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**LEGON CENTRE FOR INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS AND DIPLOMACY**

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**FIGHTING ORGANIZED CRIME IN WEST AFRICA: THE CASE OF**

**COMMUNITY POLICING IN GHANA**

**BY**

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**(10169086)**

**This dissertation is submitted to the University of Ghana, Legon**

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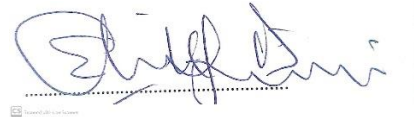
**MA IN INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS Degree**

**DECEMBER, 2023**

**INTEGRI PROCEDAMUS**

**DECLARATION**

I, George Peprah Mills, hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of an original research conducted by me under the supervision of Emmanuel Ken Ahorsu (PhD), and that no part of it has been submitted elsewhere for any other purpose.



.....

.....

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**Date:** 22/12/2023

**Date:** 22/12/2023



## DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to me for rising above the numerous challenges of my job as a police officer to have completed this work and my master's programme generally, and to my wife, Monica Amoabil for her encouragement, physical and spiritual support.



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

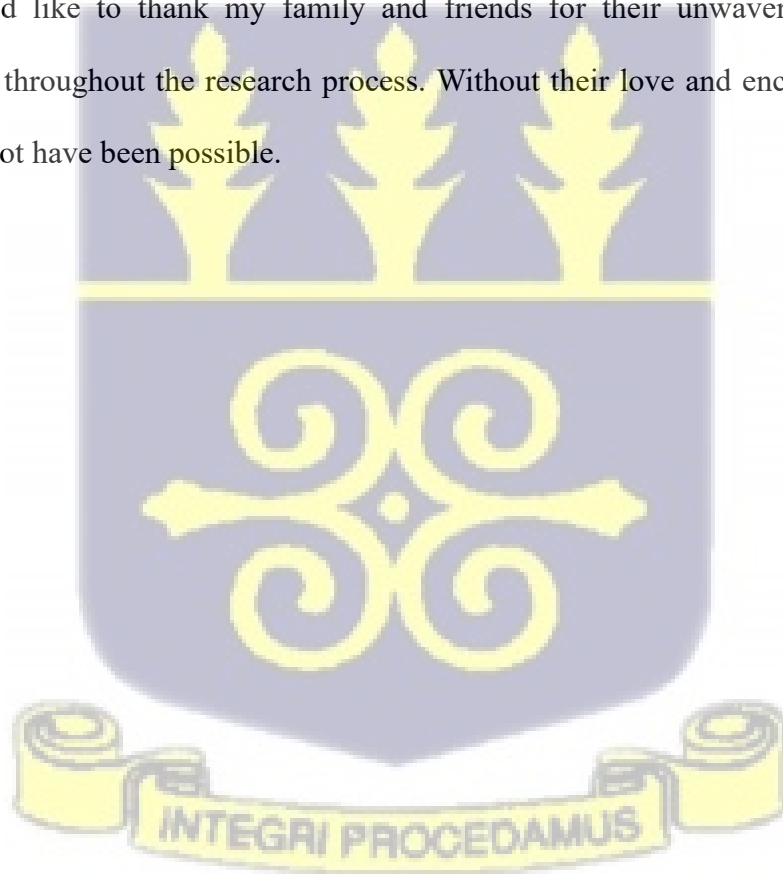
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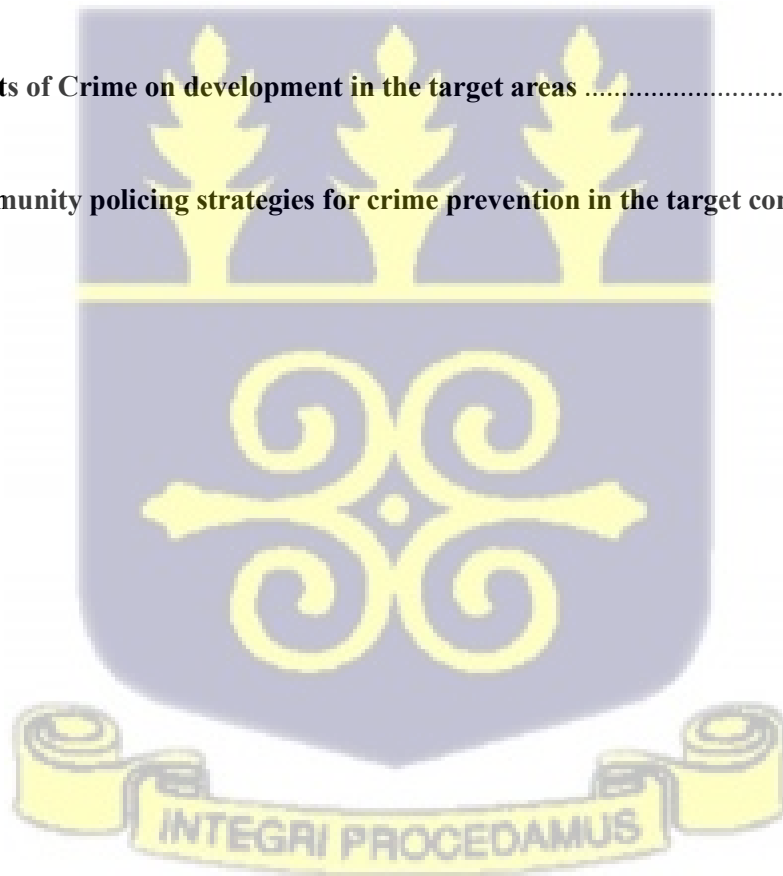
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**LIST OF ACRONYMS**

CID	Criminal Investigations Department
CPU	Community Policing Unit
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
ER	Eastern Region
GPS	Ghana Police Service
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
JHS	Junior High School
MOFA	Ministry of Food and Agriculture
SHS	Senior High School
SITU	Statistics and Information Technology Unit
UN	United Nations
UNODC	The United Nation’s Office on Drugs and Crime

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**ABSTRACT**

This study utilized a mixed descriptive design approach, incorporating both sequential transformative and concurrent transformative approaches, to examine the impact of community policing on crime prevention and management in various communities in Ghana. Adopting a positivistic paradigm, the study collected data through observations and surveys in the Upper East, Western, Eastern, Volta, and Greater Accra Regions. The sample frame for the study consisted of communities in these regions that have implemented community policing initiatives. The study found that there is a significant level of crime reduction in the target communities, with 31.4% of respondents strongly agreeing and 57.3% agreeing with this statement. The majority of respondents also had confidence in the police (35.1% strongly agreeing and 57.6% agreeing) and believed that the police are friendly and can be relied on for assistance (33.8% strongly agreeing and 59.4% agreeing). In terms of community policing strategies, the study found that visibility strategies, such as decentralizing police posts to

communities, and door-to-door visit strategies were particularly effective in improving safety and reducing crime. Overall, the study highlights the importance of community participation and effective community policing strategies in promoting crime prevention and management in target communities.





## CHAPTER ONE

### RESEARCH DESIGN

#### 1.1. BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

In the past, the West African sub region was able to effectively resolve intrastate conflicts in the region through mediation and deploying troops. The advent of new and growing transnational threats to West Africa's peace and security, on the other hand, has introduced and posed a new layer of risk to the region's security. Akokpari (2016) argues that West Africa has been enveloped by terrorism, cybercrime, and organized transnational and cross-border crime among others.

Organized crime is a serious and growing threat to national and international security, with farreaching implications for public safety, public health, democratic institutions, and global economic stability. The United Nation's Office on Drugs and Crime estimates that human trafficking victim's number up to 2.4 million per year resulting from organized crime (UNODC, Transnational Organized Crime: Let's Put Them out of Business, 2022). Criminal networks are not only expanding, but also diversifying their operations, resulting in the convergence of previously disparate threats with explosive and disruptive repercussions.

As a result, Ellis and Shaw (2015) expressed the international worry over the expansion of organized crime on the African continent, particularly in the West African sub region. Darkwa (2006) expressed the fragility arising from insurrections, secession attempts, terrorists' activities, murders, abductions and the proliferation of arms among others. in the West Africa sub region. For example, activities of Boko haram have increased since 2011. In 2014, the group kidnapped over two hundred girls from their schools in Nigeria and this drew international attention. In February 2018, more than one hundred thousand students were also kidnapped by Boko Haram.

Again, the Biafra, the secessionist movement in eastern Nigeria declared its independence in 1967 and collapsed in 1970. However, in 1999, it re-founded the movement and several activities had been carried out in an attempt to regain its independence from Nigeria.

Also, in September 2020, the Western Togoland Restoration Front mounted roadblocks and attacked police precincts in areas of the Volta Region such as North Tongu District in an attempt to declare their independence from Ghana.

Moreover, cybercrime is any criminal activity that involves a computer, networked device or a network. This form of crime originated from Nigeria and therefore became known as the 'Nigerian letter', but the phenomenon has in recent times assumed remarkable criminal dimensions through which thousands of young people operating from cybercafés in West Africa syphoning millions of dollars from victims across the world each year. In 2008, for instance, about 275 284 complaints with a total loss of US\$265 million were received in the united states alone, with victims on average losing about US\$931. In addition, the crime rate is estimated to have increased by about 33.1% from the previous year.

In a region suffering from serious poverty, with rising youth unemployment rates and endemic corruption, the flamboyant display of wealth by cyber criminals has become a lure to the poor and unemployed youth desperate to share in the wealth. As a result, recent trends point to the increasing involvement of young economic and social desperadoes from many countries other than Nigeria. The Nigerian letter has become so popular among semi-literate young people that it has seen a rapid regionalization into a 'West African letter'. Thus, Cybercrime in West Africa.

Furthermore, human trafficking or trafficking in persons is the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring, trading or receipt of persons for the purpose of exploitation within and across national borders by use of threats, force or other forms of coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, the abuse of power or exploitation of vulnerability, or giving or receiving payments

and benefits to achieve consent. Exploitation includes at the minimum; induced prostitution and other form of sexual exploitation; forced labour or service; slavery or practices similar to slavery; servitude or the removal of organs; or the placement for sale, bonded placement, temporary placement, placement as service where exploitation by someone else is the motivating factor (Source: Human trafficking Act, 2005, act 694 as amended by human trafficking Act, 2009, Act 785)

It is further estimated that 3.5 million Africans are human trafficking victims at any given moment, of which 99% of victims detected in West Africa are trafficked within the sub-region or in their own country (Africa Centre for Strategic Study 2021)

To add to the above-organized crimes, drug trafficking is also in existence in West Africa. West Africa has become a hub for cocaine coming on ships and planes from Latin America into poorly guarded West African posts and airfields. The shipments are then broken down into smaller consignments and sent to Europe by a variety of means. Distribution is mostly done by criminal groups among the West African diaspora. Seizures indicate that much of the cocaine is destined for Spain and the United Kingdom, the two largest cocaine markets in Europe. Because drug trafficking is a serious threat to security in West Africa, it is on agenda of the United Nations Security Council, the Peacebuilding Commissions, the Economic Community of Western African States and the European Union.

The West African sub-region is no longer just a transit route for hard drugs but also a final destination. The 2012 World Drug Report(WDR) highlights the association of drug users with acquisitive crime as well as behavioural challenges including aggression or violence. While the above revelations question the nature, effectiveness and resilience of the existing legal and institutional framework for responding to drug trafficking in West Africa, the emerging drug

consumption levels in the sub-region suggests the potential impact of drugs on human security in West Africa (Wabala 2013).

Last but not the least, illegal mining is defined locally (Ghanaian contest) as mining operations in which miners without license have no concessions of their own operate uncontrollably within concessions of large-scale mining companies or in areas prohibited for mining (Aryee, 2013; Hilson et al, 2013).

In Ghana, small-scale mining (SSM) has been carried out for many years, generating employment and income. Currently, illegal artisanal mining ('galamsey') has impacted the environment negatively, resulting in land degradation and water pollution. The government of Ghana, responding to public outcry against the negative effect of 'galamsey', placed a ban on illegal small-scale mining activities in march, 2017. This ban stopped both 'legal' small-scale and the illegal artisanal miners from carrying out any such activity.

Couples with Military Coups in Burkina Faso and Guinea, these activities have been evidences to the manifestations of organizes crime in West Africa in recent times.

Because of structural problems such as being multi-ethnic societies with porous borders that frequently separate the same ethnic groups, communities, and in some cases towns into distinct sovereign jurisdictions, states in West African have been referred to as weak states (Jackson & Rosberg, 1982).

As weak states are not able to maintain a functioning economic infrastructure, control its territory, provide jobs, social security, among others; these create opportunities for organized crime to step in and fill the void by providing employment, protection and some kind of stability. The volatility of states in West Africa creates an enabling environment for organized crime to thrive. States in West Africa suffer from poor economies and weak governance.

