70 percent of them made a maximum of five calls a day. A significantly higher proportions of female CPAs

made no calls on crime prevention and control compared to their male counterparts; 76.1 percent and 50.8 percent respectively whilst the p-value was 0.000. Also, those from Ga Central, Ga West, Ga North, Tema and Ayawaso North made no calls on crime control and prevention. It was also observed in the data that higher proportions of the older CPAs made calls and even more calls regarding crime control and prevention than the younger ones.

Table 4.17 Average number of calls made a day regarding crime prevention and control:

	None		1 - 5		6 plus	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	169	50.8	114	34.2	50	15
Female	134	76.1	31	17.6	11	6.3
Age						
20-24	83	69.7	30	25.2	6	5
25-29	145	58.5	76	30.6	27	10.9
30-34	61	54.5	30	26.8	21	18.8
35-38	14	46.7	9	30	7	23.3
Location						
Accra	21	47.7	15	34.1	8	18.2
Adentan	15	71.4	0	0	6	28.6
Ashaiman	39	69.6	14	25	3	5.4
Ga Central	2	100	0	0	0	0
Ga East	3	33.3	6	66.7	0	0
Ga North	31	100	0	0	0	0
Ga South	13	46.4	10	35.7	5	17.9
Ga West	40	100	0	0	0	0
La Dadekotopon	4	22.2	11	61.1	3	16.7
La Nkwantanan-Madina	12	66.7	0	0	6	33.3
Ledzokuku Krowo	42	65.6	19	29.7	3	4.7
Tema	4	100	0	0	0	0
Ayawaso East	13	72.2	4	22.2	1	5.6
Ayawaso West	11	91.7	1	8.3	0	0
Ayawaso North	15	100	0	0	0	0
Ablekuma West	15	40.5	18	48.6	4	10.8
Ablekuma North	13	27.7	23	48.9	11	23.4
Okaikoi	8	25.8	16	51.6	7	22.6
Weija Gbawe	2	14.3	8	57.1	4	28.6
Total	303	59.5	145	28.5	61	12

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

A greater proportion of the CPAs (55%) have provided the communities with some telephone numbers to call in times of emergency. Most of the male CPAs (60.1%) have shared contacts with the community members compared to 45.5 percent of the females. Also, a higher proportion of older CPAs shared contacts with the communities to call in times of emergency. Additionally, all the respondents in Adentan and Ayawaso West shared emergency contacts with the communities whereas none of those in Ga Central, Ga North, Ga West, Tema and Ayawaso North provided any number. The variations in the proportions of CPAs by sex, age and location were all found to be statistically significant at a level of 1 percent given p-values of 0.002, 0.007 and 0.000, respectively from Pearson's chi-squared tests.

Table 4.18 CPAs who have provided communities with contacts for emergencies:

	Yes		No	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Sex				
Male	200	60.1	133	39.9
Female	80	45.5	96	54.5
Age				
20-24	59	49.6	60	50.4
25-29	128	51.6	120	48.4
30-34	69	61.6	43	38.4
35-38	24	80	6	20
Location				
Accra	31	70.5	13	29.5
Adentan	21	100	0	0
Ashaiman	27	48.2	29	51.8
Ga Central	0	0	2	100
Ga East	1	11.1	8	88.9
Ga North	0	0	31	100
Ga South	22	78.6	6	21.4
Ga West	0	0	40	100
La Dadekotopon	12	66.7	6	33.3
La Nkwantanan-Madina	17	94.4	1	5.6
Ledzokuku Krowo	33	51.6	31	48.4
Tema	0	0	4	100
Ayawaso East	9	50	9	50
Ayawaso West	12	100	0	0
Ayawaso North	0	0	15	100

	Yes		No	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Ablekuma West	31	83.8	6	16.2
Ablekuma North	31	66	16	34
Okaikoi	20	64.5	11	35.5
Weija Gbawe	13	92.9	1	7.1
Total	280	55	229	45

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Most of the CPAs (59.7%) received calls from the communities for help during emergency. Majority of the males (67.3%) received such calls compared to the females (45.5%). Furthermore, greater proportions of the older CPAs received calls for help during emergencies compared to the younger ones but these differences were not statistically significant given a p-value of 0.195 from a Pearson's chi-squared test. All CPAs from Adentan and Ayawaso West received such calls whereas none of those from Ga Central, Ga West and Ayawaso North received any emergency calls from the community members. Differences observed among the districts and sex were statistically significant at a level of 1 percent given p-values of 0.000 each from Pearson's chi-squared tests.

Table 4.19 CPAs who received emergency calls from community members:

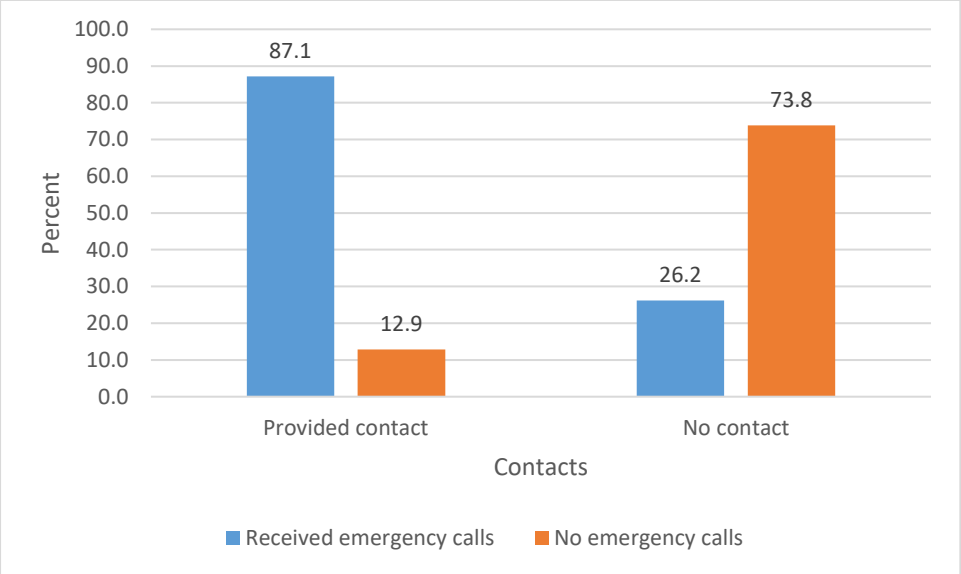
	Yes		No	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Sex				
Male	224	67.3	109	32.7
Female	80	45.5	96	54.5
Age				
20-24	64	53.8	55	46.2
25-29	147	59.3	101	40.7
30-34	71	63.4	41	36.6
35-38	22	73.3	8	26.7
Location				
Accra	37	84.1	7	15.9
Adentan	21	100	0	0
Ashaiman	38	67.9	18	32.1
Ga Central	0	0	2	100
Ga East	7	77.8	2	22.2

Ga North	2	6.5	29	93.5
Ga South	17	60.7	11	39.3
Ga West	0	0	40	100
La Dadekotopon	14	77.8	4	22.2
La Nkwantanan-Madina	16	88.9	2	11.1
Ledzokuku Krowo	32	50	32	50
Tema	1	25	3	75
Ayawaso East	9	50	9	50
Ayawaso West	12	100	0	0
Ayawaso North	0	0	15	100
Ablekuma West	32	86.5	5	13.5
Ablekuma North	33	70.2	14	29.8
Okaikoi	20	64.5	11	35.5
Weija Gbawe	13	92.9	1	7.1
Total	304	59.7	205	40.3

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Further analysis of the data showed that the majority of the CPAs who provided the community members with telephone contacts to call during emergencies received emergency calls and the opposite was true as majority of those who did not provide any contacts to community members did not receive any emergency calls (see Figure 4.9). This observation was also statistically significant given a p-value of 0.000 from a Pearson's chi-squared test.

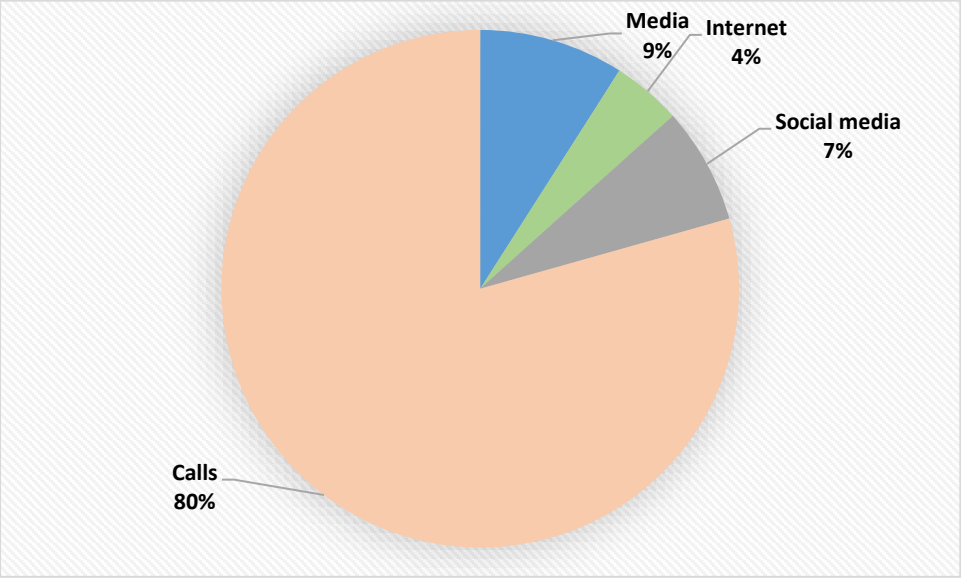
Figure 4.9 CPAs who provided emergency contacts and emergency calls received:



Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

On the issue of what CPAs mostly used to prevent and control crime, the majority of them stated calls (79.4%) followed by media (9%) and mass media (7.3%) (see Figure 4.10). GPS officials equally reported that the CPAs mostly rely on phone calls and social media—other than the TV and radio—to deal with crime in Ghana.

Figure 4.10 What CPAs use to prevent and control crime:



Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Although most CPAs receive emergency calls, just a little above one-third of them have a special response unit to respond to emergencies. The majority of the CPAs in Accra (84.1%), Adenta (95.2%), Ga East (77.8%), Ga South (78.6%), La Nkwantanan-Madina (88.9%), Ayawaso East 66.7%), Ayawaso West (75.0%) and Weija Gbawe (92.9%) have special response units who respond to emergency calls. On the other hand, these special emergency response units were non-existent in Ga Central, Ga North, Tema and Ayawaso North (see table 4.20 for additional details).

Table 4.20 CPAs with special response units to respond to emergency calls:

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	134	40.2	171	51.4	28	8.4
Female	50	28.4	105	59.7	21	11.9
Age						
20-24	41	34.5	65	54.6	13	10.9
25-29	90	36.3	132	53.2	26	10.5
30-34	41	36.6	61	54.5	10	8.9
35-38	12	40	18	60	0	0
Location						
Accra	37	84.1	1	2.3	6	13.6
Adentan	20	95.2	1	4.8	0	0
Ashaiman	5	8.9	46	82.1	5	8.9
Ga Central	0	0	2	100	0	0
Ga East	7	77.8	1	11.1	1	11.1
Ga North	0	0	29	93.5	2	6.5
Ga South	22	78.6	6	21.4	0	0
Ga West	2	5	27	67.5	11	27.5
La Dadekotopon	1	5.6	14	77.8	3	16.7
La Nkwantanan-Madina	16	88.9	0	0	2	11.1
Ledzokuku Krowo	13	20.3	45	70.3	6	9.4
Tema	0	0	4	100	0	0
Ayawaso East	12	66.7	0	0	6	33.3
Ayawaso West	9	75	2	16.7	1	8.3
Ayawaso North	0	0	15	100	0	0
Ablekuma West	4	10.8	32	86.5	1	2.7
Ablekuma North	22	46.8	25	53.2	0	0
Okaikoi	1	3.2	25	80.6	5	16.1
Weija Gbawe	13	92.9	1	7.1	0	0
Total	184	36.1	276	54.2	49	9.6

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Largely, the GPS officials reported that the various emergency response units are handled and controlled by the national police and not the CPAs. However, the CPAs sometimes accompany the national police depending on the severity of the crime. Clearly, the above evidences show that the CPAs have developed their own response units in order to deal with crime in some communities in Accra.