Because of this, Mazzitelli (2007) alludes that organized crimes such as drug trafficking, migrant smuggling, human trafficking, proliferation of small arms and light weapons, armed robbery, cyber fraud, and abduction are all prevalent in states in West Africa

As a result of its negative impact of organizes crime on society, international organizations such as the UN and sub-regional entities like ECOWAS have taken keen interests in fighting the canker. Because criminal networks are more fluid and employ increasingly sophisticated techniques, the threat from organized crime has become more multifaceted. The interconnected nature of today's trading, transportation, and transactional networks, which move people and things around the world and across borders has facilitated the activities of organized crime. To combat organized crime today, an integrated and comprehensive approach is required.

Organized crime poses sophisticated and multi-faceted dangers that law enforcement alone will not be able to fight. There is the need therefore, according to a report by the White House (2011) to have interagency working groups to identify those organized crime networks that pose a sufficiently high national security threat to warrant the focused use of complementary law enforcement and non-law enforcement assets.

Due to the sophisticated nature of organized crime and the inability to fight it using traditional policing, the concept of community policing come in handy as a complementary measure towards fighting organized crime in West Africa. As a (UN, 2009) report opined, community policing operates on the principle that police can only be successful if it operates in close cooperation with the community, therefore the concept is regarded as key to effective fight against organized crime.

This study therefore looks at challenges or threats that organized crimes pose to West Africa and to study how community policing mitigates organized crimes in West Africa with Ghana as a case study.

## 1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Organized crime in West Africa has become a significant international security concern since the year 2000 due to the prevalence of activities such as drug trafficking, migrant smuggling, human trafficking, proliferation of small arms and light weapons, armed robbery, cyber fraud, and kidnapping among others (Mazzitelli, 2007). The nature of organized crime is both international and internal, requiring a multi-faceted approach to address the problem. (Mazzitelli, 2007).

These traffickers, smugglers, armed robbers, drug dealers, fraudsters, kidnappers and others live in the communities and that the aim of community policing is to provide police services to the people at their door steps. This is to prevent the above-mentioned criminals to move about their criminal activities freely.

To buttress the above point, when policing is embedded in the community, information gathering about the above-mentioned crimes become very easy.

Secondly, community policing frightens the above-mentioned criminals to settle in the communities where they operate and the community people feel more protected.

In view of the above, Community policing, which entails the police working in collaboration with the community, has been proposed as a complementary approach to traditional law enforcement in addressing the threat of organized crime (Thakur, 2014). According to the Community Policing Consortium, despite being labelled as community policing, the concept entails police collaborating with members of the public to combat organized crime in local neighbourhoods.

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) (2022) suggests that to effectively tackle organized crime, it is necessary to implement relevant United Nations conventions at both normative and operational levels, build national, regional, and transnational initiatives to

confront organized crime, and properly collect and analyse criminal intelligence. However, despite organized crime being transnational in nature, traditional military approaches are not sufficient to effectively address it. This is because transnational criminals, their networks, and operations are often situated in communities.

This study aims to fill the gap in understanding the effectiveness and problematic aspects of police-community collaboration in combating organized crime in Ghana. By doing so, it aims to contribute to the development of more effective and sustainable strategies for addressing this pressing issue in West Africa.

### **1.2.1. Aim of the study**

The aim of this study is to provide police services to the community, with a specific focus on preventing organized crime within the communities. The study will aim to explore the potential for adapting and implementing community policing strategies in other West African countries, and to examine the effectiveness of community policing in combating organized crime in Ghana. Through a thorough examination of the literature on community policing and preventive diplomacy, the study will seek to identify the key elements of successful community policing programs and the potential for such programs to be adapted and implemented in other West African countries. Additionally, the study will aim to assess the effectiveness of community policing in combating organized crime in Ghana and to identify any challenges or limitations that may need to be addressed in order to improve the effectiveness of these programs. Ultimately, the goal of this study is to provide insights that can inform the development and implementation of effective community policing strategies that can help to prevent organized crime and promote peace and security within communities in West Africa.

### **1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The general objective is to find out how community policing has been able to fight organized crime in West Africa. Specifically, the study will consider the following objectives to

1. Examine international organized crime in all its manifestations and prevalence in West Africa.
2. Examine international organized crime in all its manifestations and prevalence in the Ghanaian communities.
3. Find out the philosophy, logic, objectives and advantages of using community policing to fight organized crime in West Africa and Ghana.
4. Evaluate how effective has community been in Ghana, including its successes and challenges.

Based upon the findings, this study will make suggestions and recommendations for improving community policing in the fight against organized crime.

#### **1.4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The following are the research questions guiding the study are:

1. What are the forms of organized crime prevalent in West Africa in general and Ghana in particular and how do they threaten communities?
2. What is the philosophy and logic behind using community policing to address organized crime in Ghana in particular and West Africa by extension?
3. What have been the successes, challenges, and prospects of community policing in combating organized crime in Ghana in particular and West Africa in general?

Based on the findings, the study will make suggestions and recommendations for improving community policing as a tool for addressing organized crime in the West African sub-region.

#### **1.5. SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

The study focuses on the phenomenon of community policing in combating organized crime in West Africa and Ghana. Specifically, examines the effectiveness and problematic aspects of police-community collaboration in addressing transnational security threats, such as drug

trafficking, migrant smuggling, human trafficking, proliferation of small arms and light weapons, armed robbery, cyber fraud and kidnapping in these regions. The study also explores the potential advantages of using community policing as a complementary approach to traditional law enforcement in addressing these transnational security threats. Additionally, the study will evaluate the successes and challenges of community policing in Ghana, specifically in the Greater Accra, Western, Ashanti, Upper East, Eastern and Volta regions since its introduction in 2002. The study is drawn on existing literature and data to provide a comprehensive analysis of the topic and its potential applicability in other countries in West Africa.

#### **1.6. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The essentials of security have moved from national security largely to include human security. Human security is best protected through community securities. It is therefore hoped that the findings of the study, thus, the community policing fight against organized crime will help security personnel and government officials and policy makers to improve human security in West Africa.

Again, Organized crime has become a global issue for weak states such as those in West Africa, it is important to fight them in the communities before they mushroom in the West Africa subregional arena. Therefore, it is hoped that, the findings will help government, the academic and policy markers to use community policing concept to fight organized crime in West Africa and Ghana. The study will also provide new insight and serve as a starting point for further research on this topic.

#### **THESIS STATEMENT**

It can be safely argued that C. P. has helped reduced the impact of crime in Ghana in particular and West Africa by extension.

## 1.7. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

### 1.7.1 Preventive Diplomacy

Preventive diplomacy is a proactive approach to addressing potential conflicts before they escalate into violent crises. The concept of preventive diplomacy is not new, but it has gained renewed attention in recent years as a means of addressing emerging security challenges, including the threat of organized crime. The United Nations (UN) defines preventive diplomacy as "action to prevent disputes from arising between parties, to prevent existing disputes from escalating into conflicts and to limit the spread of the latter when they occur, (United Nations, 2018).

Preventive diplomacy can take a variety of forms, including diplomatic engagement, dialogue, and conflict resolution. It can be implemented at different levels, including between states, within states, and at the regional and global levels. The goal of preventive diplomacy is to address the underlying issues and root causes of potential conflicts, rather than simply addressing the symptoms.

There have been several examples of preventive diplomacy in practice, such as the Dayton Accords that ended the Bosnian War in 1995, (Holbrooke, 1998) and the Good Friday Agreement that ended the Northern Ireland conflict in 1998, (George, 1999). In the context of organized crime, preventive diplomacy can be used to address the underlying issues that contribute to the growth and spread of criminal networks, such as poverty, unemployment, and weak governance.

Preventive diplomacy has been applied in the context of organized crime in West Africa, particularly in the areas of maritime security and drug trafficking. The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) has implemented a preventive diplomacy approach to addressing maritime insecurity in the Gulf of Guinea, which is a major transit point for illicit drugs and other contraband (ECOWAS, 2019). Similarly, the West Africa Coast Initiative

(WACI), a partnership between the UN and the African Union, has used preventive diplomacy to address the threat of drug trafficking in the region, (UNODC, West Africa: Organized crime and illicit markets, 2018).

However, there are also challenges to the implementation of preventive diplomacy in the context of organized crime. One major challenge is the lack of political will among states to address the underlying issues that contribute to organized crime, such as corruption and weak governance. Additionally, there is often a lack of resources and capacity among regional and international organizations to effectively implement preventive diplomacy initiatives.

### **1.7.2 Historical Evolution of Preventive Diplomacy**

The concept of preventive diplomacy, which aims to address potential conflicts before they escalate, has a long history dating back to the early 20th century. The League of Nations, established in 1919, was the first international organization to promote the principle of collective security, which is a key aspect of preventive diplomacy, (Thakur, 2014). However, it was not until the end of the Cold War that preventive diplomacy began to gain widespread acceptance within the international community.

In the 1990s, the United Nations (UN) established the Department of Political Affairs (DPA) to coordinate preventive diplomacy efforts. The DPA's mandate is to anticipate, prevent, and resolve conflicts through the use of diplomatic tools, such as mediation and dialogue (United Nations, 2018). In 2002, the UN Secretary-General established the Office for the Coordination of Preventive Diplomacy (OCPD) to enhance the UN's ability to anticipate and prevent conflicts. The OCPD works closely with the DPA, as well as other UN agencies and regional organizations, to promote preventive diplomacy and support conflict prevention efforts, (United Nations, 2018).

Overall, the historical evolution of preventive diplomacy demonstrates the growing recognition of the importance of addressing potential conflicts before they escalate. The UN's establishment of the DPA and OCPD reflects the commitment of the international community to use diplomatic tools to prevent conflicts and promote peace and security.

### **1.7.3 Preventive Diplomacy and Organized Crime**

Preventive diplomacy has increasingly been recognized as a useful tool in addressing the threat of organized crime. Organized crime poses a significant threat to international security, stability, and development, and traditional law enforcement approaches alone are often not sufficient to effectively address this complex problem. Preventive diplomacy, with its focus on early warning, conflict prevention, and post-conflict peacebuilding, has been proposed as a complementary approach to traditional law enforcement in addressing the threat of organized crime. This is due to the ability of preventive diplomacy to address the underlying socioeconomic and political factors that contribute to the rise of organized crime, such as poverty, inequality, and weak governance (Thakur, 2014). According to Thakur, Preventive diplomacy strategies that have been proposed to address organized crime include (1) Building partnerships between governments, civil society, and the private sector to address the root causes of organized crime and create a more conducive environment for sustainable development, (2) , Enhancing regional and international cooperation to improve informationsharing and coordination in the fight against organized crime, (3) Promoting good governance and the rule of law, including efforts to strengthen the capacity of judicial systems and law enforcement agencies to effectively combat organized crime, and. (4) Supporting the development of alternative livelihoods for those at risk of becoming involved in organized crime, such as youth and marginalized communities.

#### **1.7.4 Criticisms of Preventive Diplomacy**

Despite the potential benefits of preventive diplomacy, the approach has faced criticism for a number of reasons. One of the main criticisms is that it is difficult to define and measure the effectiveness of preventive diplomacy efforts, (Pion-Berlin, 2014). Additionally, some argue that preventive diplomacy can be overly optimistic, assuming that conflicts can be prevented through dialogue and negotiation when in reality, the underlying issues may be too deeply rooted to be resolved in this way, (Thakur, 2014).

Conclusively, preventive diplomacy is a proactive approach to addressing potential conflicts before they escalate into violent crises. The concept of preventive diplomacy has gained renewed attention in recent years as a means of addressing emerging security challenges, including the threat of organized crime. Preventive diplomacy, with its focus on early warning, conflict prevention, and post-conflict peacebuilding, has been proposed as a complementary approach to traditional law enforcement in addressing the threat of organized crime. However, the approach has faced criticism for its difficulties in definition, measurement and its overly optimistic assumptions.

### **1.8. LITERATURE REVIEW**

This section presents the history and development of policing in West Africa, history of community policing, the underpinnings of the style of police operations known as community policing in the context of organizational change.

#### **1.8.1 History of Community Policing**

The koban system used in Japan since 1800s served as the inspiration for the community policing idea. To democratize policing, it was brought to the USA (Wang & Lumb, 2012).

Koban is a police station that has been constructed in strategic locations throughout the city, like in front of train terminals or in busy commercial areas. Given that there are always police present and they keep watch in shifts (referred to as "kotai" in Japanese), the word "Koban" literally means taking turns to keep watch (Leishman, 2007).

Community policing is viewed as a substantive approach to serious community problems and solutions, an approach that attempts to involve a comprehensive partnership of police, other public officials, and the public to improve community safety and quality of life (Thurman, Zhao, & Giacomazzi, 2001).

When police decided to become more involved in local communities in order to deter and reduce criminal activity, community policing was born (Skolnick & Bayley, 1988). Today's community policing became prominent in the 1960s when urban riots and gang activity were common. Police frequently used brute force to respond to these criminal acts, and the reputation of police suffered as a result. Many residents lacked faith in the police departments in their communities. As a result, some police departments realized that the community was where they needed to be to re-establish trust. Consequently, the police began to develop a stronger local community presence. This reinforces (Wang & Lumb, 2012) view of the Koban system as the foundation of mutual trust between the police and citizens.

In addition to law enforcement, the police function includes other duties that have a significant impact on the standard of living in a community (Goldstein, 1987). To this end, Community Policing advocates believe citizens should be involved in the policing process and that, solutions to problems require freeing both residents and police to be creative in solving problems (Duke & Kratcoski, 1995).

James Q. Wilson and George Kelling, both of Harvard, promoted the active involvement of police in quality-of-life issues in the community in 1982.

Braiden (1992) made reference to one of Sir Robert Peele's founding concepts stating that the police are members of the public and the members of the public are the police in order to link the resurgence of community policing to his policing philosophy.

According to Peele, a community must essentially police itself, with some members being paid to do so in uniform on a full-time basis while the others handle it on a part-time basis while going about their regular lives.

(Meese, 1993), asserted that community policing must be taken into account during the recruitment process and first training of new police. According to Meese, all police active in community policing must now possess the abilities associated with higher ranking officers, such as leadership, communication skills, and qualities of persuasiveness and drive. The curricula at police academies would need to be updated to include more than just routine police duties. Officers should be prepared by the instruction to comprehend their neighbourhoods.

In Ghana, Community Policing is a relatively new concept. According to the Ghana Police Service (GPS) Community Policing Unit (CPU) was established in June 2002 in an effort to improve cooperation and communication with regional communities.

The CPU acts as the central platform to develop ideas for the design and execution of community policing throughout Ghana. Community policing is the future of inclusive crime combat. Residents are given a sense of ownership, willingness, and personal responsibility for the safety and security of their local communities by including them in police. Through this reciprocal interaction, communities help the police in their efforts to reduce crime. The issue of whether police-community relations are actually stronger in neighbourhoods where community police are present as opposed to places where traditional policing is the norm is still up for debate (Weitzer, 2005).

Because they were perceived as obtrusive and undesirable or because officers lacked a genuine commitment to community participation, studies of various community policing initiatives have concluded that they did not appreciably enhance communities' relations with the police (Grinc, 1994).

However, some studies show that community meetings, foot or bike patrols, and other forms of community policing have beneficial consequences (Weitzer, 2005).

### **1.8.2. History of Policing in West Africa**

During the pre-colonial era, numerous nations and societies of Sub-Saharan Africa lacked professional full-time law enforcement agencies. It is scarcely a novel remark to say that in the majority of African nations, policing as we know it now did not exist prior to colonialism. In other instances, centralized monarchs maintained a small force of armed troops to uphold social norms and legal decrees. Elderly community councils were employed to enforce laws and regulations that were memorized and communicated verbally because there were no written laws.

Ancestral spirits and other divinities that were seen as exercising omniscient and omnipresent surveillance and rewarding conforming behaviour with health and prosperity while punishing deviant behaviour with a variety of penalties were at the centre of pre-colonial era. (Abotchie, 1997).

A distinctive aspect of this disciplinary system of thought was collective punishment. Deviance had adverse effects on the offender as well as their entire family, lineage, and possibly even the clan. Within such a punitive system, policing was a shared duty of all people, especially adults.

But the concept that the retribution of ancestral spirits and other supernatural deities were based on three factors—immediacy, escapelessness, and severity—may have been the most distinguishing feature of traditional pre-colonial punitive thinking. (Abotchie, 1997).

The concept of "immediacy" encapsulated the idea that traditional punishments were exempted from the delays and bureaucracy that modern legal systems are prone to. There were hardly any appeals provisions.

The idea of the ancestral spirits being "escapeless" implied that they were all-knowing and that neither an offender nor a social norm breach escaped their attention. The ancestors were not corruptible or prone to bribes either.

The ancestral spirits were then considered foundational pillars of the socio-moral order because of the severity of the punishments used to dissuade the rest of society. (Assimeng, 1986).

These distinct criminal philosophies in pre-colonial era highlighted the same issues that would later transform European penal philosophy.

According to (Tankebe, 2008) States that are highly developed and bureaucratized, like the Ashanti Empire, seem to be an exception, in that, they had specific units—however ad hoc—that could be sent on urgent security missions. Despite this arrangement, (Styles, 1987) argued that even centralized states did not have a specialized group of people specially vested with the responsibility of day-to-day maintenance of law and order.

Due to the absence of what we now call professional policing, (Roberts, 1979) argued that in most societies, the maintenance and enforcement of law and order were achieved, generally, through various kinds of mutual surveillance by members of the family, the lineage and the community at large.

Professional police forces were developed to enforce laws when European colonial powers conquered practically all of Africa in the late 19th century. According to (Stamplenton, 2015) early colonial police forces were primarily paramilitary occupying armies that violently imposed new duties like taxation and forced labour. Africans were being integrated into the emerging colonial capitalist economy.

(Stamplenton, 2015) argued that colonial police forces gradually shed some of their paramilitary ethos and transformed into professional law enforcement organizations as the colonial society and economy took shape in the 1920s and 1930s and the system of indirect rule placed the maintenance of daily law and order in the hands of supposedly traditional African rulers.

This change called for a more cooperative approach, more knowledgeable members, and a broader approach to crime prevention that took into account cutting-edge scientific techniques like fingerprinting and forensics.

However, (Kappeler & Gaines, 2005) averred that the existence of trained, civilian police is a relatively new invention. Haberfeld (2002) states that the police system as we know it today has its origin in early tribal history. Tribal chiefs would appoint certain persons to assist them in both intimate and administrative duties with which soldiers or other officials could not be trusted.

### **1.8.3 The Concept of Organized Crime**

The term organized crime first came into regular use among the members of the Chicago Crime Commission, a civic organization that was created in 1919 by businessmen, bankers and lawyers to promote changes in the criminal justice system in order to better cope with the crime problem.

The definition and intellectual development of organized crime as it exists now is heterogeneous, contradictory and shows a lack of coherence and consensus (UNODC, Transnational Organized Crime: Let's Put Them out of Business, 2022). However, (Klaus, 1999) argued that if we concentrate on the imagery that permeates the general perception of organized crime, we can detect a propensity to equate organized crime with ethnically homogeneous, formally structured, multi-functional, monopolistic criminal organizations that seek to undermine and subdue the legal institutions of society.

According to the (UNODC, Transnational Organized Crime: Let's Put Them out of Business, 2022) a perspective that focuses on activities would define organized crime as any illegal activity that is not impulsive or spontaneous and that all criminals who do not operate in complete social isolation would be viewed as being a part of organized crime. As a result, if another person actively participates in a single criminal's criminal activities, such as by giving him respect or offering important information, that could pass as organized crime.

Because of Africa's ineffective state power and governance, organized crime and criminal networks have grown, which makes it more difficult to establish successful states. It can be difficult to define "organized crime" in the African environment. According to (Shaw & Reitano, 2019) the concept of organized crime has just lately been used in talks about African policy; it is so broad that it encompasses a wide spectrum of activity.

Rent-seeking from local populations by networks of foreign and local criminal enterprises has been grafted onto the continental trend toward clientelist social and political governance, regardless of whether the trajectory of African governments has been predominantly democratic or autocratic (Bayart, Ellis, & Hibou, 1999).

Key characteristics of organized crime in Africa include senior members of African governments and the political elite strategically participating in and leading criminal networks.

Additionally, (Ellis & Shaw, 2015), argued that the same elite continuously directs and facilitates the use of instrumental violence in these networks, which is carried out by both state and non-state actors.

Smuggling, poaching, profiteering, racketeering, tax evasion, and illegal mineral mining have historically been the core components of organized crime (Opolot, 1981). Most often, dodgy business people and highly placed public officials who abuse their positions are involved in illegal activity and illegal organizations in Africa range from violent gangs with an American-

style presence in some places to adaptable networks with connections to the state and criminal enterprises.

Because there are so many fragile states that could serve as havens for such activities, organized crime poses a huge threat and challenge to Africa in general and West Africa in particular (Commission of the European Communities 2007).

Millions of people and numerous nations are affected by the global issue of human trafficking. One of the main problems is the domestic trafficking of minors in Ghana, West Africa. From their home communities, (Johansen, 2006) stated particularly that many Ghanaian youngsters are trafficked to work in the fishing sector.

According to a report by Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons at the US Department of State, there were 454 victims of labour trafficking and 45 victims of sex trafficking out of the total 499 victims, down from 508 victims of labour trafficking and 98 victims of sex trafficking in 2019. 417 child victims were found in 2020, compared to 200 in 2019, and the majority of those victims were Ghanaians, a change from the previous year (442 Ghanaian victims identified in 2020, compared with 276 Ghanaians in 2019). Nigerians made up the majority of the 57 casualties who were foreign nationals.

Organized criminal activity includes drug trafficking, advanced fee and Internet fraud, human trafficking, counterfeiting, cigarette smuggling, illegal firearm manufacturing, trafficking in firearms, armed robberies, and the theft and smuggling of oil, just like it does elsewhere in the world (Aning, 2008).

In Africa, illegal drug sales are a significant public health issue. (Patterson, 2014) argued particularly about their unregulated distribution that could result in a lack of quality assurance and increased health risks for users. The illegal trade raises significant questions about state control over drug use, distribution, and public health.

Despite the success of the revolution in the information and technology space, (Ennin & Mensah, 2019) contend that a sophisticated crime wave known as cybercrime is currently sweeping society. It has impacted every area of the economy on a large scale, costing organizations that used ICT in some capacity for daily operations money and harming their reputation. Cybercrime has become more prevalent in Ghana as a result of rising internet usage, and those in positions of trust have expressed concern over whether our current legal framework is strong enough to combat the threat.

#### **1.8.4. Transnational Security Threats**

Transnational security threats, such as organized crime, have become an increasingly pressing issue in recent years. Organized crime poses a significant threat to international security, stability, and development, with transnational criminal networks engaging in activities such as drug trafficking, migrant smuggling, human trafficking, proliferation of small arms and light weapons, and cybercrime, (UNODC, West Africa: Organized crime and illicit markets, 2018). These criminal networks often operate across borders, making it difficult for traditional law enforcement approaches to effectively address the problem.

The international community has attempted to address transnational security threats through a variety of mechanisms, such as the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC) and the United Nations Global Plan of Action to Combat Trafficking in Persons (UN-GPA), (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2020). However, these efforts have been met with mixed success, highlighting the need for new and innovative approaches.

One such approach that has gained attention in recent years is the use of community policing as a tool to combat transnational security threats. Community policing, which involves the police working in collaboration with community members, has been proposed as a way to

address the root causes of crime and to build trust and cooperation between law enforcement and the community, (Community Policing Consortium, n.d.).

Research has shown that community policing can be effective in reducing crime and improving community relations ( (Skogan, 2006); (Weisburd, 2017)). However, the application of community policing in the context of transnational security threats is still an under-researched area (Thakur, 2014). This literature review aims to explore the potential of community policing as a tool to address transnational security threats, with a focus on the challenges and opportunities presented by this approach.

## 1.9. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The methodological approach of this study attempts to explore the logic and challenges facing community policing in the study area(s). In effect, it attempts to answer the research objectives and add to existing literature on organised crime in Ghana in particular and West Africa in general. As such, the study explores a mixed descriptive design approach due to the epistemological nature of the study. As such the sequential transformative approach and concurrent transformative approach are used, (CRESWELL, 2009). According to (Ngulube & Romm, 2015) methodology integration in a study increases the validity and reliability in terms of maximising the knowledge yield of the study and defining the required principles in a methodological triangulation. The primary goal therefore of the qualitative descriptive approach is to address the comprehensive nature of descriptive variables in a study, (Lambert & Lamber, 2012).

In addition, the study reviewed transnational organised criminal investigation and crime records from the divisional Statistics and Information Technology Unit (SITU) for the study, with which the findings are presented in the next chapter.

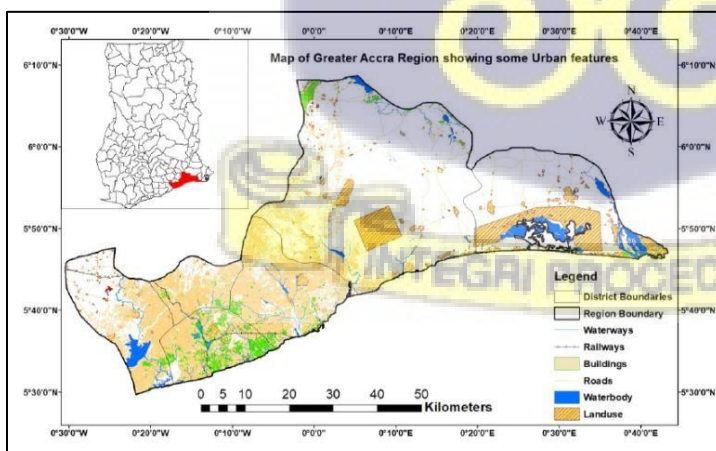
### 1.10. STUDY POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The study population focused on communities in the Upper East, Western, Eastern, Volta, Ashanti and Greater Accra Regions which adequately represents the demographic categories based on the study characteristics. The sampling frame therefore was a list of communities in the identified regions which have community policing initiatives.