The study also sought to find out the main means of patrol for the CPAs since their recruitment and the results showed that nearly two-thirds of them patrolled using vehicles. A slightly higher

proportion of the male CPAs used vehicle in their patrol compared to their female counterparts; a difference of 6.3 percentage points was recorded. The proportion of CPAs who used vehicles patrolling increased from 53.8 percent for those aged between 20 – 24 years to 70.5 percent among those aged 30 – 34 years and fell to 60 percent for the last age category. Moreover, all the respondents from Adentan and Weija Gbawe were privileged to have used vehicles in all their patrols whilst all of those in Ga Central always used foot patrols. Detailed information on the other districts could be found in table 4.21.

Table 4.21 Main means of patrol since recruit:

	Foot		Vehicle	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Sex				
Male	119	35.7	214	64.3
Female	74	42	102	58
Age				
20-24	55	46.2	64	53.8
25-29	93	37.5	155	62.5
30-34	33	29.5	79	70.5
35-38	12	40	18	60
Location				
Accra	5	11.4	39	88.6
Adentan	0	0	21	100
Ashaiman	45	80.4	11	19.6
Ga Central	2	100	0	0
Ga East	3	33.3	6	66.7
Ga North	11	35.5	20	64.5
Ga South	7	25	21	75
Ga West	18	45	22	55
La Dadekotopon	11	61.1	7	38.9
La Nkwantanan-Madina	1	5.6	17	94.4
Ledzokuku Krowo	51	79.7	13	20.3
Tema	2	50	2	50
Ayawaso East	1	5.6	17	94.4
Ayawaso West	1	8.3	11	91.7
Ayawaso North	2	13.3	13	86.7
Ablekuma West	17	45.9	20	54.1
Ablekuma North	7	14.9	40	85.1
Okaikoi	9	29	22	71
Weija Gbawe	0	0	14	100
Total	193	37.9	316	62.1

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Interactions with top GPS officials, however, showed that the mode of patrol is actually determined based on the nature of work and also the distance involved. However, the CPAs mostly undertake patrols on foot. Foot patrols, they noted, promotes interactions between the CPAs and the communities.

The respondents were asked whether community policing has enhanced the relationship between them and the community members. It was found that community policing has enhanced the relationship between the community members and every three out of four CPAs interviewed. There was not much difference between the proportions by sex but different trend was observed in age as the proportion of those who had improved relations increased with age except for those aged 35 – 38 which slightly fell below the second age category by 5.4 percentage points. On the other hand, CPAs from Ga Central (50%), La Dadekotopon (61.1%) and Ledzokuku Krowo (54.7%) were among those who indicated community policing has not enhanced their relationship with the community members (see table 4.22).

Table 4.22 Community policing has enhanced relations between CPAs and community members:

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	255	76.6	63	18.9	15	4.5
Female	132	75	39	22.2	5	2.8
Age						
20-24	77	64.7	34	28.6	8	6.7
25-29	195	78.6	48	19.4	5	2
30-34	93	83	15	13.4	4	3.6
35-38	22	73.3	5	16.7	3	10
Location						
Accra	43	97.7	0	0	1	2.3
Adentan	21	100	0	0	0	0
Ashaiman	29	51.8	24	42.9	3	5.4
Ga Central	0	0	1	50	1	50
Ga East	7	77.8	2	22.2	0	0
Ga North	28	90.3	3	9.7	0	0

Ga South	21	75	7	25	0	0
Ga West	39	97.5	0	0	1	2.5
La Dadekotopon	7	38.9	11	61.1	0	0
La Nkwantanan-Madina	17	94.4	0	0	1	5.6
Ledzokuku Krowo	28	43.8	35	54.7	1	1.6
Tema	2	50	2	50	0	0
Ayawaso East	16	88.9	1	5.6	1	5.6
Ayawaso West	11	91.7	1	8.3	0	0
Ayawaso North	14	93.3	1	6.7	0	0
Ablekuma West	26	70.3	5	13.5	6	16.2
Ablekuma North	38	80.9	4	8.5	5	10.6
Okaikoi	27	87.1	4	12.9	0	0
Weija Gbawe	13	92.9	1	7.1	0	0
Total	387	76	102	20	20	3.9

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

The perception of the CPAs were sought as to whether they consider themselves or other CPAs in the 6th Module corrupt. The results showed that only 2.2 percent were found to be corrupt whilst 8.1 percent could not tell whether they were corrupt. Similar proportions of male and female CPAs were corrupt but 5 percent of those aged 20 – 24 years who reported such corrupt behavior compared to less than 1 percent of those aged 25 – 29 years. Only CPAs from Ashaiman (5.4%), La Nkwantanan-Madina (5.7%), Ledzokuku Krowo (4.7%), Tema (25%), Ayawaso East (16.7%), and Ablekuma North (2.1%) revealed either they or their colleagues were corrupt (see details in table 4.23). Most of the corrupt practices centered on taking bribe from drivers who violate traffic rules and allowing them to go unpunished. A few others also favoured drivers who occasionally give them tips and took monetary rewards from civilians.

Table 4.23 CPAs who are perceived to be corrupt:

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	7	2.1	298	89.5	28	8.4
Female	4	2.3	159	90.3	13	7.4
Age						
20-24	6	5	102	85.7	11	9.2
25-29	2	0.8	228	91.9	18	7.3
30-34	2	1.8	100	89.3	10	8.9
35-38	1	3.3	27	90	2	6.7
Location						
Accra	0	0	44	100	0	0
Adentan	0	0	21	100	0	0
Ashaiman	3	5.4	42	75	11	19.6
Ga Central	0	0	2	100	0	0
Ga East	0	0	9	100	0	0
Ga North	0	0	30	96.8	1	3.2
Ga South	0	0	28	100	0	0
Ga West	0	0	40	100	0	0
La Dadekotopon	0	0	11	61.1	7	38.9
La Nkwantanan-Madina	1	5.6	17	94.4	0	0
Ledzokuku Krowo	3	4.7	55	85.9	6	9.4
Tema	1	25	1	25	2	50
Ayawaso East	0	0	18	100	0	0
Ayawaso West	2	16.7	10	83.3	0	0
Ayawaso North	0	0	15	100	0	0
Ablekuma West	0	0	36	97.3	1	2.7
Ablekuma North	1	2.1	43	91.5	3	6.4
Okaikoi	0	0	21	67.7	10	32.3
Weija Gbawe	0	0	14	100	0	0
Total	11	2.2	457	89.8	41	8.1

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

On the issue of whether divisions based on political affiliations, religion, ethnicity, educational level and gender have any impact on YEA recruits, just about 1 in every 10 of the CPAs responded in the affirmative. A slightly higher proportion of females seemed to have this perception compared to their male colleagues; 5 percentage points difference but this was not statistically significant given a p-value of 0.103 from a Pearson's chi-squared test. Higher proportions of younger CPAs seemed to have this perception compared to the older ones.

Additionally, a greater proportion of the respondents from Tema and Ledzokuku Krowo had the view that divisions have impacts on YEA recruits (see table 4.24). The majority of them (94.9%) believed politics impacts on YEA recruits, followed by religion, and "whom-you-know" attitude.

Table 4.24 CPAs who perceive divisions have impacts on YEA recruits:

	Yes		No	
Variable	N	%	N	%
Sex				
Male	33	9.9	300	90.1
Female	26	14.8	150	85.2
Age				
20-24	20	16.8	99	83.2
25-29	26	10.5	222	89.5
30-34	11	9.8	101	90.2
35-38	2	6.7	28	93.3
Location				
Accra	0	0	44	100
Adentan	0	0	21	100
Ashaiman	8	14.3	48	85.7
Ga Central	0	0	2	100
Ga East	0	0	9	100
Ga North	2	6.5	29	93.5
Ga South	1	3.6	27	96.4
Ga West	0	0	40	100
La Dadekotopon	1	5.6	17	94.4
La Nkwantanan-Madina	0	0	18	100
Ledzokuku Krowo	40	62.5	24	37.5
Tema	4	100	0	0
Ayawaso East	2	11.1	16	88.9
Ayawaso West	0	0	12	100
Ayawaso North	0	0	15	100
Ablekuma West	0	0	37	100
Ablekuma North	0	0	47	100
Okaikoi	1	3.2	30	96.8
Weija Gbawe	0	0	14	100
Total	59	11.6	450	88.4

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Interactions with top YEA and GPS officials, however, showed that YEA and GPS do not discriminate against recruits based on; among others; gender, political affiliation, ethnicity and religion.

Less than 5 percent of the CPAs revealed they have been brutal on some citizens before. The proportion of males who were brutal on citizens was over three times higher than their female counterparts; 6 percent and 1.7 percent respectively. Additionally, 3.7 percent of them were not sure whether they have ever been brutal on citizens or not. It was also observed that the older CPAs tend to be more brutal on citizens than the younger ones except that some deviations was seen with those aged 30 – 34 years. CPAs who have ever been brutal on citizens in the course of duty came from some few districts such as Ashaiman (1.8%), Ga South (3.6%), La Dadekotopon (5.6%), Ledzekuku Krowo (14.1%), Ablekuma West (8.1%), Ablekuma North (10.6%) and Okaikoi (9.7%). The majority of the CPAs who happen to have brutalized civilians were compelled to do so when they resisted arrest and they had to be forced into a car or to the police station.

Table 4.25 Proportion of CPAs who have ever been brutal on citizens:

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	20	6	304	91.3	9	2.7
Female	3	1.7	163	92.6	10	5.7
Age						
20-24	2	1.7	115	96.6	2	1.7
25-29	13	5.2	224	90.3	11	4.4
30-34	3	2.7	105	93.8	4	3.6
35-38	5	16.7	23	76.7	2	6.7
Location						
Accra	0	0	44	100	0	0
Adentan	0	0	21	100	0	0
Ashaiman	1	1.8	51	91.1	4	7.1
Ga Central	0	0	2	100	0	0
Ga East	0	0	9	100	0	0

Ga North	0	0	30	96.8	1	3.2
Ga South	1	3.6	27	96.4	0	0
Ga West	0	0	40	100	0	0
La Dadekotopon	1	5.6	14	77.8	3	16.7
La Nkwantanan-Madina	0	0	17	94.4	1	5.6
Ledzokuku Krowo	9	14.1	52	81.3	3	4.7
Tema	0	0	4	100	0	0
Ayawaso East	0	0	17	94.4	1	5.6
Ayawaso West	0	0	11	91.7	1	8.3
Ayawaso North	0	0	14	93.3	1	6.7
Ablekuma West	3	8.1	34	91.9	0	0
Ablekuma North	5	10.6	41	87.2	1	2.1
Okaikoi	3	9.7	26	83.9	2	6.5
Weija Gbawe	0	0	13	92.9	1	7.1
Total	23	4.5	467	91.7	19	3.7

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Table 2.26 presents the proportion of CPAs who thought lack of funding has stifled the operations of CPAs under the 6th module and it shows that about one out of every five CPAs indicated lack of funding in the 6th module negatively affects the operations of CPAs. A third of the CPAs aged 35 – 38 years believed lack of funding for the 6th module stifled their operations compared to 17.7 percent of those aged 20 – 24 years. On the other hand, none of respondents from Ga Central, Ga East, Ledzokuku Krowo, Tema and Weija Gbawe believed lack of funding for the 6th module has any negative impacts on their operations contrary to the perception of most of the respondents from Ablekuma West (75.7%) and Ayawaso East (61.1%).