### 1.11. COMMUNITY POLICING IN THE TARGET STUDY AREA

#### 1.11.1. Greater Accra Region

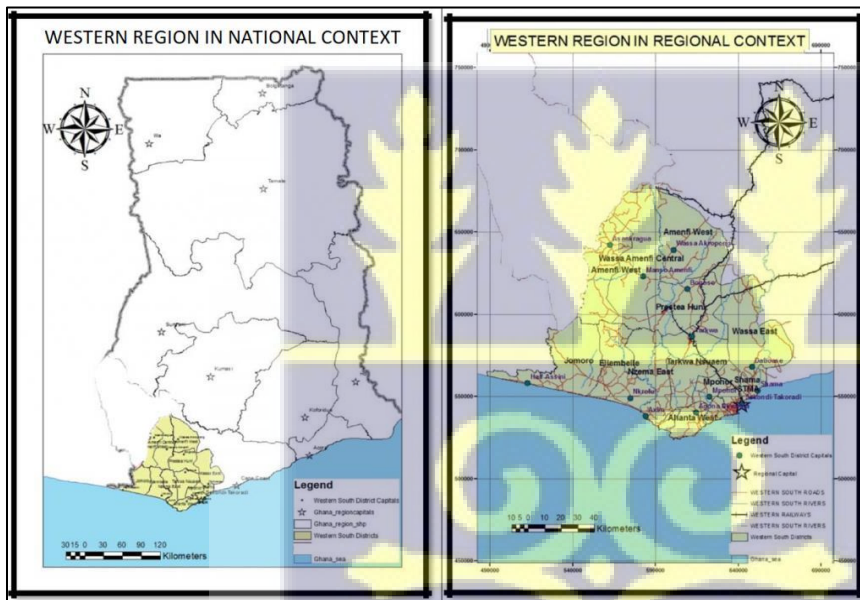
The Greater Accra Region has seven administrative areas covering five districts within an area size of 2,245 square kilometres, with a current population size of 5, 455, 692 according to the Ghana Statistical Service, (statsghana, 2022). The crime level index rose from 45.07 in 2016 to 47.18 in 2021 according to the Ghana Police Service Annual Report and Statista (GhanaPoliceService, ANNUAL CRIME STATISTICS, 2016) and (Sasu, 2022) . The Region was selected because Community Policing when introduced in Ghana in 2002 was piloted in Greater Accra. Again, as the capital town of the country, almost all the organised crime are prevalent in the Region.



*Figure 3. 1.1. Map of Greater Accra. Source: (Altan, Twumasi, & Shao, 2020)*

### 1.11.2. Western Region

The Western Region of Ghana achieved a crime rate index of 48.52 as at the end of 2021, (Sasu, 2022). Regional data suggest that the region spawns a land size of 14,625.2 square kilometres, (WRCC, 2019), with a population size of 2,060,585 as at 2021, (statsghana, 2022) , which presents the same issues of effective policing in its districts and communities. The Region was selected because of fear of cross-border terrorism and the region shares border with Ivory Coast. Since is it a border region, it is believed that most of the organised crimes would be prevalent in the area.

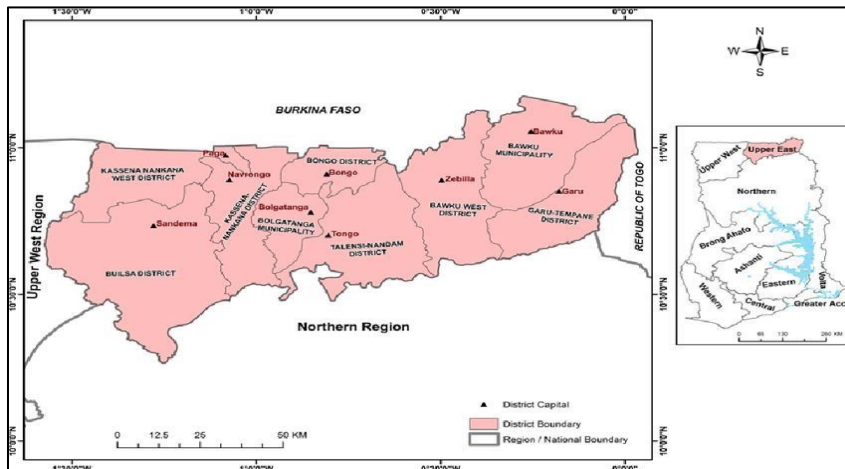


*Figure 3. 2. Map of the western region of Ghana. Source: (WRCC, 2019)*

### 1.11.3. Eastern Region

The Eastern Region on the other hand has a total population of 2,925,653 as at the end of 2021, (statsghana, 2022), on a land size of 19,320 sq. km according to the (MOFA, Eastern Region(ER), n.d.). The region was selected because there are vital installations such as Akosombo Dam, Akuse Dam, Adomi Bridge and Kpong water treatment plant which may be

a target for terrorist. There is also the Volta Lake in the region which is used for fishing activities and these activities may attract organized crime such as child trafficking.



**Figure 3. 3. Map of the Eastern Region with its districts. Source: (Alhassan & Hadwen, 2017)**

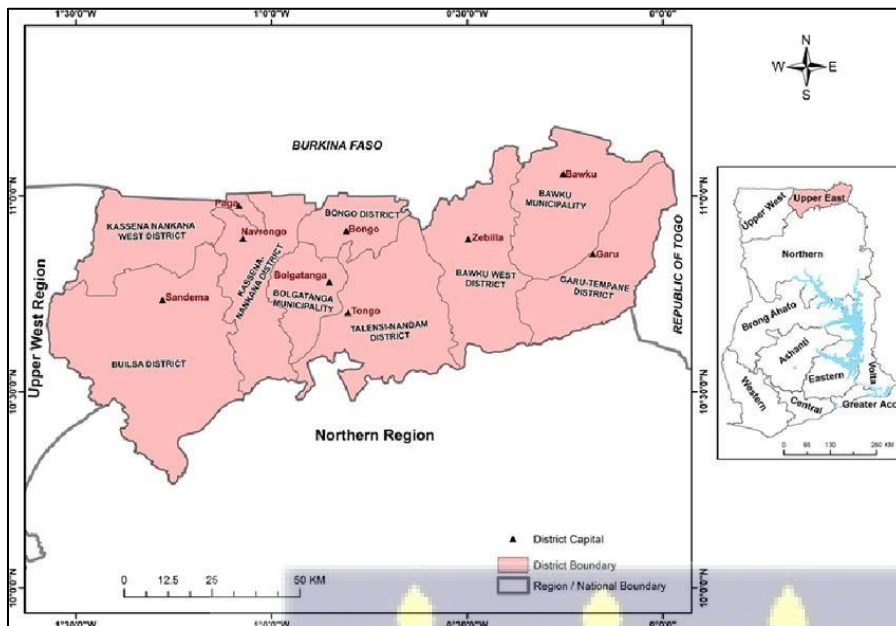
#### 1.11.4. Upper East Region

The Upper East Region which forms the fourth study area of the research has policing outreach made up of two (2) divisions, ten (10) districts and twenty (20) Police Stations, (GhanaPoliceService, UPPER EAST, 2022).

The region covers a land area of 8,842 square kilometres with a population density of about 103 persons per each square kilometre, (MOFA, Upper East Region) Substantially, the Upper East recorded lower crimes as at 2021 amongst all the regions in Ghana according to studies on crime rate in Ghana, (Dziwornu, 2021).

The predominantly rural region has a sizable population of about 1,301,221 million, ( (G. Domfe & Oduro, 2018) & (GSS, 2022). Studies suggest that crime has adverse impact on the community which ultimately impacts the quality of life. Theft dominated the region prior to the introduction of community policing in 2007. The region was selected because of the political instability and activities of terrorism in the Sahelian countries which put Ghana at risk.

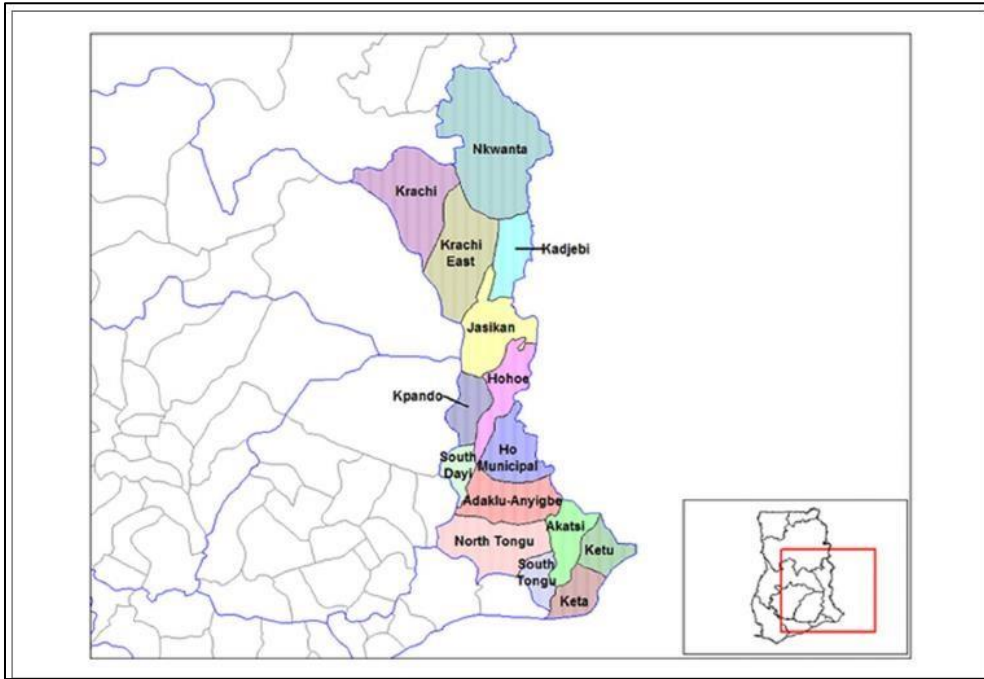
Since is it a border region, it is believed that most of the organised crimes would be prevalent in the area.



**Figure 3. 4. Map of the Upper East Region** (Alhassan & Hadwen, 2017)

### 1.11.5. Volta Region

The Volta region of Ghana has recorded one of the rapidly declining crime rates in the country according to the Ghana Police statistics, with a record decline of 31.3% in general, (Yakubu, 2019). The region has an area of a total land area of 20572-kilometre square, stretching from the coast of Gulf of Guinea and running through all the vegetational zones along Ghana, (MOFA, Volta Region, 2021). With a population size 1,659,040 as at 2021, effecting policing consist of six (6) Police Divisions, twenty-nine (22) Police Districts and fifty-six (56) Police Stations, (Statista, 2021), (GPS, 2022). The Region was chosen because of the recent recession attempt by the Trans Togoland people in Volta Region. Since is it a border region, it is believed that most of the organised crimes would be prevalent in the area.



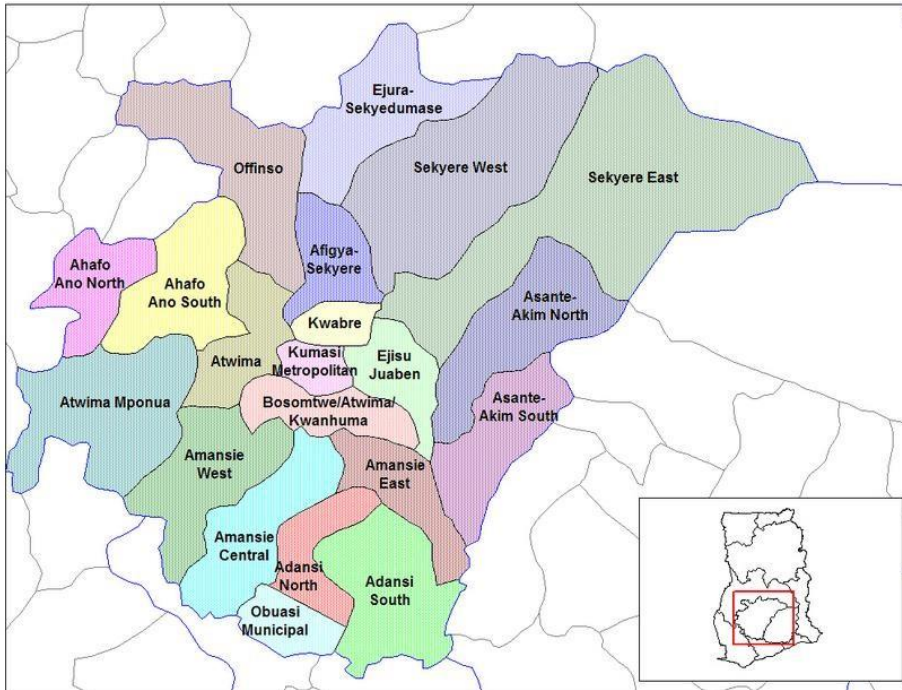
**Figure 3. 5. Map of the Volta Region.** Source: (Adadey, Ayee, Languon, Quansah, & Quaye, 2019)

### 1.11.6. Ashanti Region

The Ashanti Region was chosen due to its present data on crime rate with a crime increase of 40.8% according to the public safety and crime report, (Ghartey, 2022).