Table 2.26 Proportion of CPAs who indicated inadequate funding has stifled their operations:

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	73	21.9	184	55.3	76	22.8
Female	38	21.6	72	40.9	66	37.5
Age						
20-24	21	17.6	58	48.7	40	33.6
25-29	55	22.2	124	50	69	27.8
30-34	25	22.3	60	53.6	27	24.1
35-38	10	33.3	14	46.7	6	20
Location						
Accra	1	2.3	42	95.5	1	2.3
Adentan	1	4.8	20	95.2	0	0
Ashaiman	3	5.4	22	39.3	31	55.4
Ga Central	0	0	0	0	2	100
Ga East	0	0	8	88.9	1	11.1
Ga North	5	16.1	23	74.2	3	9.7
Ga South	12	42.9	14	50	2	7.1
Ga West	3	7.5	17	42.5	20	50
La Dadekotopon	8	44.4	6	33.3	4	22.2
La Nkwantanan-Madina	1	5.6	13	72.2	4	22.2
Ledzokuku Krowo	0	0	9	14.1	55	85.9
Tema	0	0	2	50	2	50
Ayawaso East	11	61.1	3	16.7	4	22.2
Ayawaso West	6	50	6	50	0	0
Ayawaso North	3	20	10	66.7	2	13.3
Ablekuma West	28	75.7	6	16.2	3	8.1
Ablekuma North	14	29.8	30	63.8	3	6.4
Okaikoi	15	48.4	12	38.7	4	12.9
Weija Gbawe	0	0	13	92.9	1	7.1
Total	111	21.8	256	50.3	142	27.9

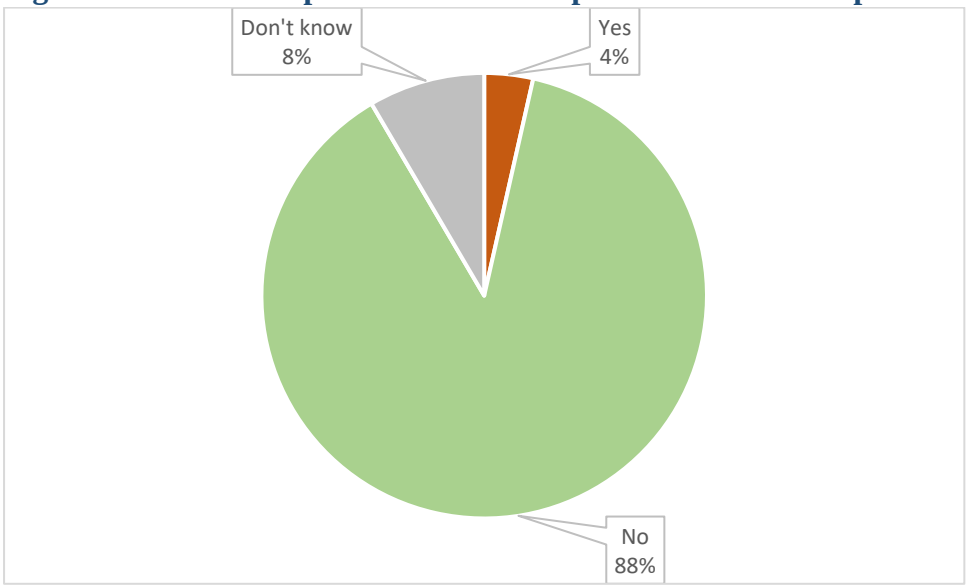
Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Inadequate funding under the 6th Module has significant effects on employee wellbeing and commitment to work. Some lamented their salaries were too low and that they could not afford to feed themselves and their dependents as well as afford rent and transportation to work. Payment of this low salary is sometimes delayed and CPAs had to resort to borrowing before they could come to work. Both the low and delayed salary payments had marred the

relationship between some of them and their spouses as it has generated some mistrust between them. Some are also unable to report to work on regular basis when they do not succeed in borrowing to cater for their transport fares whilst some have also exited the programme as a result of the low and delayed salaries. Moreover, they had no money to make calls at times and this hindered effective communication in their operations. A few of them also complained of inadequate uniforms and also having to walk to far places without any means of transportation. Furthermore, lack of certain equipment which aid community policing also negatively impacted on their operations.

A few of the CPAs (3.5%) thought there was some leadership and coordination problems between the CPAs and the top hierarchy (see figure 4.11). These issues were evident in YEA coordinators not responding to calls from CPAs as well as not inviting them to participate in the discussion of matters that affect them. A few of them cited CPAs were not accorded with the necessary respect as police assistants whilst some of them were occasionally insulted.

Figure 4.11 Leadership and coordination problems between top hierarchy and CPAs:



Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

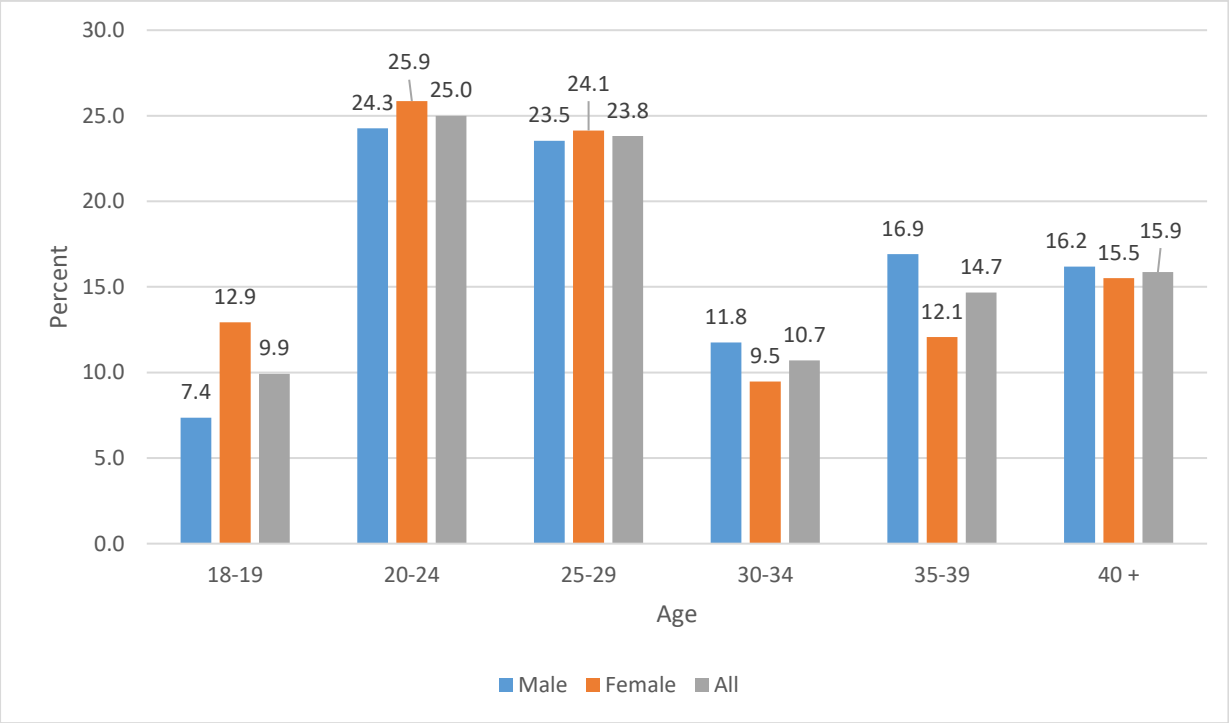
5.4. ANALYSIS OF THE COMMUNITY MEMBERS' SURVEY:

5.5. Demographic characteristics of community members:

Some community members were also interviewed alongside the CPAs to gauge the extent to which the activities of the CPAs impact on crime control and prevention, and security in general in the communities. Two hundred and fifty-two community members were successfully interviewed to complete the Community Member module of the CPAs survey. These were pooled from Accra (15.1%), Ga West (9.5%), Ayawaso West (9.1%), Ga East, Tema and Ablekuma North (8.7%). Other districts in the community member survey was Ablekuma West (6.8%), Ledzokuku Krowo (6.3%), Adentan and Ashaiman (4.8% each), La Dadekotopon (4.4%), La Nkwantanan Madina (4%), Ayawaso East and Weija Gbawe (3.6% each) and the last but not the least, Ga North (2%).

Out of the 252 community members interviewed, 136 of them, constituting 54 percent, were male. The youngest person interviewed was 18 years whilst the oldest was 64 years but the average age for the full sample was 30 years. Male members had a mean age of 30 years, 1 additional year higher than their female counterparts. A quarter of the community members were aged between 20 – 24 years followed by those aged 25 – 29 years (23.8%), whilst the smallest proportion came from the 18 - 19 years age group (9.9%) (see figure 4.12).

Figure 4.12 Distribution of community members' age by sex:



Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Over half of the respondents had never married (51.6%) whilst 39.7 percent were married, 4 percent were divorced / separated and 2.7 percent were widowed. Most female participants had never married (55.2%) compared to the males (48.5%). All respondents who were aged 18 – 19 years had never married compared to none of those aged 40 years or older. All those who were widowed were aged 40 years or older. Additionally, none of those aged 20 – 24 years was married. The proportion of respondents who were married increased as age increases. Most of the respondents from Accra (60%), La Dadekotopon (63.6%), Ayawaso East (55.6%) and Ayawaso West (52.2%) were married (see table 4.27).

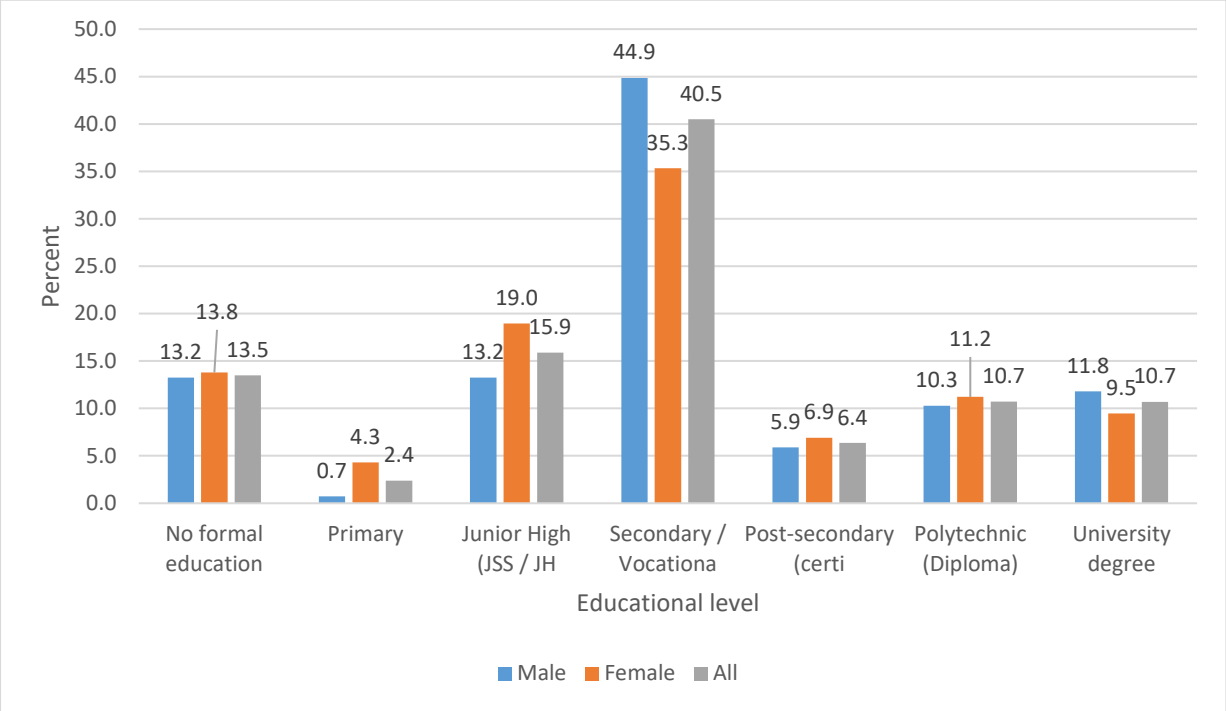
Table 4.27 Marital status of community member respondents by sex, age and location:

	Never married		Married		Widowed		Divorced / separated	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex								
Male	66	48.5	62	45.6	3	2.2	5	3.7
Female	64	55.2	38	32.8	4	3.4	10	8.6
Age								
18-19	25	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
20-24	62	98.4	0	0	0	0	1	1.6
25-29	35	58.3	23	38.3	0	0	2	3.3
30-34	6	22.2	19	70.4	0	0	2	7.4
35-39	2	5.4	28	75.7	0	0	7	18.9
40 +	0	0	30	75	7	17.5	3	7.5
Location								
Accra	17	44.7	18	47.4	1	2.6	2	5.3
Adentan	7	58.3	5	41.7	0	0	0	0
Ashaiman	7	58.3	4	33.3	0	0	1	8.3
Ga East	17	77.3	4	18.2	0	0	1	4.5
Ga North	5	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ga West	11	45.8	11	45.8	1	4.2	1	4.2
La Dadekotopon	3	27.3	7	63.6	0	0	1	9.1
La Nkwantanan-Madina	3	30	4	40	2	20	1	10
Ledzokuku Krowo	9	56.3	6	37.5	0	0	1	6.3
Tema	15	68.2	7	31.8	0	0	0	0
Ayawaso East	4	44.4	5	55.6	0	0	0	0
Ayawaso West	10	43.5	12	52.2	0	0	1	4.3
Ablekuma West	8	47.1	6	35.3	0	0	3	17.6
Ablekuma North	10	45.5	8	36.4	1	4.5	3	13.6
Weija Gbawe	4	44.4	3	33.3	2	22.2	0	0
Total	130	51.6	100	39.7	7	2.8	15	6

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

On the educational level of respondents, every two out of five members interviewed had their highest level of education being secondary / vocational / technical school followed by junior high school leavers (15.9%), and polytechnic (diploma holders) (10.7%). Also, 13.5 percent of them had no formal education whilst 2.4 percent were primary school dropouts. Figure 4.13 shows the educational level of respondents by sex and the trend of distribution of educational levels was similar within both sexes and also mimicked that of the overall distribution of respondents.

Figure 4.13 Educational level of respondents by gender:



Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

The majority of the respondents were Christians (76.6%) whilst 16.3 percent were Muslims, 5.6 percent were Traditionalists and the remaining ones were non-religious. Ga Dangmes (36.9%) formed a greater segment of the respondents, followed by Akans (33.7%), Ewe (14.7%), Mole Dagbani (4.4%), Gonja (1.6%), Guan (0.8%) and the rest came from other ethnic groups.

On the occupational status of respondents, a greater proportion of them were traders (18.3%), followed by artisans (16.3%) and private sector employees (10.3%). Also, 23.4 percent of the respondents were students whilst 7.9 percent were unemployed. A slightly higher proportion of the female respondents were traders (25.9%), students (25%) and unemployed (9.5%) compared to their male counterparts; 11.8 percent, 22.1 percent and 6.6 percent respectively (see table 4.28).

Table 4.28 Main occupation of respondents by sex:

Occupation	Male		Female		All	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Farmer / fisherman	6	4.4	0	0	6	2.4
Teacher	7	5.1	7	6	14	5.6
Trader	16	11.8	30	25.9	46	18.3
Civil servant	3	2.2	2	1.7	5	2
Artisan	27	19.9	14	12.1	41	16.3
Public servant	11	8.1	3	2.6	14	5.6
Student	30	22.1	29	25	59	23.4
Unemployed	9	6.6	11	9.5	20	7.9
Private sector person (formal employee)	10	7.4	8	6.9	18	7.1
Pensioner	2	1.5	0	0	2	0.8
Self-employed	8	5.9	9	7.8	17	6.7
Private sector employee (informal)	5	3.7	3	2.6	8	3.2
Other	2	1.5	0	0	2	0.8
Total	136	100	116	100	252	100

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

4.1 Impact of CPA Activities in the Community:

The community members were asked to rank the kinds of crime they detect most in their area and as first mention, robbery still topped the list (75.5%) followed by traffic offenses (65.1%), quarrelling (39.8%) and smoking of marijuana / cocaine (37.4%) when all ranks of the eight items were employed. Still, other crimes which frequently occurred in the communities were rape / defilement (27.7%), excessive drinking of strong alcohol (24.1%) and trafficking (16.9%). Quarrelling gained dominance among the female respondents (41.7%) over smoking of marijuana / cocaine (32.2%) whereas smoking of marijuana / cocaine was quite pronounced among the male respondents (41.8%) than quarrelling (38.1%). Robbery topped the list of most crimes committed in Adentan, Ashaiman, La Nkwantanan Madina, Ledzokuku Krowo, Ayawaso West, Ablekuma West, Ablekuma North and Weija Gbawe. Accra, Ga East and Tema recorded traffic offenses as the most worrying crime in their area whereas quarrelling was the most frequently encountered crime at Ayawaso East and La Dadekotopon. Furthermore, trafficking was the main crime usually committed in Ga North and Ga West.

Table 4.29 Crimes usually committed in the communities:

Variables	Robbery	Rape / defilement	Traffic offenses	Trafficking	Quarrelling	Smoking of marijuana /cocaine	Excessive drinking of strong alcohol	Others
Sex								
Male	74.6	26.1	67.9	17.2	38.1	41.8	24.6	74.6
Female	76.5	29.6	61.7	16.5	41.7	32.2	23.5	76.5
Location								
Accra	60.5	7.9	81.6	0.0	26.3	7.9	7.9	60.5
Adentan	100.0	0.0	33.3	0.0	25.0	33.3	0.0	100.0
Ashaiman	91.7	41.7	33.3	33.3	25.0	41.7	25.0	91.7
Ga East	54.6	59.1	81.8	13.6	72.7	0.0	40.9	54.6
Ga North	33.3	0.0	33.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	33.3	33.3
Ga West	91.7	91.7	95.8	100.0	91.7	91.7	87.5	91.7
La Dadekotopon	63.6	18.2	45.5	0.0	90.9	81.8	9.1	63.6
La Nkwantanan Madina	100.0	0.0	60.0	0.0	0.0	40.0	0.0	100.0
Ledzokuku Krowo	81.3	25.0	37.5	6.3	18.8	18.8	37.5	81.3
Tema	57.1	0.0	76.2	4.8	9.5	4.8	9.5	57.1
Ayawaso East	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Ayawaso West	95.7	4.4	56.5	0.0	4.4	39.1	0.0	95.7
Ablekuma West	64.7	5.9	58.8	0.0	41.2	47.1	23.5	64.7
Ablekuma North	81.8	31.8	54.6	0.0	54.6	63.6	4.6	81.8
Weija Gbawe	55.6	22.2	44.4	0.0	11.1	22.2	0.0	55.6
All	75.5	27.7	65.1	16.9	39.8	37.4	24.1	75.5

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

The respondents were asked whether they have heard about Community Policing Assistants in their communities and 56 percent of them responded in the affirmative. A lot of male respondents (61.8%) have heard of CPAs compared to the female respondents (49.1%). The proportion of respondents who have heard of CPAs increased from 36 percent for the lowest age group (18 – 19 years) to 70.4 percent for the middle age class (30 – 34 years) and decreased to 57.5 percent for the oldest age group (40 + years). The majority of respondents from Ledzokuku Krowo (87.5%), Ablekuma North (86.4%), Ablekuma West (82.4%) and La Dadekotopon have heard of the CPAs compared to a few of those in Ayawaso East (11.1%),

Weija Gbawe (11.1%) and Ga North (20%). Further details of those who have heard of CPAs for other age groups and districts could be found in table 4.30.

Table 4.30 Community members who have heard of CPAs:

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	84	61.8	41	30.1	11	8.1
Female	57	49.1	51	44	8	6.9
Age						
18-19	9	36	15	60	1	4
20-24	28	44.4	29	46	6	9.5
25-29	39	65	18	30	3	5
30-34	19	70.4	4	14.8	4	14.8
35-39	23	62.2	10	27	4	10.8
40 +	23	57.5	16	40	1	2.5
Location						
Accra	24	63.2	11	28.9	3	7.9
Adentan	9	75	3	25	0	0
Ashaiman	7	58.3	5	41.7	0	0
Ga East	10	45.5	9	40.9	3	13.6
Ga North	1	20	4	80	0	0
Ga West	6	25	12	50	6	25
La Dadekotopon	9	81.8	1	9.1	1	9.1
La Nkwantanan-Madina	6	60	4	40	0	0
Ledzokuku Krowo	14	87.5	2	12.5	0	0
Tema	9	40.9	12	54.5	1	4.5
Ayawaso East	1	11.1	4	44.4	4	44.4
Ayawaso West	11	47.8	12	52.2	0	0
Ablekuma West	14	82.4	3	17.6	0	0
Ablekuma North	19	86.4	3	13.6	0	0
Weija Gbawe	1	11.1	7	77.8	1	11.1
All	141	56	92	36.5	19	7.5

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Over half (53.2%) of those who have heard of CPAs always found them working in the communities. More male respondents always found them working in the communities than their female counterparts; excess of 9.3 percentage points. A higher proportion of those aged 40 years or older (60.9%), 25 – 29 years (59%) and 30 – 34 years (57.9%) indicated they always see the CPAs working in their communities as compared to a third of those aged 18 – 19 years.

None of the respondents in Weija Gbawe, Ayawaso East and Ga North has ever seen the CPAs working in their communities but they could be seen working by most respondents in Ayawaso West (81.8%) (see table 4.31).