The region covers an approximate area of 24,390 sq.km which represents about 10.2% of the total land area of 276,000 sq.km of Ghana, (Owusu, Seth, Tagbor, & OFOSU, 2013), with a current population of 5,440,463 as at 2021 across the region according to the Ghana Statistical Service, (StatsGhana, 2021).





**Figure 3. 6. Map of the Ashanti Region. Source: (Mumuni, Yaa, & Oladele, 2013)**

### **Community Policing in the target areas**

Community security and safety have been at the pinnacle of safety needs of Community Neighbourhood Committee especially in low-income communities in Ghana. According to Atuguba and Addo, such low-income neighbourhoods solicit for security and more public police visibility, (Sowatey & Atuguba, 2020). The inability of effective use of policing in these communities causes a void. Atuguba and Addo again denoted that the inadequacy of policing which never fully displaced other forms of indigenous policing systems experienced in the post-colonial era and a general lack of backing from state structural adjustment programs unpin the reality of such void. This puts community policing initiatives on the edge as the bridge to cover the void discussed and whether or not the penetration strategies and the implementation of the community policing for security and crime prevention in the Greater Accra, Eastern, Volta, Western, Ashanti and Upper East Regions are confidently effective.

### **1.12. Selection and Delineation of the Study Area(s)**

The study areas were selected based on the researcher's objective analysis of legitimate areas concerned with organized crime. The study however did not consider computational analysis in selecting the study areas.

### **1.13. Nature of organized crime in the study areas**

Recent studies have shown that organized crime in the border areas of Ghana has prompted swift focus on policing efforts. Ishmael (2018) and Addo (2006) outlined goods smuggling, human trafficking, illegal arms trade, armed conflict, armed robbery and other illegal activities as the most prevalent forms of security threat along the borders of Ghana. The primary challenge outlined by Addo suggests that less policing effort along the borders creates porous pockets for perpetrators to infiltrate. Cross-border security threats prevalent along the Cote d'Ivoire-Ghana-Togo-Benin-Nigeria and Burkina Faso borders often experience criminal activities due to many factors including gangs involved in civil war, vehicle snatching and smuggling activities and other illicit activities, (Addo, 2006).

According to Addo, the nature of crimes along border routes in Ghana, particularly along the border town of Aflao can be attributed to low standards of living, unemployment and related challenges. These factors, according to Addo, are the main metrics leading to organised crime. Prevalent among them is human trafficking, drug trafficking, smuggling, armed robbery, arms dealing and other related criminal activities, (Ishmael, 2016).

### **1.14. Sampling Frame**

The researcher selected the Ghana Police Service Regional/Divisional areas due to the occurrence of community policing initiative, the frequency rate of crime and its general population size. However, the population size of all the six regions makes it impossible to work with, as such, the selected sample served as a representation of the population. The researcher considered the following as the unit analysis focus which include the crime departments of each

regional/divisional command; community police assistants within each of the six regions under consideration; and other district stakeholders.

### **1.15. Sample Size of the Study**

A non-probability sampling method was adopted for this study due to the exploratory nature of the study and the undermined size of the study population. More precisely the researcher focused on purposive sampling and quota sampling. Non-probability sampling are nonrandomized techniques used in sampling. The researcher leverages on judgement based on ease of accessibility and characteristics of the respondents that does not extend beyond those characteristics, (Showkat & Parveen, 2017).

### **1.16. Data Collection**

The study data required for computing the analysis were collected from both primary and secondary sources from the target population. The primary data involved annual reports from the Ghana Police Service, documents and publications by the crime units of the Regional Commands and the Divisional Statistics and Information Technology Unit (SITU) of each Region. Secondary instruments of data collection for the study would be a mixed method of semi-structured questionnaires. The questionnaire consists of a succession of questions and necessary prompts required to gather information from the target population, (Abawi, 2017). The study also employed interviews consisting of personal contact that are administered by the researcher and digital correspondence-based questionnaires that are self-administered. According to (Creswell, 2011) interviews form the required medium for recording qualitative research data with one or more respondents.

### **1.17. Data Analyses**

Data collected by the researcher were analysed with the IBM SPSS Statistics V16.0.

Descriptive Statistics. Demographic characteristics and frequency were analysed using principal component analysis and exploratory factor analysis to determine the causal factors of the population.

### 1.8. Limitations of the study

One limitation of this study was the issue of invalid questionnaires. Out of the 1200 questionnaires distributed, only 712 were returned, and of these, 382 were considered valid for analysis. This represents a response rate of approximately 32%. It is possible that the low response rate may have introduced bias into the study, as those who chose not to participate may have had different views or experiences than those who did. To mitigate the potential impact of invalid questionnaires on the study results, the study employed several quality control measures. The study conducted follow-up interviews with a sample of non-respondents to verify their views and experiences, and the researcher also adjusted sample size and analysis techniques to account for any potential bias introduced by invalid questionnaires. Despite these efforts, it is important to acknowledge that the low response rate and the issue of invalid questionnaires may have influenced the results of the study.

Another limitation of the study was the reliance on self-report survey data, which may be subject to social desirability bias. This means that respondents may be more likely to report perceptions or behaviours that align with societal expectations or norms, rather than their true beliefs or actions (Smith, 2017). To mitigate this, efforts were made to ensure that the survey was conducted in a confidential and anonymous manner.

The third limitation was the potential for sampling bias, as the study only surveyed individuals who reside in communities with community policing initiatives. This means that the findings may not be generalizable to communities without such initiatives. Additionally, the use of a convenience sample may also introduce bias, as the respondents were not randomly selected from the population. However, the use of purposive sampling and quota sampling approach were used to help mitigate some of these concerns.

Finally, the fourth limitation was the potential for measurement error, as the survey relied on subjective perceptions and recollections of the respondents. This may be influenced by

individual experiences and biases, which could affect the accuracy of the results. To address this, the survey questions were carefully crafted to minimize ambiguity and maximize clarity.

Overall, these limitations were taken into consideration when interpreting the findings of the study. Despite these limitations, the results of the study provide valuable insights into the perceptions and experiences of community policing initiatives in the target regions of Ghana and can inform future research and policy efforts in this area.

### **1.19. Arrangements of Chapters**

The study will be organized into four chapters. Chapter 1 provides an overview of the research topic and it includes a literature review and methodology. Chapter 2 examines the transnational security threats and their prevalence in West Africa and Ghana. Chapter 3 examines the logic and objectives of using community policing to fight organized crime in West Africa and Ghana and evaluates the successes and challenges of community policing in Ghana. Finally, chapter 4 provides summary of the findings of the study, conclusion and recommendations for future research.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **OVERVIEW OF ORGANISED CRIME IN WEST AFRICA**

#### **2.1. Overview of organized crime in West Africa**

Organized crime is a complex and challenging phenomenon that poses a significant threat to the security, stability, and development of West Africa. It is defined as illegal activities that are planned and executed by a group or network of individuals who are motivated by financial gain or power. Organized crime encompasses a wide range of activities, including drug trafficking, human trafficking, money laundering, illegal arms trade, extortion, and corruption (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime [UNODC], (UNODC U. N., 2019).

In West Africa, organized crime is closely linked to the region's political, economic, and social challenges. The region's porous borders, weak governance, and high levels of poverty and unemployment provide fertile ground for criminal networks to thrive, (UNDP, 2016). Furthermore, the region's strategic location at the crossroads of Africa, Europe, and America makes it an attractive transit point for illicit goods and people, (UNODC U. N., 2019).

Drug trafficking, human trafficking, illegal arms trade, extortion and corruption are prevalent forms of organized crime in West Africa. The region serves as a major transit point for drugs bound for Europe and North America, making it vulnerable to money laundering and corruption. Additionally, West Africa serves as a source, transit, and destination point for people trafficked for forced labour and sexual exploitation. The proliferation of small arms and light weapons also fuels conflicts and violence in the region. Criminal groups use threats and intimidation to extort money and other assets from businesses and individuals and use illicit proceeds to bribe officials and infiltrate institutions, undermining the rule of law and good governance, (UNODC U. N., 2019).

The scale and scope of organized crime in West Africa is alarming and requires an integrated, multi-disciplinary response. The international community, regional organizations, and national governments must work together to address the root causes of organized crime and strengthen the capacities of law enforcement and judicial institutions to effectively combat it, (UNODC U. N., 2019).

### **2.1.1. The main forms and types of organized crime in West Africa**

Drug trafficking is one of the most significant forms of organized crime in West Africa. The region is both a transit point and a destination for illegal drugs, including cocaine, heroin, and cannabis, (UNODC U. N., 2019). Criminal networks take advantage of the region's weak border controls and corrupt officials to smuggle drugs into and through the region, (ICG, West Africa's security challenges, 2014). The proceeds from drug trafficking are then laundered

through the formal and informal financial sector, further fuelling corruption and undermining economic development, (UNDP, 2016).

Human trafficking is another major form of organized crime in West Africa. The region is a source, transit, and destination for men, women, and children who are trafficked for forced labour and sexual exploitation, (UNODC U. N., 2019). Criminal networks often prey on vulnerable individuals, such as migrants and refugees, who are promised jobs or a better life but are then subjected to exploitation and abuse, (ICG, West Africa's security challenges, 2014).

Illegal arms trafficking is also a major problem in West Africa. The region has a long history of armed conflict, which has led to the proliferation of small arms and light weapons (SALW) (UNDP, 2016). Criminal networks take advantage of the region's weak border controls and corrupt officials to smuggle weapons into the region (ICG, 2014). The availability of these weapons fuels conflict and crime, undermining stability and security (UNDP, 2016).

### **2.1.2. Scope and magnitude of organised crime in West Africa**

The scope and magnitude of organized crime in West Africa are difficult to quantify. However, it is clear that the problem is significant and has a detrimental impact on the security, stability, and development of the region (UNODC, 2019; UNDP, 2016; ICG, 2014). The illicit drug trade alone is estimated to generate billions of dollars in annual profits for criminal networks in the region (UNODC, 2019). Furthermore, the human cost of organized crime is staggering, as victims of human trafficking and drug abuse suffer unimaginable hardship and abuse (ICG, 2014).

The problem of organized crime in West Africa is further compounded by the fact that criminal networks often have connections to political and economic elites, making it difficult to combat the problem through traditional law enforcement methods (UNDP, 2016). Furthermore, the lack

of capacity and resources of law enforcement agencies in the region makes it challenging to effectively combat organized crime (ICG, 2014).

In order to effectively combat organized crime in West Africa, a comprehensive approach is needed that addresses the underlying political, economic, and social factors that fuel the problem (UNDP, 2016). This approach should include measures to strengthen governance and the rule of law, as well as efforts to improve economic and social conditions in the region.

One key component of this approach is strengthening the capacity and resources of law enforcement agencies to effectively investigate and prosecute organized crime. This may include providing training and equipment, as well as increasing cross-border cooperation and information sharing among law enforcement agencies in the region (UNODC, 2019).

Additionally, measures to combat corruption and improve transparency and accountability in the public sector are essential in undermining the ability of criminal networks to operate with impunity (UNDP, 2016). This may include implementing anti-corruption legislation and improving oversight mechanisms to ensure that public officials are held accountable for their actions.

Another key component of this approach is addressing the underlying economic and social factors that fuel organized crime. This may include increasing access to education and employment opportunities, as well as providing support for vulnerable populations, such as refugees and migrants, who are at risk of being exploited by criminal networks (UNDP, 2016).

Arguably it can be ascertained that the problem of organized crime in West Africa is not solely a domestic issue and requires international cooperation and support. This may include providing assistance to law enforcement agencies in the region, as well as addressing the demand for illicit goods and services in developed countries (UNODC, 2019).

## **2.2 Factors contributing to organized crime in West Africa**

### **2.2.1. The main factors that contribute to the growth and spread of organized crime in the region**

Literature underpins that organized crime in West Africa is often complex and a constant problem driven by a variety of factors. One of the main drivers of organized crime in the region is poverty and economic inequality. According to a study by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), poverty and unemployment are key drivers of organized crime in West Africa, as they provide a ready pool of vulnerable individuals who are willing to engage in criminal activities in order to make a living, (UNODC, West Africa: Organized crime and illicit markets, 2018). Additionally, the lack of economic opportunities and weak governance in many West African countries also contribute to the growth of organized crime.

Another key factor that contributes to the growth of organized crime in West Africa is the presence of organized criminal networks. These networks often have deep roots in the region and are able to take advantage of weak governance and the lack of economic opportunities to establish themselves and engage in criminal activities, (Oluwole, 2022). They also often have links to transnational criminal organizations, which provide them with access to resources and expertise that they would not otherwise have.

### **2.2.2. How the factors interact and reinforce each other**

The factors contributing to the growth of organized crime in West Africa often interact and reinforce each other in complex and dynamic ways. For example, poverty and economic inequality often lead to the development of organized criminal networks, which in turn are able to take advantage of weak governance and the lack of economic opportunities to establish themselves and engage in criminal activities. These criminal networks also often have links to transnational criminal organizations, which provide them with access to resources and expertise

that they would not otherwise have. This, in turn, helps to reinforce the growth of organized crime in the region, (Charbonneau, 2020).

Additionally, the presence of organized criminal networks often creates a sense of insecurity and fear among the population, which can further reinforce poverty and economic inequality, as individuals and businesses are less likely to invest and engage in economic activities if they feel unsafe. This creates a cycle of poverty, inequality, and organized crime that is difficult to break, (Adebayo, 2019).

### **2.3 The impact of organized crime on West Africa 2.3.1. The impact of organized crime on the security, economic, political, and social**

#### **development of West Africa**

Organized crime in West Africa poses a significant threat to the security and stability of the region. The illegal activities of criminal networks, such as drug trafficking, human trafficking, and arms trafficking, undermine the rule of law and threaten the safety and security of citizens. Additionally, organized crime can have a detrimental impact on economic development by distorting markets, hindering investment and trade, and diverting resources away from legitimate economic activities, ( (Onwudiwe, 2018); (Obokata, 2017)). The political impact of organized crime in West Africa is also significant, as criminal networks can corrupt government officials and undermine the legitimacy of state institutions ( (Onwudiwe, 2018); (Obokata, 2017)). Furthermore, the social impact of organized crime is also significant, as criminal activities can harm communities and individuals, and contribute to the erosion of social trust and cohesion.

#### **2.3.1. Long-term consequences of organized crime for the region**

The long-term consequences of organized crime for West Africa are significant and farreaching. Prolonged exposure to criminal activities can lead to the erosion of state authority and the weakening of governance structures, which can in turn contribute to the emergence of fragile

and failed states, ( (Onwudiwe, 2018); (Obokata, 2017)). This can have a negative impact on economic development and poverty reduction, as well as on the ability of governments to provide basic services to their citizens. Additionally, organized crime can also contribute to the displacement of communities and the forced migration of individuals, which can lead to social disruption and human suffering.

## **2.4 Current responses to organized crime in West Africa**

### **2.4.1. Current approaches and strategies used to combat organized crime in the region**

In recent years, the main approach used to combat organized crime in West Africa has been through law enforcement and criminal justice measures. This includes the use of police and military forces to disrupt criminal networks and arrest and prosecute suspects. This strategy focuses on dismantling criminal organizations and disrupting their activities through targeted arrests and seizures of assets.

In addition to traditional law enforcement, many countries in the region have also implemented anti-money laundering and asset forfeiture laws to target the financial aspect of organized crime. These laws aim to disrupt the flow of illicit funds and to seize the proceeds of criminal activities. This strategy is intended to disrupt the financial infrastructure of criminal organizations and to deprive them of the resources needed to operate.

Another approach used to combat organized crime in West Africa is through regional and international cooperation. Many countries in the region have signed agreements and established taskforces to share information, intelligence and to coordinate law enforcement efforts. Regional organizations such as the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and the West African Economic and Monetary Union (UEMOA) also play a role in promoting cooperation and coordination among member states.

In addition to these traditional approaches, there have been some efforts to address the root causes of organized crime in West Africa through social and economic development programs. These programs aim to address the poverty, lack of education and employment opportunities that can make people vulnerable to recruitment by criminal organizations. However, these efforts are still limited and more needs to be done to address the underlying conditions that fuel organized crime in the region. Overall, the current approaches to combat organized crime in West Africa are primarily focused on law enforcement and criminal justice measures, regional and international cooperation, and limited social and economic development programs, (Sztompka, 2017).

#### **2.4.2. Effectiveness and limitations to the current approaches**

The current approaches used to combat organized crime in West Africa, while they have had some successes, they have also been met with significant limitations. One of the major limitations is the lack of capacity and resources within law enforcement and criminal justice systems in the region. Many countries in the region have underfunded and understaffed police and judicial systems, which makes it difficult for them to effectively target and disrupt criminal networks. This can lead to a lack of investigations and arrests, and a lack of resources to prosecute and sentence those who are arrested, (Muggah & Akouete, 2019).

Another limitation is the lack of cooperation and coordination between countries in the region. Organized crime groups often operate across borders, making it difficult for individual countries to effectively target them. This lack of cooperation and coordination can lead to an inability to share information and resources and can make it easier for criminal groups to evade law enforcement. In addition, corruption and a lack of political will also pose major challenges to the effectiveness of current responses. Corruption in the form of bribes and the infiltration of criminal networks into government institutions can undermine the rule of law and good

governance, while a lack of political will can lead to a lack of resources and attention being devoted to organized crime, (Coulibaly, 2020).

Another limitation to the current approaches to combat organized crime in West Africa is the lack of comprehensive and holistic strategies. Many countries in the region tend to focus on law enforcement and criminal justice measures as the primary means of combating organized crime, without taking into account other factors such as poverty, unemployment, and lack of education and opportunities. This narrow focus on law enforcement alone does not address the underlying socio-economic conditions that can fuel organized crime and may lead to a reduction in crime in the short-term but not a sustainable solution in the long-term, (Muggah & Akouete, 2019).

Tentatively, current responses to organized crime in West Africa are limited by a number of structural, institutional and political challenges. While traditional law enforcement and criminal justice measures are important, there is a need for a more comprehensive and integrated approach that addresses the underlying social and economic drivers of organized crime.

## **2.5 Conclusion**

In summary, chapter 2 of this study focuses on the issue of organized crime in West Africa, providing an overview of the problem, examining the factors that contribute to its growth and spread, and assessing the impact it has on the security, economic, political, and social development of the region. The chapter also reviews the current approaches and strategies used to combat organized crime in West Africa, evaluating their effectiveness and limitations.

The next chapter will delve deeper into the case of community policing in Ghana as a potential solution to fighting organized crime in West Africa. It will examine the history and implementation of community policing in Ghana, as well as its effectiveness in addressing

organized crime in the country. The chapter will also explore the potential for adapting and implementing community policing in other West African countries as a means of combating organized crime in the region.

## CHAPTER THREE

### COMMUNITY POLICING AND ORGANISED CRIME IN GHANA

#### 3.1. Community Policing in Ghana

Community policing is a policing strategy that emphasizes the participation of community members in the identification and resolution of community problems, including crime and disorder. In Ghana, community policing has been implemented as a means of addressing organized crime and improving community-police relations. This approach shifts the traditional role of the police from being solely responsible for crime control to one that includes working in partnership with the community to identify and solve problems, (Nyawo, 2018).

In 2007, the GPS officially adopted community policing as its official policing strategy and established the Community Policing Unit (CPU) to coordinate and oversee the implementation of community policing programs, (Owusu-Ansah & Osafo, 2016). The CPU works closely with local communities, community-based organizations, and other stakeholders to identify and address community problems, including organized crime, (Yeboah & Agyemang, 2020).

Empirical studies have shown that community policing in Ghana has been effective in reducing crime and improving community-police relations. A study by (Boateng, 2015)) found that the

implementation of community policing in the Ashanti Region of Ghana led to a significant reduction in the rate of crime, Similarly, (Mensah, 2018), supported that community policing in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana improved trust and cooperation between the police and the community.

However, it is important to note that while community policing has been effective in Ghana, it is not without its limitations. In a study by (Adu-Boahen, 2019)), found that community policing in Ghana is often hampered by a lack of resources and limited capacity of the CPU to effectively coordinate and implement community policing programs. Moreover, cultural and linguistic differences among ethnic groups in West Africa can also present challenges to effective community policing.

### **3.2. History and Implementation of Community Policing in Ghana**

Community policing is a policing strategy that emphasizes the participation of community members in the identification and resolution of community problems, including crime and disorder. In Ghana, community policing has been implemented as a means of addressing organized crime and improving community-police relations. This approach shifts the traditional role of the police from being solely responsible for crime control to one that includes working in partnership with the community to identify and solve problems.

The history of community policing in Ghana can be traced back to the late 1990s when the Ghana Police Service (GPS) began implementing community policing initiatives as part of a broader reform process ( (Adu-Gyamfi, 2018); (Agyeman-Duah & Adu-Gyamfi, 2020)). These initiatives were aimed at improving the effectiveness and efficiency of the police service and fostering better relationships between the police and the community.

In 2007, the GPS officially adopted community policing as its official policing strategy and established the Community Policing Unit (CPU) to coordinate and oversee the implementation

of community policing programs ( (Adu-Gyamfi, 2018); (Agyeman-Duah & Adu-Gyamfi, 2020)The CPU works closely with local communities, community-based organizations, and other stakeholders to identify and address community problems, including organized crime.

### **3.3. Effectiveness of Community Policing in Combating Organized Crime in Ghana**

Community policing has been implemented in various countries around the world as a way to combat organized crime, including in Ghana. There are several arguments that suggest that community policing is effective in combating organized crime in Ghana.

First, community policing emphasizes the importance of community engagement and partnerships between law enforcement and community members. This approach allows for the sharing of information and intelligence between the police and community members, which can help to identify and disrupt criminal networks operating in the area. This is particularly important in Ghana, where organized crime groups often operate in specific communities and rely on the support and protection of community members.

Second, community policing also focuses on preventative measures, such as community education and awareness campaigns, that can help to reduce the vulnerability of communities to organized crime. By educating community members about the dangers of organized crime and how to identify and report suspicious activity, community policing can help to reduce the demand for illegal goods and services and make it more difficult for criminal groups to operate in the area.

Third, community policing also places an emphasis on community-based problem-solving and addressing the root causes of crime. This approach can help to address the underlying social and economic conditions that make communities vulnerable to organized crime, such as poverty, unemployment, and a lack of education. This can help to create sustainable solutions

that address the root causes of crime, rather than just addressing its symptoms, (Sztompka, 2017).

Finally, community policing can also help to improve the relationship between law enforcement and the community, which can improve community trust and cooperation with the police. This is essential for effective law enforcement, as community members are more likely to report crimes and provide information to the police if they have a positive relationship with them. Additionally, by building trust with the community, community policing can help to reduce the likelihood of community members becoming involved in or supporting criminal activities.

### **3.4. Potential for Adapting and Implementing Community Policing in Other West African Countries**

The success of community policing in Ghana has led to increased interest in the potential for adapting and implementing similar strategies in other West African countries. The principles of community policing, such as promoting community participation and problem-solving, are seen as relevant and applicable to addressing organized crime in other West African countries.

The adaptability of community policing to different contexts has been demonstrated in countries such as Nigeria and Senegal, where community policing initiatives have been implemented with positive results. In Nigeria, the Nigeria Police Force introduced community policing in 2000 as part of a broader reform process. The initiative has been credited with improving community-police relations and reducing crime in participating communities, (Adeniji, 2016). Similarly, in Senegal, the introduction of community policing in 2011 has been associated with reduced crime and improved community-police relations, (Ndiaye, 2017).

However, the adaptability of community policing in other West African countries is not guaranteed and would depend on a number of factors, including the political and institutional

context, the level of community participation, and the availability of resources. For instance, in countries with weak governance and rule of law, the implementation of community policing may be hindered by corruption and a lack of political will, (Adepoju, 2014). Furthermore, the level of community participation and trust in the police is crucial for the success of community policing initiatives. In countries where there is a lack of trust in the police, it may be difficult to engage community members in partnerships with the police.

### **3.5. Challenges and Limitations of Community Policing in Ghana**

Community policing has been implemented in Ghana since 2002 as a means of addressing the threat of organized crime. However, the implementation of community policing in Ghana has not been without its challenges and limitations. This section will examine some of the main challenges and limitations faced by community policing in Ghana.

One of the main challenges faced by community policing in Ghana is a lack of resources. Community policing relies on the participation and cooperation of community members, but many communities in Ghana lack the resources necessary to effectively participate in community policing initiatives. For example, many communities lack the financial resources to establish and maintain community policing structures such as neighbourhood watch groups, (Adeniji, 2016). Furthermore, many communities lack access to basic infrastructure and services, such as electricity and transportation, which makes it difficult for community members to participate in community policing activities, (Adu-Ampong, 2012).

Another challenge faced by community policing in Ghana is a lack of trust between community members and the police. The Ghanaian police force has a history of corruption and abuse of power, which has led to a lack of trust between the police and community members (. This lack of trust makes it difficult for community policing initiatives to succeed, as community members may be unwilling to participate or cooperate with the police, (Amoateng, 2011).

A third challenge faced by community policing in Ghana is a lack of training and capacity building for community policing. Many police officers in Ghana lack the training and skills necessary to effectively implement community policing initiatives. Furthermore, many community members lack the knowledge and skills necessary to effectively participate in community policing initiatives (Adu-Ampong, 2012).