Table 4.31 Community members who always find CPAs working in their area:

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	48	57.1	19	22.6	17	20.2
Female	27	47.4	16	28.1	14	24.6
Age						
18-19	3	33.3	1	11.1	5	55.6
20-24	13	46.4	8	28.6	7	25
25-29	23	59	9	23.1	7	17.9
30-34	11	57.9	4	21.1	4	21.1
35-39	11	47.8	6	26.1	6	26.1
40 +	14	60.9	7	30.4	2	8.7
Location						
Accra	17	70.8	1	4.2	6	25
Adentan	6	66.7	0	0	3	33.3
Ashaiman	4	57.1	2	28.6	1	14.3
Ga East	2	20	1	10	7	70
Ga North	0	0	1	100	0	0
Ga West	4	66.7	0	0	2	33.3
La Dadekotopon	4	44.4	4	44.4	1	11.1
La Nkwantanan-Madina	4	66.7	0	0	2	33.3
Ledzokuku Krowo	4	28.6	8	57.1	2	14.3
Tema	1	11.1	6	66.7	2	22.2
Ayawaso East	0	0	0	0	1	100
Ayawaso West	9	81.8	0	0	2	18.2
Ablekuma West	9	64.3	4	28.6	1	7.1
Ablekuma North	11	57.9	7	36.8	1	5.3
Weija Gbawe	0	0	1	100	0	0

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

On the issue of whether CPAs were indigenes of the community that they work in, a little over one-third indicated so. A higher proportion of the community members (47.5%) did not know where the CPAs were recruited from. At least, half of the respondents who knew CPAs were

working in their area at Accra, La Dadekotopon and Ablekuma West believed the CPAs were indigenes of their communities.

Table 4.32 Respondents who perceive CPAs are indigenes of their communities:

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	21	25	24	28.6	39	46.4
Female	22	38.6	7	12.3	28	49.1
Age						
18-19	3	33.3	2	22.2	4	44.4
20-24	8	28.6	11	39.3	9	32.1
25-29	11	28.2	11	28.2	17	43.6
30-34	6	31.6	1	5.3	12	63.2
35-39	8	34.8	3	13	12	52.2
40 +	7	30.4	3	13	13	56.5
Location						
Accra	12	50	0	0	12	50
Adentan	3	33.3	0	0	6	66.7
Ashaiman	3	42.9	3	42.9	1	14.3
Ga East	2	20	1	10	7	70
Ga North	0	0	0	0	1	100
Ga West	2	33.3	3	50	1	16.7
La Dadekotopon	5	55.6	1	11.1	3	33.3
La Nkwantanan-Madina	0	0	0	0	6	100
Ledzokuku Krowo	1	7.1	10	71.4	3	21.4
Tema	1	11.1	4	44.4	4	44.4
Ayawaso East	0	0	0	0	1	100
Ayawaso West	0	0	1	9.1	10	90.9
Ablekuma West	7	50	5	35.7	2	14.3
Ablekuma North	7	36.8	3	15.8	9	47.4
Weija Gbawe	0	0	0	0	1	100
Total	43	30.5	31	22	67	47.5

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Only 5.7 percent of the respondents who have heard of CPAs indicated CPAs hold regular meetings with them to discuss how to prevent and control crime in the community. As much as 31.2 percent of them were not sure whether CPAs do this. Respondents from Ablekuma West, La Dadekotopon, Ga West, Ashaiman and Accra stated CPAs hold regular meetings with them (see table 4.33). The community members were advised on securing their doors before leaving the house or sleeping, and keeping watch on the movement of strange people in the community.

Table 4.33 CPAs hold regular meetings with community members:

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	5	6	53	63.1	26	31
Female	3	5.3	36	63.2	18	31.6
Age						
18-19	1	11.1	6	66.7	2	22.2
20-24	0	0	22	78.6	6	21.4
25-29	3	7.7	27	69.2	9	23.1
30-34	1	5.3	13	68.4	5	26.3
35-39	2	8.7	10	43.5	11	47.8
40 +	1	4.3	11	47.8	11	47.8
Location						
Accra	1	4.2	8	33.3	15	62.5
Adentan	0	0	3	33.3	6	66.7
Ashaiman	1	14.3	6	85.7	0	0
Ga East	0	0	7	70	3	30
Ga North	0	0	1	100	0	0
Ga West	1	16.7	5	83.3	0	0
La Dadekotopon	1	11.1	6	66.7	2	22.2
La Nkwantanan-Madina	0	0	0	0	6	100
Ledzokuku Krowo	0	0	14	100	0	0
Tema	0	0	6	66.7	3	33.3
Ayawaso East	0	0	1	100	0	0
Ayawaso West	0	0	7	63.6	4	36.4

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Ablekuma West	3	21.4	9	64.3	2	14.3
Ablekuma North	1	5.3	16	84.2	2	10.5
Weija Gbawe	0	0	0	0	1	100
All	8	5.7	89	63.1	44	31.2

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

The first ranking of the activities of CPAs in the communities showed that two-thirds of those who were aware of the activities of the CPAs in the communities saw them working to control and prevent traffic offenses followed by robbery (12.7%), quarrelling (8.7%), and smoking of marijuana / cocaine (6.4%). CPAs working to control and prevent traffic offenses topped the list when all activities they engage in were ranked and the sequence of the other offenses followed the same order as they were in the first ranking by community members. Less than 10 percent of these respondents saw the CPAs in their routine activities trying to control and prevent rape / defilement, trafficking and excessive drinking of strong alcohol.

Table 4.34 Crime CPAs usually work to prevent or control in the communities:

Variable	Robbery	Rape / defilement	Traffic offenses	Trafficking	Quarrelling	Smoking of marijuana/	Excessive drinking of strong alcohol
Sex							
Male	39.5	13.2	82.9	9.2	26.3	26.3	6.6
Female	35.3	3.9	76.5	5.9	27.5	29.4	2.0
Age							
18-19	75.0	25.0	37.5	25.0	37.5	25.0	25.0
20-24	40.7	7.4	81.5	7.4	25.9	33.3	7.4
25-29	31.4	14.3	82.9	11.4	31.4	28.6	2.9
30-34	47.1	11.8	82.4	5.9	17.7	35.3	5.9
35-39	31.6	5.3	89.5	0.0	15.8	15.8	0.0
40 +	28.6	0.0	81.0	4.8	33.3	23.8	0.0

Location							
Accra	21.1	0.0	100.0	0.0	21.1	0.0	0.0
Adentan	87.5	0.0	62.5	0.0	25.0	25.0	0.0
Ashaiman	42.9	14.3	85.7	28.6	28.6	57.1	14.3
Ga East	0.0	20.0	90.0	10.0	40.0	0.0	0.0
Ga West	66.7	66.7	83.3	83.3	66.7	66.7	66.7
Dadekot	33.3	0.0	44.4	0.0	77.8	55.6	0.0
La Nkwantanan Madina	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Ledzokuku Krowo	16.7	8.3	91.7	8.3	16.7	0.0	8.3
Tema	14.3	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Ayawaso Ea	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0
Ayawaso We	54.6	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	9.1	0.0
Ablekuma W	42.9	7.1	71.4	0.0	28.6	42.9	0.0
Ablekuma N	61.1	11.1	50.0	0.0	22.2	66.7	0.0
All	37.8	9.5	80.3	7.9	26.8	27.6	4.7

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

In general, more than one-third of the community members who were aware of the presence of the CPAs in the communities (35.4%) were satisfied with their output whereas over half of them (52.5%) also remained neutral. Additionally, none of the respondents from Ashaiman, Ga North, Tema, Ayawaso East and Weija Gbawe was satisfied with the activities of the CPAs.

Table 4.35 Community members satisfied with the output of CPAs:

	Very satisfied		Satisfied		Neutral		Dissatisfied		Very dissatisfied	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex										
Male	6	7.1	24	28.6	46	54.8	7	8.3	1	1.2
Female	3	5.3	17	29.8	28	49.1	8	14	1	1.8
Age										
18-19	0	0	2	22.2	6	66.7	1	11.1	0	0
20-24	1	3.6	5	17.9	18	64.3	4	14.3	0	0
25-29	3	7.7	10	25.6	22	56.4	3	7.7	1	2.6
30-34	0	0	8	42.1	9	47.4	2	10.5	0	0
35-39	1	4.3	8	34.8	11	47.8	3	13	0	0
40 +	4	17.4	8	34.8	8	34.8	2	8.7	1	4.3
Location										
Accra	1	4.2	9	37.5	12	50	2	8.3	0	0
Adentan	1	11.1	3	33.3	4	44.4	1	11.1	0	0
Ashaiman	0	0	0	0	5	71.4	2	28.6	0	0
Ga East	0	0	2	20	8	80	0	0	0	0
Ga North	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0
Ga West	0	0	2	33.3	4	66.7	0	0	0	0
La Dadekotopon	2	22.2	3	33.3	3	33.3	1	11.1	0	0
La Nkwantanan-Madina	1	16.7	2	33.3	2	33.3	1	16.7	0	0
Ledzokuku Krowo	1	7.1	0	0	8	57.1	3	21.4	2	14.3
Tema	0	0	0	0	7	77.8	2	22.2	0	0
Ayawaso East	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0
Ayawaso West	0	0	5	45.5	6	54.5	0	0	0	0
Ablekuma West	3	21.4	7	50	4	28.6	0	0	0	0
Ablekuma North	0	0	8	42.1	8	42.1	3	15.8	0	0
Weija Gbawe	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0
All	9	6.4	41	29.1	74	52.5	15	10.6	2	1.4

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Exactly one-third of the community members who knew CPAs were working in their communities revealed there was a reduction in the level of crime in the communities as a result of the activities of CPAs. This view was also expressed by more than half of those who were

aged 40 years and older. On the other hand, about 24.8 percent of these community members thought otherwise. Furthermore, none of the respondents from Ashaiman, Ga North, Ga West, Ledzokuku Krowo, Tema, Ayawaso East and Weija Gbawe thought crime has reduced due to the presence of the CPAs in their communities.

Table 4.36 Respondents who perceive crime has reduced due to the activities of CPAs:

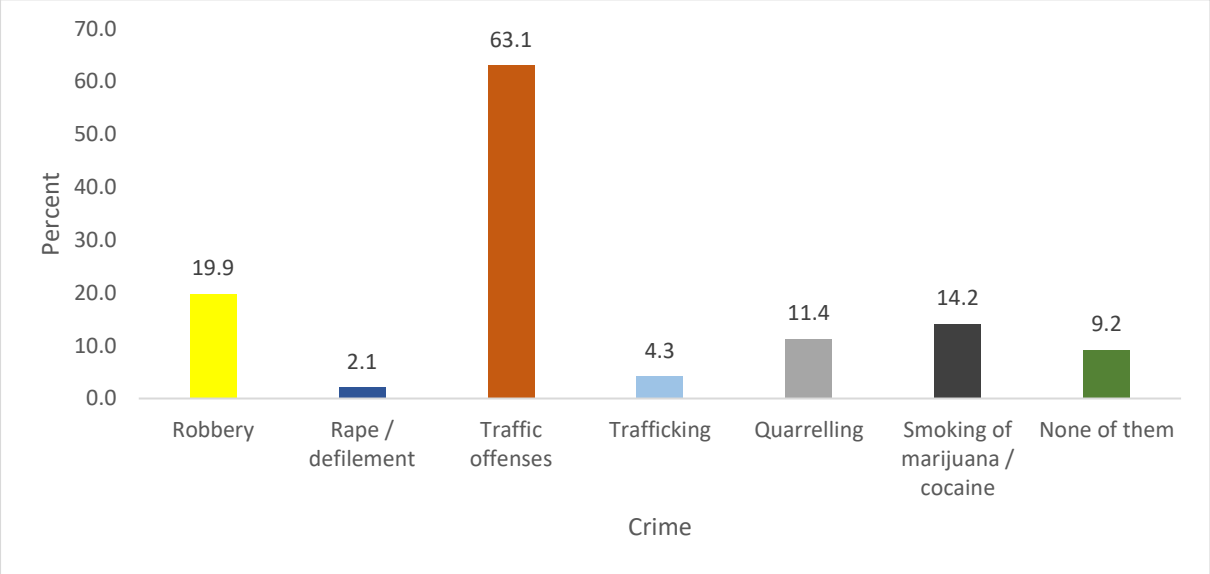
	Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex										
Male	3	3.6	24	28.6	39	46.4	12	14.3	6	7.1
Female	1	1.8	19	33.3	20	35.1	13	22.8	4	7
Age										
18-19	0	0	1	11.1	4	44.4	4	44.4	0	0
20-24	1	3.6	6	21.4	9	32.1	7	25	5	17.9
25-29	1	2.6	12	30.8	20	51.3	3	7.7	3	7.7
30-34	0	0	5	26.3	10	52.6	4	21.1	0	0
35-39	0	0	9	39.1	9	39.1	4	17.4	1	4.3
40 +	2	8.7	10	43.5	7	30.4	3	13	1	4.3
Location										
Accra	0	0	15	62.5	7	29.2	2	8.3	0	0
Adentan	1	11.1	3	33.3	4	44.4	1	11.1	0	0
Ashaiman	0	0	0	0	5	71.4	1	14.3	1	14.3
Ga East	0	0	2	20	7	70	1	10	0	0
Ga North	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0
Ga West	0	0	0	0	5	83.3	1	16.7	0	0
La Dadekotopon	1	11.1	3	33.3	3	33.3	2	22.2	0	0
La Nkwantanan-Madina	0	0	3	50	2	33.3	1	16.7	0	0
Ledzokuku Krowo	0	0	0	0	6	42.9	3	21.4	5	35.7
Tema	0	0	0	0	3	33.3	2	22.2	4	44.4
Ayawaso East	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0
Ayawaso West	0	0	5	45.5	6	54.5	0	0	0	0
Ablekuma West	2	14.3	3	21.4	4	28.6	5	35.7	0	0

Ablekuma North	0	0	9	47.4	5	26.3	5	26.3	0	0
Weija Gbawe	0	0	0	0	1	100	0	0	0	0
Total	4	2.8	43	30.5	59	41.8	25	17.7	10	7.1

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Most of the respondents (63.1%) who were aware that CPAs were in their communities believed traffic offenses have reduced as a result of the activities of CPAs in their communities followed by robbery (19.9%) and smoking of marijuana / cocaine (14.2%). However, 9.2 percent of them revealed the activities of the CPAs have not reduced crime in any way (see figure 4.14).

Figure 4.14 Crimes which have reduced as a result of the activities of CPAs:



Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

All the respondents from Ga North and Weija Gbawe also held the same view that the activities of the CPAs have not reduced crime. According to respondents in Tema and Ayawaso East, the only crimes that have reduced as a result of the activities of the CPAs were traffic offenses and smoking of marijuana / cocaine respectively. Most respondents from Accra, Ga East, Ayawaso West, Ledzokuku Krowo and La Nkwantanan Madina believed traffic offenses have

reduced as a result of the activities of the CPAs. Further details have been provided in table 4.37.

Table 4.37 Crimes which have reduced as a result of the activities of CPAs:

Variable	Robbery	Rape / defilement	Traffic offenses	Trafficking	Quarrelling	Smoking of marijuana / cocaine	None of them
Sex							
Male	20.2	2.4	65.5	4.8	11.9	13.1	9.5
Female	19.3	1.8	59.7	3.5	10.5	15.8	8.8
Age							
18-19	44.4	0.0	33.3	11.1	11.1	22.2	11.1
20-24	17.9	0.0	67.9	3.6	10.7	10.7	7.1
25-29	18.0	2.6	66.7	5.1	15.4	18.0	10.3
30-34	15.8	5.3	73.7	0.0	5.3	15.8	10.5
35-39	21.7	0.0	56.5	4.4	4.4	8.7	8.7
40 +	17.4	4.4	60.9	4.4	17.4	13.0	8.7
Location							
Accra	20.8	0.0	70.8	0.0	4.2	0.0	16.7
Adentan	44.4	0.0	44.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	11.1
Ashaiman	0.0	0.0	57.1	28.6	14.3	0.0	0.0
Ga East	0.0	10.0	90.0	0.0	30.0	0.0	0.0
Ga North	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Ga West	33.3	0.0	66.7	33.3	16.7	33.3	0.0
La Dadekotopon	44.4	0.0	33.3	0.0	55.6	44.4	0.0
La Nkwantanan-Madina	0.0	16.7	66.7	16.7	0.0	0.0	16.7
Ledzokuku Krowo	0.0	0.0	78.6	7.1	7.1	0.0	14.3
Tema	0.0	0.0	66.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	33.3
Ayawaso East	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0
Ayawaso West	9.1	0.0	90.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Ablekuma West	42.9	0.0	50.0	0.0	7.1	42.9	0.0
Ablekuma North	31.6	5.3	52.6	0.0	15.8	36.8	0.0
Weija Gbawe	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
All	19.9	2.1	63.1	4.3	11.4	14.2	9.2

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

The respondents were asked whether the CPAs have provided them with some numbers to call during emergencies and 8.3 percent responded in the affirmative. The data showed that a higher proportion of the male respondents (11.8%) had these emergency contact numbers they could call compared to the female respondents (4.3%). Additionally, none of those aged 18 – 19 years and 30 – 34 years had received these emergency contact numbers compared to 21.6 percent of those aged 35 – 39 years. Almost one-third of the respondents in Accra (31.6%) received telephone contacts to call during emergencies compared to 11.8 percent of those in Ablekuma West. Apart from these two, less than 10 percent of respondents in Adentan, Ga East, Ga West, La Dadekotopon, Ayawaso West and Ablekuma North received numbers to call during emergencies. Respondents in the other districts did not receive any of such numbers to call during emergencies (see table 4.38).

Table 4.38 Respondents provided with emergency contact numbers:

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	16	11.8	76	55.9	44	32.4
Female	5	4.3	73	62.9	38	32.8
Age						
18-19	0	0	19	76	6	24
20-24	4	6.3	44	69.8	15	23.8
25-29	4	6.7	39	65	17	28.3
30-34	0	0	15	55.6	12	44.4
35-39	8	21.6	17	45.9	12	32.4
40 +	5	12.5	15	37.5	20	50
Location						
Accra	12	31.6	13	34.2	13	34.2
Adentan	1	8.3	0	0	11	91.7
Ashaiman	0	0	11	91.7	1	8.3
Ga East	1	4.5	19	86.4	2	9.1
Ga North	0	0	5	100	0	0
Ga West	1	4.2	8	33.3	15	62.5

	Yes		No		Don't know	
Variable	N	%	N	%	N	%
La Dadekotopon	1	9.1	10	90.9	0	0
La Nkwantanan-Madina	0	0	1	10	9	90
Ledzokuku Krowo	0	0	16	100	0	0
Tema	0	0	18	81.8	4	18.2
Ayawaso East	0	0	4	44.4	5	55.6
Ayawaso West	2	8.7	2	8.7	19	82.6
Ablekuma West	2	11.8	14	82.4	1	5.9
Ablekuma North	1	4.5	19	86.4	2	9.1
Weija Gbawe	0	0	9	100	0	0
All	21	8.3	149	59.1	82	32.5

Source: CPAs survey field data, June 2020

Two of the respondents either called the emergency contact line or know someone who ever called and the response was swift and professional. These two who called were all male respondents and they were found in the 35 – 39 years and 40 years or older age groups. Both of them were in the Ablekuma West District.

CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

5.0. INTRODUCTION:

Chapter five concerns itself with the research findings and discussions. The chapter will examine the research findings (i.e. the successes and the challenges) in light of the literature, paying attention to the extent to which these findings either *agree* or *disagree* with the existing literature. These findings, as we shall see, largely agree with the existing literature.

6.1. SUCCESSES:

The CPAs were asked to state their immediate previous employment and the results showed that 15.7% were completely unemployed whilst 14.5% were students who have just completed JHS and SHS. This suggests that YEA works to offer the Ghanaian youth with temporary employment and connects them to lifelong employments through its Job Portals and Job Centre. Now, YEA has about 15, 000 CPA recruits working under it in Ghana. This figure excludes the *hundreds* who have already benefited from the program in the previous years. Moreover, interactions with YEA top officials and CPAs showed that YEA provides the CPAs with 'Exit-Fund' at the end of the two-years-stay on the program. This finding aligns itself with Levin and Ferman's (1986) observation that YEDPA helped to train 450, 000 youth and assisted them to get jobs in U.S. Equally, the result aligns itself with Bridgman's (2001) assessment of Eva Phoenix in Canada, where, according to him, one of the managers of the project remarked that "The kids are getting jobs. The construction industry is getting the badly needed workers to replace our aging workforce" (ibid: 789).

Increasingly, community policing has improved and enhanced the relations between the CPAs and community-residents in Accra. Some of the CPAs reported that they have been holding CPAs-Community meetings to discuss security issues with the residents, with 87.9% describing the CPAs-Community cooperation as good. In fact, residents in Ablekuma West, La Dadekotopon, Ga West, Ashaiman, among others, confirmed that the CPAs have been holding regular meetings with them. Indeed, one of the CPAs noted, "the residents often give us food and the tips needed to arrest criminals". This finding aligns itself with the observation that community policing has improved police-resident relations in Northern Ireland (Topping, 2008), South Africa (Benit-Gbaffou, 2008), India (Kumar, 2012) and in Florida, U.S. (Liou and Savage, 1996).

Again, a larger proportion (80.6%) of the CPAs believed that they have been able to reduce crime in the communities in question. In fact, the result showed that about 32.4% strongly agreed to a 'higher extent'. Equally, a greater proportion of the community-residents who know about the work of the CPAs (i.e., 56% of them) confirmed that there was a reduction of crime in the communities due to the activities of the CPAs. Some community-residents, however, disagreed, claiming that the CPAs have not been able to reduce crime in the communities in question. Similarly, many have reported that community policing has contributed to reduce crime in the U.K., U.S. (Tyler et al, 2010; Sherman, 2013; Fagan, 2002) and in Choluteca and Tegucigalpa, Honduras (Arias and Ungar, 2009). McDonald (2002), however, reasoned to the contrary, claiming that the effects of community policing on crime-reduction is inconsequential and negligible in the U.S.

6.2. CHALLENGES:

The results showed that 39.5% of the CPAs were 'fairly dissatisfied' with their salary (i.e., the uniform amount of GH₵400) while 37.9% were 'very dissatisfied' with their salary. In sum,

this suggests that the majority (i.e., 39.5% + 37.9% = **77.4%**) of the CPAs were not satisfied with the salary YEA gives to them every month. Only 9% of the CPAs claimed that they were satisfied with the uniform salary of GH₵400. In fact, the result further showed that about 19.3% have decided to exit before the end of their stay on the program due to low salary. Low salary has already 'jettisoned' about 6 of every 10 CPAs off the program. Indeed, low salary and lack of funding, according to the CPAs, have generally destabilized operation as most of them are unable to feed themselves and families well, rent and renew rents and transport themselves to and fro. These results agree with the findings that lack of funding has undermined the effectiveness of community policing in the U.S. (Allison et al, 2009) and in Thailand (Puthpongsiriporn and Quang, 2005).