Despite these challenges, there have been some efforts to address these limitations. For example, the Ghana Police Service has established a community policing unit to provide training and capacity building for community policing, (Ghana Police Service, 2017). Furthermore, some NGOs and civil society organizations have been working to build the capacity of community members and police officers to effectively participate in community policing initiatives, (Adu-Ampong, 2012).

Despite these efforts, there is still a need for further research on the challenges and limitations of community policing in Ghana. More research is needed to understand the specific challenges and limitations faced by community policing in different regions of Ghana and to develop effective strategies for addressing these challenges.

### **3.6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

This subtopic presents an in-depth analysis and discussion of the findings, which are organized into two main sections: data analysis and discussion of the findings.

### **3.7. Data Analysis and Presentation**

The purpose of this section is to analyse both qualitative and quantitative data to address what are the forms of organized crime that are prevalent in Ghana and how they threaten the country's communities, what is the rationale for using community policing as a strategy for combating

organized crime in Ghana and what are the successes and challenges of community policing in the fight against organized crime in Ghana.

### **3.8. Description of the study sample**

In this study, the researcher focused on the characteristics of the survey respondents. The study did not consider the characteristics of the qualitative participants in this section because many of them preferred anonymity and therefore their biodata were not included. One important demographic characteristic considered was gender, as gender issues are often a key focus in development studies and interventions. In the context of this research, the study recognize that crime and community policing can affect individuals of all genders, ages, regions, occupations, and educational backgrounds.

### **3.9. Response Rate**

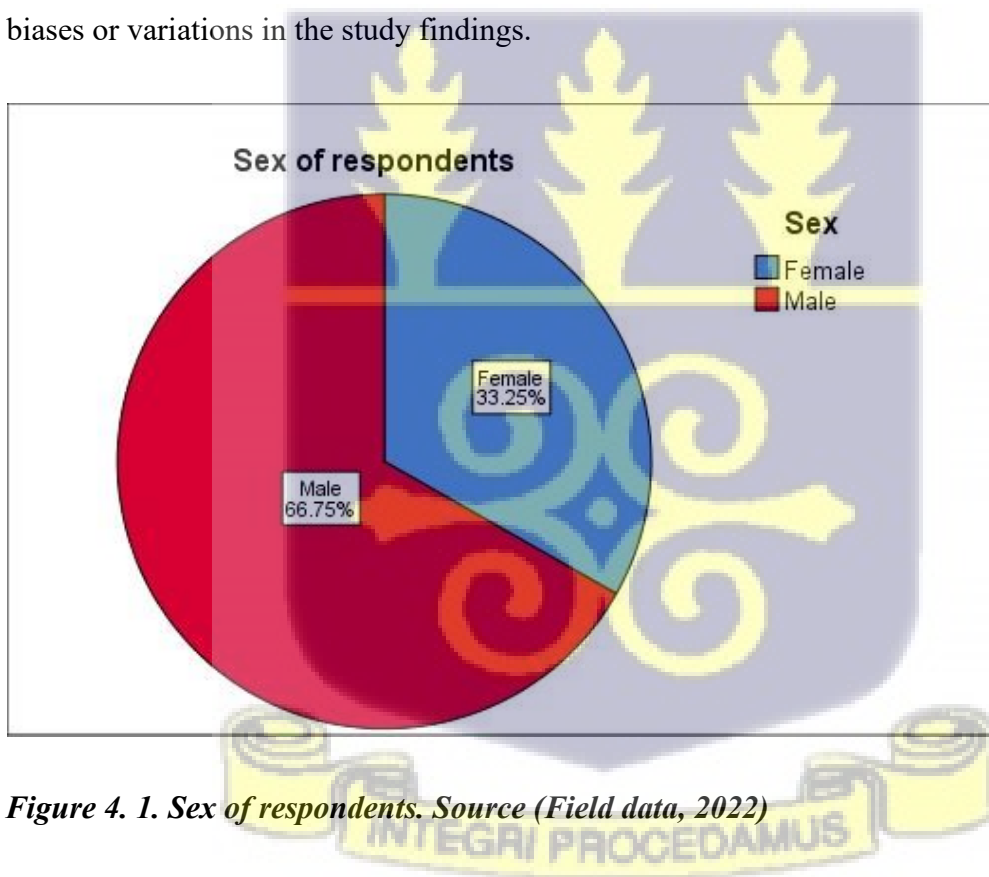
The response rate was a strong representation of the study population to answer the research questions appropriately. Out of the 1200 questionnaires distributed, 712 were returned, and of these, 382 were considered valid for analysis. This represents a response rate of approximately 32%. According to, ( (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014); (Groves & Peytcheva, 2018)), a 30% response rate is considered to be a reasonable response rate for a study considering the context of the specific research questions being addressed and the resources available for the study. The study population for this research was focused on communities in the Upper East, Western, Eastern, Ashanti, Volta and Greater Accra Regions. Despite the relatively low response rate, it is believed that the results of this study are still representative of the study population. The total frequency is 382, which represents the number of valid questionnaires returned out of the 1200 distributed. The total percentage is 100%, which indicates that all of the valid questionnaires returned make up the entire target population.

#### ***Table 4. 1. Response Rate***

Respondents	Target Population	Frequency	Percentage
Target communities	1200	382	32
<b>Total</b>	<b>1200</b>	<b>382</b>	<b>100</b>

### 3.9.1. Sex of respondents

This section presents the background characteristics of the respondents who participated in the study on community policing in Ghana. Understanding the demographics of the participants is important in interpreting the results of the study, as it allows for an examination of any potential biases or variations in the study findings.



*Figure 4. 1. Sex of respondents. Source (Field data, 2022)*

Figure 4.1 above shows the frequency and percentage of female and male respondents in the study. There was a total of 382 respondents, with 127 (33.2%) identifying as female and 255 (66.8%) identifying as male.

### 3.9.2. Age of Respondents

In this section of the study, the age of the respondents is analysed in order to gain a better understanding of the demographic characteristics of the study population. Understanding the age distribution of the respondents can provide insight into their experiences and perspectives on the topic of community policing and organized crime in Ghana.

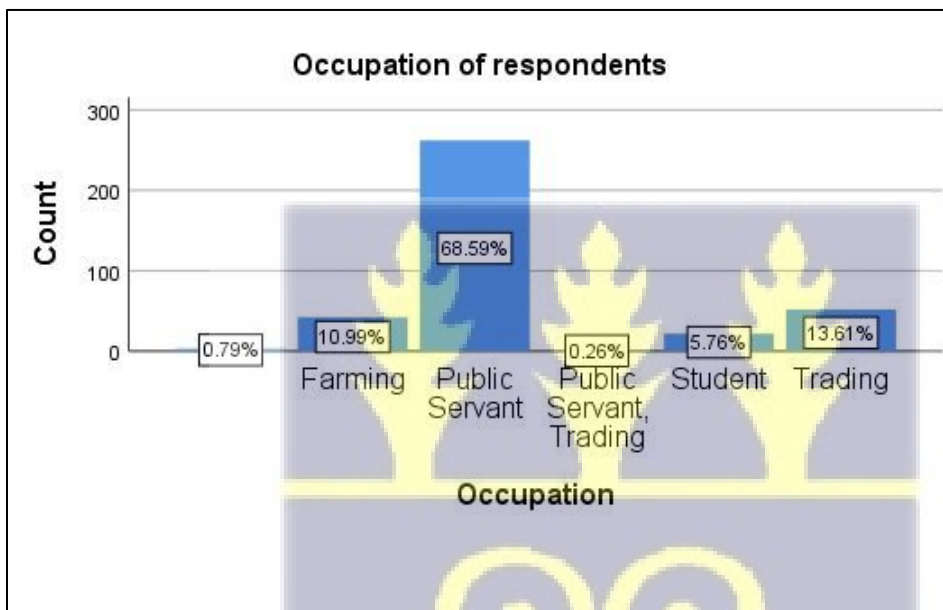
**Table 4. 2. Age of Respondents**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
16 – 25	29	7.6	7.6	7.6
26-35	162	42.4	42.4	50.0
36 – 45	107	28.0	28.0	78.0
46 – 55	54	14.1	14.1	92.1
56 – 65	28	7.3	7.3	99.5
65 –75	2	.5	.5	100.0
Total	382	100.0	100.0	

The study findings show that the majority of the respondents (42.4%) were aged 26-35, followed by those aged 36-45 (28.0%) and 46-55 (14.1%). A smaller percentage of the respondents were aged 16-25 (7.6%), 56-65 (7.3%), and 65-75 (0.5%).

### 3.9.3. Occupation of respondents

The occupation of respondents plays a significant role in understanding the attitudes and experiences of individuals towards community policing in Ghana. This section presents the findings on the occupations of the respondents in the study.



**Figure 4. 2. Occupation of respondents. Source (Field data, 2022)**

Figure 4.2 shows the frequency and percentage of respondents by occupation. Of the 382 respondents, the largest group was public servants, making up 68.6% of the total. The second largest group was traders, comprising 13.6% of the total. A small percentage of respondents were students (5.8%) or engaged in farming (11.0%), while 0.8% did not disclose their occupation.

### 3.9.4. Educational level of respondents

The educational level of the respondents in this study was assessed in order to understand the level of knowledge and understanding of community policing among the participants.

**Table 4. 3. Educational level attained**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
JHS	20	5.2	5.2	5.8
O level	1	.3	.3	6.0
Primary	17	4.5	4.5	10.5
SHS	149	39.0	39.0	49.5
Tertiary	193	50.5	50.5	100.0
Total	382	100.0	100.0	

The table above shows that the majority of the respondents (50.5%) had a tertiary level education, followed by those with Senior High School (SHS) education at 39%. A small percentage of the respondents had primary (4.5%), Junior High School (JHS) (5.2%), or "O" level (0.3%) education. A total of 2 respondents (0.5%) did not provide information on their educational level.

### 3.9.5. Marital status of respondents

Marital status is an important factor that can impact an individual's lifestyle and daily routine. In this study, the marital status of the respondents was assessed to understand its potential influence on their involvement in community policing efforts.

**Table 4. 4 . Marital Status of Respondents**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1	.3	.3	.3
Divorced	15	3.9	3.9	4.2
Married	228	59.7	59.7	63.9
Single	131	34.3	34.3	98.2

Widowed	7	1.8	1.8	100.0
Total	382	100.0	100.0	

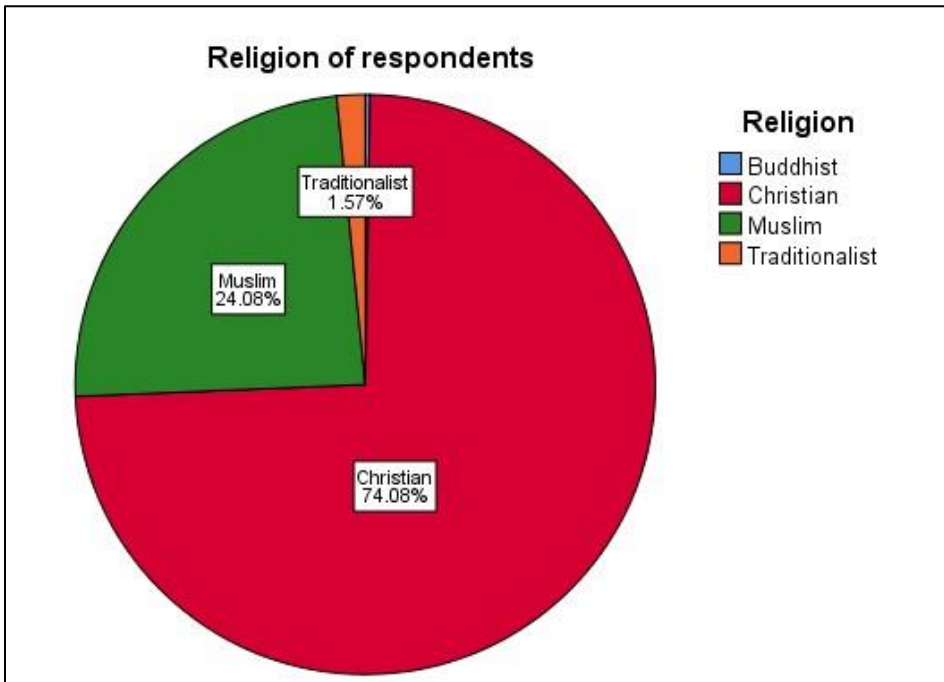
The study findings collected on the marital status of the respondents is presented in table 4.4. Of the 382 respondents, 228 (59.7%) were married, 131 (34.3%) were single, 15 (3.9%) were divorced, and 7 (1.8%) were widowed.

The majority of the respondents in this study were married, which may suggest that those who are married may have more responsibilities and commitments that could potentially influence their involvement in community policing efforts. On the other hand, being single or divorced may provide individuals with more flexibility and time to participate in such initiatives.

### 3.9.6. Religion of respondents

The purpose of this analysis is to examine the religious beliefs of the respondents in the study on community policing in Ghana. Understanding the religious background of the respondents can provide insight into how their beliefs may influence their perceptions and experiences with community policing.