Moreover, on counselling and guidance services, about 10.8% have no idea about YEA's counselling and guidance services. Besides, the study asked the CPAs whether or not they have been trained on how to setup their own businesses after exit. In fact, only 28.3% of the CPAs claimed to have received training on how to establish their own businesses. Clearly, this shows that the majority of the CPAs have not received this kind of training, denying them the skills needed to set up their own businesses after exit. This finding, thus, aligns itself with that of Debrah (2007) and Ojo (1980) who claimed that lack of clerical, technical and artisanal skills tend to hinder the youth's access to jobs in Ghana and Nigeria. Similarly, the CPAs indicated that it is difficult to acquire land to set up a business in Accra. This finding aligns itself with Kristensen and Birch-Thomsen's (2013) assertion that the youth do not have land to establish their own business in Uganda.

In addition, the results showed that YEA and GPS do not allow the leadership of the CPAs to represent them on *boards* with them. Clearly, this shows that YEA and GPS do not involve the CPAs in critical decision making and implementation. Gyampo (2012) equally reported that

the authorities failed to involve the youth in the formulation of the National Youth Employment Policy (NYEP) in Ghana.

On community policing, the number of CPAs who were 'fairly satisfied' with their training was 41.1%, 'very satisfied' was 15.2% and 'very dissatisfied' was 2.4%. These results showed that YEA and GPS need to be commended for the training given to the CPAs, even though lapses still remain to be filled. Still, when the CPAs were asked to state their core objectives on the 6th module, 63.5% of them claimed that their core objective is to fight crime and improve security, 18.5% claimed they enrolled to fight poverty and, 17.7% claimed they want to stay employed in Ghana. Again, YEA and GPS need to be commended for injecting the spirit of patriotism (the urge to reduce crime in Ghana) into the CPAs. Besides, less than 5% of the CPAs, for example, claimed to have brutalized civilians in one way or the other. This, according to them, happened when civilians tried to resist arrest. In addition, the study found that only 2.2% of the CPAs claimed to have taken bribe to allow traffic-offenders escape arrest. These results showed that only a handful of the CPAs are clearly engaged in unproductive activities at their various duty post. But then, the fact that **some** CPAs acknowledged to have taken bribe and brutalized citizens means that a lot still needs to be done to reshape them in thoughts and actions. Clearly, the results suggest that these 'handful' CPAs do not understand the philosophy behind community policing in Ghana. These findings align themselves with that of German (1969) and Chappell (2009) who observed that some U.S. police do not understand the philosophy behind community policing due to lack of proper training. Some of them, for example, have resorted to corruption, thereby undermining efforts in Mexico City (Muller, 2010) and in the U.S. (Goetz and Mitchell, 2003). Furthermore, lack of proper training often leads to police brutalities in the U.S. (Koslicki and Willits, 2018) and in Honduras (Arias and Ungar, 2009). But the level of CPAs brutalities in Ghana is less when compared to the level of police brutalities in U.S.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0. INTRODUCTION:

This chapter will briefly look at the summary of findings, the conclusion and the recommendations of the study.

7.1. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS:

Firstly, the study found out that the CPAs consist of those who were [previously] unemployed (15.7%) and those who have [recently] completed JHS and SHS (14.5%). These results mean that YEA offers the youth with transitory jobs and links them to lifelong employments through its Job Portals and Job Centre in Ghana. Still, the results showed that YEA provides the CPAs with 'Exit-Fund' at the end of the two-years.

Secondly, the results indicated that the relation between the CPAs and the communities has improved as a result of community policing. The regular meetings and the mutual supports resulted in this positive relation between the two parties. Residents in Ablekuma West, La Dadekotopon, Ga West, Ashaiman, among others, attested to that fact that the CPAs have been holding regular meetings with them. And, 87.9% of the CPAs pointed to the CPAs-Communities cooperation as "good". Moreover, these positive interactions have worked to prevent crime in the communities, with 80.6% of the CPSs believing that crime has, indeed, reduced due to their activities. Equally, a greater proportion of the community-residents who know about the work of the CPAs attested that the activities of the CPAs have led to crime-reduction in the communities in question.

Thirdly, the study found out that the CPAs have developed Special Response Units to respond to emergencies as and when they arise. These CPAs, for example, have Response Units in Ga South, Ga East, Adentan, Ayawaso East, Ayawaso West, La Nkwantana-Madina and Weija Gbawe. Also, the CPAs have indicated that they have given out their contacts to the community-residents to call in times of emergencies. In fact, about 8.3% of the community-residents confirmed that the CPAs have given them numbers to call during emergency. The result, for example, showed that 59.7% of the CPAs received calls to intervene in critical situations. Interactions with GPS top *officials* and *CPAs* confirmed that the CPAs tend to rely on the phones more than on social media to prevent crime.

Notwithstanding, a proportion of the CPAs claimed that YEA has not been able to train them on how to set-up their own businesses after exit. Still, a proportion of the CPAs claimed that they have no idea about YEA counselling and guidance services since enrolling onto the program. In addition, most of the CPAs are dissatisfied (fairly dissatisfied—39.5% and very dissatisfied—37.9%) with their income. These CPAs, for example, indicated that low salary weakens their ability to feed families well, rent and renew rents and transport themselves to and fro. Besides, low salary, according to the CPAs, has contributed to undermine the effectiveness of the CPAs on the ground.

7.2. CONCLUSION:

In very simple terms, the current study was designed to appraise and measure the impacts of YEA's 6th module—the "Youth in Community Service and Security Module" [otherwise known as "Community Protection Personnel"]—on the 'youth' and 'security' in Ghana. It found out that YEA's 6th module was principally designed to [directly] deal with youth unemployment and its related consequences (crime) in Ghana. Currently, YEA, under the 6th

module, has recruited about 15000 CPAs, trained and tasked them to deal with crime (e.g., traffic offences, robbery, quarrelling, rape, etc.) in the various communities across the length and breadth of Ghana. The evidence showed the CPAs continue to receive a uniform salary every month and work to reduce crime in the various communities. However, the challenges include, among others, dissatisfaction with salary, lack of funding and 'half-secured' CPAs employment security after exit.

7.3. RECOMMENDATIONS:

Performance:

Firstly, to improve performance, beneficiaries should be positively stimulated. One way to do that is to provide beneficiaries the opportunity to be recruited into mainstream police force, after they have exited or when Ghana Police Service (GPS) is recruiting.

Secondly, interactions with GPS officials showed that the CPSs-Communities regular meetings are unofficial. One of the officials, for example, indicated that "If there is any, then, it is done unofficially". Clearly, this shows that the act of holding regular CPAs-Community meetings has not been formalized and incorporated into the 6th module. This work, thus, wishes to recommend that YEA and GPS need to formalize and incorporate the act of holding regular CPAs-Community meetings into the 6th module. This will allow the CPAs and residents to discuss issues on how to counter crime in the various communities.

Thirdly, it is important for YEA to push the government to establish a youth minimum-wage and grant tax holidays to private institutions who may be interested in recruiting the CPAs after exit.

Fourthly, and related to the above, YEA and GPS ought to deploy some CPAs to assist private institutions, especially those who wish to work with these private institutions (e.g., the banks

and other companies) after exit, on routine basis. Undoubtedly, this may help to establish and build CPA-private institution relations and thus, [may] lead to the employment of the former after exit.

Exit strategy:

First, to provide a fitting exit plan for beneficiaries, the Agency should know the individual interest of all beneficiaries. To achieve this, beneficiaries will be mandated to indicate their desired exit plan during recruitment registration.

The choice could be between:
- Trade
- Further education

Second, the Agency could lobby for slots from GPS, example 10-slots per region. These slots could be given to the 10 most hard working CPAs who also meet the Gh Police requirements. A lot of beneficiaries develop a genuine interest for the profession and thus an opportunity to join mainstream Police Service will encourage beneficiaries to put in their best.

Third, the government could establish a youth minimum-wage and grant tax holidays to private institutions who may be interested in recruiting the CPAs after exit.

Fourth, YEA ought to incorporate and institutionalize counselling and guidance services to help counsel and guide the recruits into lifelong jobs after exit.

Trade:

The Agency, through its Job Centre and NEIP collaboration, could provide entrepreneurship training and a start-up capital (exit package) after the beneficiary has exited the CPA module.

Further Education:

By partnering with GES, beneficiaries who want to further their education can be enrolled in school. Since the basic education requirement is BECE, the school option for exited CPAs would be:

-SHS
-TVET
-Training College
-Polytechnic
-University
-Other

The Community Protection Assistants Module

Regular and Periodic Training for Beneficiaries – The CPA Module was developed as an avenue to provide the youth of Ghana with employment while simultaneously augmenting the strength of the Ghana Police Service. The Module provided previously underserved communities with police presence and the opportunity to have their community policing needs met. The role CPAs play in the various communities cannot be understated. It is therefore imperative that CPAs are equipped with the right knowledge and skill to ensure that they effectively carry out their duties. Due to the changing nature of crime and policing activities all over the world, it is necessary to institute regular and periodic training programs to keep the CPAs abreast with the latest policing trends and techniques. It is recommended that quarterly training programs are undertaken during the 2-year engagement period, at the end of which CPAs will be issued a certificate to not only indicate that they have successfully come to the end of the engagement but that they have also undergone various training programs. It is hoped that the certificate issued will boost the employability of the exited CPAS.

Involve Ghana Police Service in Monitoring and Evaluation Exercises- Currently, the CPA module is run in collaboration with the Ghana Police Service which provides the initial training for the successful candidates before they are deployed. However, to ensure that the activities

of the CPAs are correctly measured and to aid in future reviews and development of the module, it is recommended that the Ghana Police Service is involved in the monitoring and evaluation of the module. The Ghana Police Service should also provide periodic reports on the conduct and performance of the Beneficiaries stationed at various police posts across the country. The involvement of the Ghana Police Service will also give a seal of approval to the Beneficiaries as it will serve as an indication that they have duly applied the knowledge gained during their trainings on the field.

Engagement with Private Security Firms – The exit strategy for the Community Protection Assistant Module is for a percentage of Beneficiaries to be absorbed into the Ghana Police Service and for those who are not so absorbed to transition into paid employment. The private security industry is an ideal sector for the CPAs to transition into as they are already conversant with the trends and demands of that sector. Effective engagements with this sector will have a twofold impact. The first impact will be that the various private security firms are introduced to the module and essentially given access to a pool of people to fill their future recruitment needs. The second impact will be that Beneficiaries who are about to exit are given the opportunity to interact with the private security agencies and determine how best to position themselves for employment in these firms. An annual engagement event can be instituted to fulfil this objective.

Institute Pathways for Further Education – One observation from the running of the CPA Module was the low level of education among the Beneficiaries. It will thus be beneficial to establish a pathway for further education to assist Beneficiaries who may wish to pursue further education. This can be implemented in collaboration with both public and private educational institutions.

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INTERVIEWS:

YEA officials:

Director, Research and Planning—20th May, 2020
Director, Corporate Affairs—25th May, 2020
Director, Monitoring & Evaluation—10th June, 2020
Director, Administration—12th June, 2020
Director, Human Resources—17th June, 2020

GPS officials:

These include, among others:
Director, community policing—22nd July, 2020
Director, motor traffic and transport department (MTTD)—25th July, 2020
Director general, National Patrol Department (NDP)—27th July, 2020
Director general, CID special duties—6th August, 2020
director, private security organisation—11th August, 2020
commander, police training school—14th August, 2020

Appendix 1

Table A1 Comparing mean age of CPAs by sex:

Two-sample t test with equal variances

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Male	333	28.06607	.2123776	3.875528	27.64829	28.48384
Female	176	26.59091	.2570149	3.409688	26.08366	27.09816
combined	509	27.55599	.1676972	3.783422	27.22653	27.88546
diff		1.475157	.3467998		.7938154	2.156499

diff = mean(Male) - mean(Female) t = 4.2536
Ho: diff = 0 degrees of freedom = 507

Ha: diff < 0 Ha: diff != 0 Ha: diff > 0
Pr(T < t) = 1.0000 Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.0000 Pr(T > t) = 0.0000

Appendix 2:

QUESTIONNAIRE TO MEASURE THE IMPACT OF COMMUNITY POLICING FROM THE PERSPECTIVES OF THE CPAs

INTRODUCTION:

This section introduces the topic and the statement of the research problem to the respondents. In both cases, the researcher intends to explain the import of the research project to his respondents. Also, he will emphasize that their views and opinions will be used for academic purposes and nothing else. This, it is believed, will boost the confidence level of respondents and cause them to respond without any fear.

Demographics:

1. Gender: Male…….. Female……..
2. Age…….
3. Marital Status……
4. Number of Children (if any)…….
5. Family occupation……
6. Monthly income level of family before current occupation…….
7. Educational level……
8. Religion……..
9. Ethnicity (Ga, Ewe, etc)……

INVESTIGATE THE EMPLOYMENT ASPECTS OF THE YOUTH UNDER THE YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AGENCY

1. Previous occupation…….
2. Income level (prior to employment)……

3. Current Occupation…….
4. Income level (current)…….
5. How old were you at the time of employment……..
6. Are you satisfied with your income level? (a) somehow (b) satisfied (c) not satisfied (d) don't know
7. Do you intend to exit before the two years? (a) yes (b) no (c) don't know
8. If Yes, why? (a) low salary (financial reasons) (b) not satisfied with the work (c) for further studies (d) for another job (e) sickness (f) personal (g) others…….
9. Do you know others who (intend to or) have exited before the end of the two years? (a) Yes (b) no (c) don't know
10. If Yes, why? (a) low salary (financial reasons) (b) not satisfied with the work (c) for further studies (d) for another job (e) sickness (f) personal (g) others…….
11. Were you trained on how to set-up your own business? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know
12. Does YEA provide you with some "special fund" after exit? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know
13. Do you think that the "exit fund" will help you set-up you own business or any other ambitions? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know
14. What do you intend to use the "exit fund" for?
    (a) Business
    (b) Further education
    (c) Establish a family
    (d) Others…….
15. Which of the following areas do you want to go into after exit

(a) Nation security force

(b) Self-employment

(c) Work with private companies

(d) Others……

16. Do you think that the acquisition of 'land' is a problem if you intend to set-up your own business? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know
17. Do you think that YEA discriminates against the youth based on gender, religion, ethnicity, among others (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know
18. Does YEA provide you with "guidance and counselling" services on how to stay employed? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know
19. What do you hope to achieve under this module? (a) improve security (b) gain enough money (c) remain employed (d)

    ……

    …….
20. Do you have some associations? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know
21. If YES, what is the name?.....
22. Do have leaders? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know
23. Does YEA allow your leaders to represent you in the various boards and departments? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know

    (b)

INVESTIGATE COMMUNITY POLICING UNDE THE YEA's SIXTH MODULE

1. District……
2. Name of Police Station……..
3. Name of community (duty point)…….

4. Which of the following crimes do you detect most in this community/duty point? (***rank from 1st to last***)

   (a) Robbery

   (b) Rape/defilement

   (c) Traffic offenses

   (d) Trafficking

   (e) Quarrelling

   (f) Smoking of marijuana/cocaine

   (g) Excessive drinking of strong alcohol

   (h) Others…….

5. How would you describe the level of cooperation from the community?

   a. Excellent

   b. Very good

   c. Good

   d. Poor

   e. Very poor

6. In which ways does the community cooperate with you?

   a. Help to provide information

   b. Help to provide us with food and money

   c. Help to arrest criminals and hand them over to us

   d. Others……

7. Are you satisfied with the training given to you?

   (a) Somehow

   (b) Satisfied

   (c) Not satisfied

(d) Don't know

8. Do you receive regular in-and-on-the-job training? (a) Yes (b) No
9. If YES, are you satisfied with them?
10. Somehow
11. Satisfied
12. Not satisfied
13. Don't know
14. Which of the following does your training allow you to do most in the duty post? (***rank from 1st to last***)
15. Control of robbery
16. Control of rape/defilement
17. Control of traffic offenses
18. Control of trafficking
19. Control of quarrelling
20. Control of Smoking of marijuana/cocaine
21. Control of excessive drinking of strong alcohol
22. Others…….
23. Mentions some of the methods used to control

crime……

……

……

……

……..

24. Do you think that you have been able to contribute towards crime reduction in this area?

(a) To a high degree

(b) To a less degree

(c) Somehow

(d) Not at all

(e) Don't know

25. Do you have the power to make and implement some decisions without having to consult your big men (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know

26. If YES, what can/do you do independently?

……

……

……

……

…….

27. If NO, do you think that the command structures should be decentralized to allow you take and implement some decisions (a) YES (b) NO (c) don't know

28. What do you need these powers to do?

……

……

……

……

……

……..

29. Do you hold regular meetings with the communities in order to educate them on crime prevention and control? (a) Yes (b) No Don't know

30. If yes, provide a brief update on some of the issues raised and discussed during these meetings?

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……..

31. Do you have a mobile phone (not your own cell-phone) dedicated to this work? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know

32. How many calls to you make a day with regards to crime prevention and control?

    (a) Two-five

    (b) six-ten

    (c) eleven-fifteen

    (d) sixteen-twenty

33. Have you provided the communities with some numbers to call you during emergency?

    a. Yes

    b. No

    c. Don't know

34. do you receive calls from the community members for help during emergency?

    a. Yes

    b. No

35. Which of the following to you use most to prevent and control crime?

    (a) Media

    (b) Internet

    (c) Social media

36. Do you have some special **response unit** to emergency calls? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know

37. What has been the means of patrol since recruit? (a) foot (b) vehicle
38. Do you think that community policing has enhanced the relations between you and the community (citizens/NGOs ect)? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know
39. Do you consider yourself (**or others**) corrupt under this module? (a) yes (b) no (c) don't know
40. If YES, what do you (**or others**) do under these corrupt practices?

……

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……

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……

……

41. Do you think that divisions (divisions based on politics, religion, ethnicity etc) have impacts on YEA recruits? (a) yes (b) no
42. From the above question, which of the following has a greater impact?
    (a) Politics
    (b) Ethnicity
    (c) Religion
    (d) Others……..
43. Have you (**or others**) ever been brutal on the citizens? (a) Yes (b) No (c) don't know
44. If YES, what have you (**or others**) ever done to show that you have misconducted yourself/themselves?

    ……

    ……

    ……

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……..

45. Do you think that lack of funding has stifled operations under this module? (a) yes (b) no (c) don't know

46. In YES, in what ways has lack of funding stifled operations under this module?

……

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……

47. Do you think that there are some 'leadership' and 'coordination' problems between the top hierarchy and you?

……

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……..

THANK YOU

Appendix 3:

QUESTIONNAIRE TO MEASURE THE IMPACT OF CPAs FROM THE PERSPECTIVES OF THE COMMUNITY-RESIDENTS

INTRODUCTION:

This section introduces the topic and the statement of the research problem to the respondents. In both cases, the researcher intends to explain the import of the research project to his respondents. Also, he will emphasize that their views and opinions will be used for academic purposes and nothing else. This, it is believed, will boost the confidence level of respondents and cause them to respond without any fear.

Demographics:

10. Gender: Male…….. Female……..
11. Age…….
12. Marital Status……
13. Educational level……
14. Religion……..
15. Ethnicity (Ga, Ewe, etc)……

INVESTIAGE THE IMPACT OF COMMUNITY POLICING ASSISTANTS (CPA) IN THE COMMUNITY

48. District……
49. Name of Police Station……..
50. Name of community (duty-point) …….
51. Which of the following crimes do you detect most in this community/duty-point? (***rank from 1st to last***)

(i) Robbery

(j) Rape/defilement

(k) Traffic offenses

(l) Trafficking

(m) Quarrelling

(n) Smoking of marijuana/cocaine

(o) Excessive drinking of strong alcohol

(p) Others…….

52. Have you heard about the Community Policing Assistants (CPAs) in this community?

(a) yes (b) no (c) don't know

53. If YES, do you always find them working in this community? (a) yes (b) no (c) don't know

54. Do you believe that the CPAs are indigenes of the community?

a. Yes

b. No

c. Don't know

55. Do the CPAs hold regular meetings with you to discuss how to prevent and control crime in this community? (a) yes (b) yes (c) don't know

56. If yes, provide a brief update on the issues raised and discussed during these meetings?

……

……

……

……

……

57. Which of the following do you always see them working to control and prevent? (***rank from 1st to last***)

a. robbery

b. rape/defilement

c. traffic offenses

d. trafficking

e. quarrelling

f. Smoking of marijuana/cocaine

g. excessive drinking of strong alcohol

Others…….

58. Are you satisfied with the output of the CPAs? a) somehow (b) satisfied (c) not satisfied (d) don't know

59. Can you testify that crime has, indeed, reduced as a result of the work of the CPAs in your community?

a. To a high degree

b. To a less degree

c. Somehow

d. Not at all

e. Don't know

60. Which of the following crimes do you think has reduced because of the work of the CPAs in your community?

a. robbery

b. rape/defilement

c. traffic offenses

d. trafficking

e. quarrelling

f. Smoking of marijuana/cocaine

g. excessive drinking of strong alcohol

Others…….

61. Have you been provided with some number (s) to call during emergency?

a. Yes

b. No

c. Don't know

62. If yes, have you (or do you know someone else who has) ever called for assistance using that emergency number?

a. Yes

b. No

c. Don't know

63. If you ever called, how was the response?

a. Swift and professional

b. Slow and unprofessional

c. No response at all

d. Don't know

64. General comments on the CPAs

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THANK YOU

Appendix 4:

INTERVIEW DISCUSSION GUIDE TO MEASURE THE IMPACTS OF CPAs FROM THE PERSPECTIVES OF YEA AND GPS OFFICIALS

1. Examine the extent to which the training provides employment opportunities to the youth after exit?
2. Examine the mode of YEA's security training program [i.e., the way and manner in which it is being carried out]?
3. Examine the credibility level of YEA's 'training' under the sixth module?
4. Explore YEA's assistance to acquire/create new jobs after exits?
5. Examine issues on public-private partnerships (PPP) under YEA training?
6. Tax credits/holidays (for private employers of YEA security personnel) and youth minimum wage (for the youth employees)?
7. Examine if the sixth module provides "guidance and counselling" services?
8. Examine if the 'system' allows the youth leadership to sit in the various implementation and management boards of YEA?
9. Examine if the recruitment process is infected with 'discriminations' and 'prejudices' based on 'gender' and 'region'?
10. Examine government's budget on community policing?
11. Examine the command structures between the national police and YEA's community policing personnel (e.g., the ceding of powers)?
12. Examine the regular meetings, if any, between community policing personnel and neighborhood watch groups?
13. Examine emergency response units and the use of online discussions and the media to combat crime?
14. Examine the various reforms that have taken place since the inception of YEA in 2006**?**
15. Investigate the mode of patrols (foot and vehicle) used to combat crime under the sixth module?
16. Examine challenges—in terms of leadership structure, financial problems, obstinacies to the command structure, the problems with training, police-brutalities, the aspirations of recruits and the sixth module, corruption, among others, under the sixth module