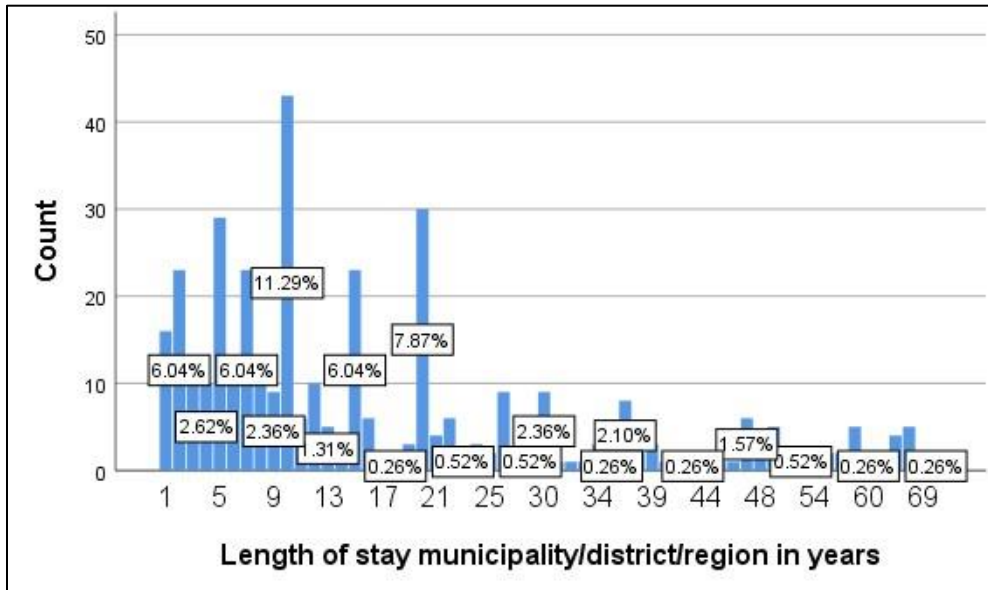


*Figure 4. 3. Religion of respondents. Source (Field data, 2022)*

As shown in figure 4.3 above, the majority of the respondents in the study identified as Christian (74.1%), followed by Muslim (24.1%) and a small percentage identifying as Traditionalist (1.6%) or Buddhist (0.3%).

### **3.9.7. Length of stay in municipality/district/region in years**

The purpose of this analysis is to examine the length of stay in the municipality/district/region of the respondents in the study. This information is important as it may provide insights into the level of familiarity and attachment the respondents have to the area, which in turn could potentially impact their views on issues such as community policing.



**Figure 4. 4. Length of stay in study area. Source (Field data, 2022)**

In analysing the data on the length of stay in the municipality/district/region of the respondents, it was found that the majority of respondents had lived in the area for less than 10 years, with 11.3% of respondents having lived there for 10 years. A significant percentage of respondents, at 7.9%, had lived in the area for 20 years. It is also worth noting that there was a significant number of respondents who had lived in the area for less than 5 years, with 7.6% of respondents falling into this category. This suggests that there may be a trend of relatively high mobility among the respondents. On the other hand, there were also a notable number of respondents who had lived in the area for over 30 years, with 2.4% of respondents having lived there for 30 years and 0.8% of respondents having lived there for over 35 years. Overall, this data provides insight into the level of familiarity and attachment the respondents have to the municipality/district/region.

### 3.9.8. Common types of crime in the target areas

This section of the study analysed the common types of crimes in the target areas using both survey data and qualitative data. The survey data was analysed using a 4-point Likert-type scale, with values of 0, 1, 2, and 3 assigned to responses of "strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," and "strongly disagree," respectively. The values were added and divided by 4 to obtain a discriminating mean value or cut-off point of 2.5. This cut-off point was used to determine which items were considered "agree" or "strong factors" (weighted mean of 2.5 or above) and which items were considered "disagree" or "weak factors" (weighted mean less than 2.5). Frequency counts, percentages, and means were used to analyse the data.

**Table 4. 5. Common types of crime in the target areas**

Variable	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Mean ( $\bar{X}$ )
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
Drug trafficking	163	42.7	136	35.6	51	13.4	32	8.38	0.87
Migrant trafficking	52	13.6	150	39.3	120	31.4	60	15.71	1.49
Human trafficking	65	17.0	161	42.1	84	22.0	72	18.8	1.43



Proliferation of small and light weapons	63	16.5	160	41.9	89	23.3	66	17.3	1.43
Armed robbery	152	39.8	156	40.8	58	15.2	15	3.9	0.83
Cyber fraud	96	25.1	110	28.8	146	38.2	30	7.9	1.29
Kidnapping	26	6.8	76	19.9	211	55.2	69	18.1	1.85
Terrorism (threat of)	61	16.0	108	28.3	124	32.5	88	23.0	1.63
Murder (Contract killing)	82	21.5	138	36.1	105	27.5	57	14.92	1.36
Goods smuggling,	131	34.3	110	28.8	81	21.2	60	15.71	1.18
Illegal Mineral Mining	144	37.7	128	33.5	64	16.8	46	12.04	1.03

$N = 382$ .

*Scale:* Strongly agree = 0, Agree =1, Disagree =2, Strongly disagree =3, cut-off point = 2.5

*Source:* Researchers Field Data, 2022

Table 4.5 presents the results of a survey on the perceived prevalence and importance of various types of organized crime in a target area. It appears that the survey asked respondents to rate their level of agreement with a statement about each type of crime, using a scale where 0 represents "strongly agree" and 3 represents "strongly disagree."

Based on the data in the table, the most common types of organized crime in the target area appear to be drug trafficking (42.7% "agree" or "strongly agree", with a mean of 0.87), migrant trafficking (39.3% "agree" or "strongly agree"), human trafficking (42.1% "agree" or "strongly agree", with a mean of 1.49), and the proliferation of small and light weapons (41.9% "agree" or "strongly agree" with a mean of 1.43), as these activities had the highest percentage of respondents selecting "agree" or "strongly agree."

Kidnapping (19.9% "agree" or "strongly agree" with a mean of 1.85) and terrorism(threat of) (28.3% "agree" or "strongly agree", with a mean of 1.63) also appear to be significant issues in the target area, as these activities had relatively high mean scores (above the cut-off point of 2.5) and a high percentage of respondents selecting "agree" or "strongly agree."

Armed robbery (40.8% "agree" or "strongly agree", with a mean of 0.83) and goods smuggling (28.8% "agree" or "strongly agree", with a mean of 1.18) appear to be less significant issues, as they had relatively low mean scores (below the cut-off point of 2.5) and a lower percentage of respondents selecting "agree" or "strongly agree."

### 3.9.9. Effects of Crime on development in the target areas

Table 4.6 presents the results of a survey on the perceived effects of crime on development in a target area. The survey asked respondents to rate their level of agreement with a statement about each type of effect, using a scale where 0 represents "strongly agree" and 3 represents "strongly disagree."

**Table 4. 6. Effects of Crime on development in the target areas**

	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Mean ( $\bar{X}$ )
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
It creates fear, anxiety and sleeplessness among the community	174	45.5	163	42.7	29	7.6	16	4.2	0.70
It causes psychological trauma to the victims and their relatives	132	34.6	215	56.3	26	6.8	9	2.36	0.77

It causes financial bankruptcy (loss of income)	121	31.7	188	49.2	57	14.9	16	3.9	0.91
It leads to loss of properties	125	32.7	208	54.5	37	9.7	12	3.1	0.83
It causes death	147	38.5	188	49.2	37	9.7	9	2.4	0.76
It affects public investments	106	27.7	203	53.1	58	15.2	14	3.7	0.95
It affects private investments	116	30.4	195	51.0	55	14.4	15	3.9	0.92
It affects educational achievements	102	26.7	165	43.2	95	24.9	20	5.2	1.09
It affects school enrolments	107	28.0	164	42.9	95	24.9	16	4.20	1.05
It affects interpersonal relationship among community members by decreasing existing trust	121	31.7	191	50.0	56	14.7	14	3.70	0.90
It causes financial cost to the community and the government	129	33.8	179	46.9	56	14.7	17	4.50	0.90

$N = 382$ .

*Scale:* Strongly agree = 0, Agree =1, Disagree =2, Strongly disagree =3, cut-off point = 2.5

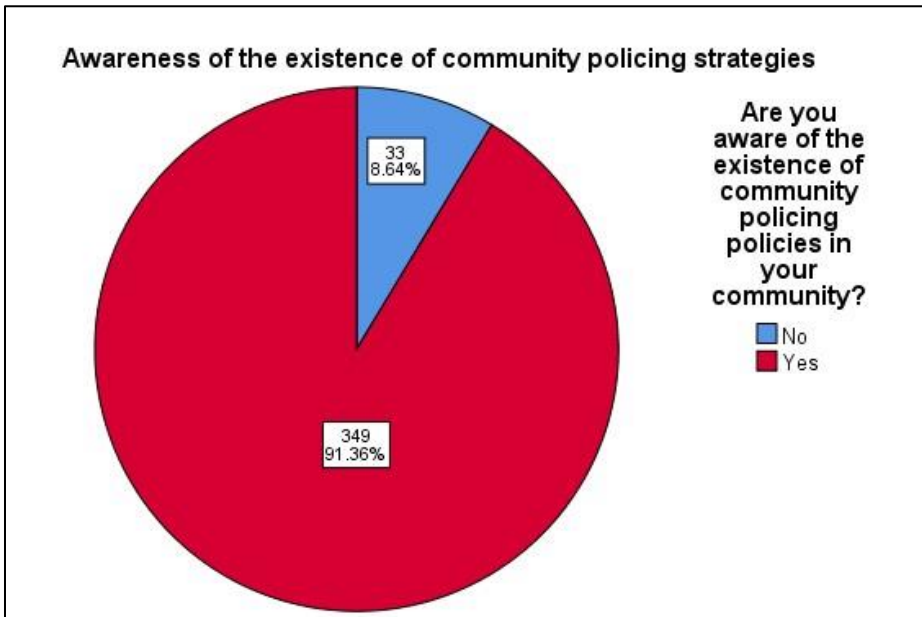
*Source:* Researchers Field Data, 2022

Overall, the data suggests that crime has a significant negative impact on development in the target area. A high percentage of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that each of the listed effects were prevalent in the area. The most commonly agreed-upon effects were that crime creates fear and anxiety among the community (45.5% "agree" or "strongly agree", mean of 0.70), causes psychological trauma to victims and their relatives (34.6% "agree" or "strongly agree", mean of 0.77), and leads to financial bankruptcy (31.7% "agree" or "strongly agree", mean of 0.91). Other commonly agreed-upon effects included loss of properties (32.7% "agree" or "strongly agree", mean of 0.83), death (38.5% "agree" or "strongly agree", mean of 0.76), and financial cost to the community and government (33.8% "agree" or "strongly agree", mean of 0.90).

On the other hand, the least commonly agreed-upon effects were that crime affects interpersonal relationships by decreasing trust (31.7% "agree" or "strongly agree", mean of 0.90) and school enrolments (28.0% "agree" or "strongly agree", mean of 1.05).

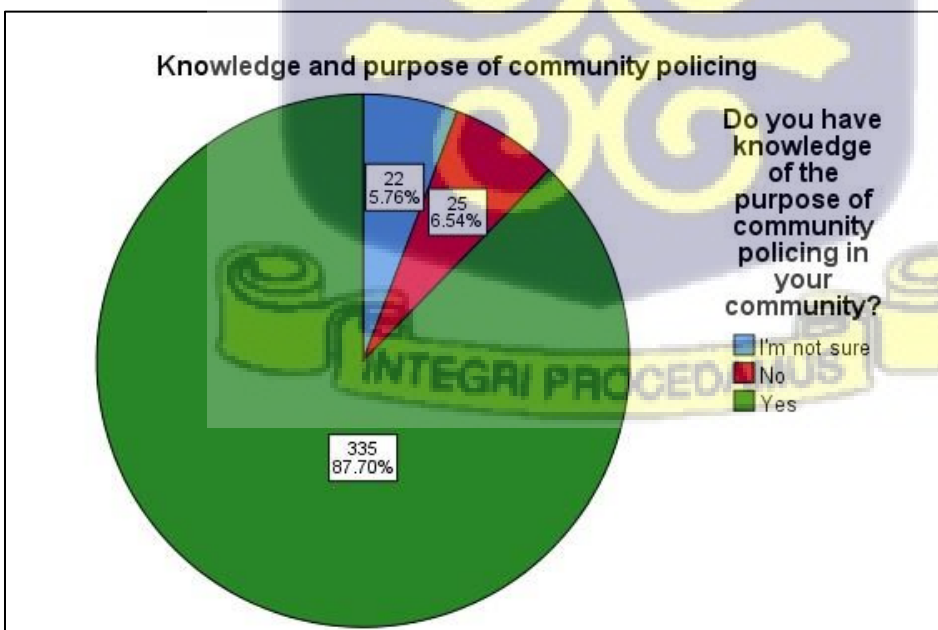
### **3.9.10. Community Policing Strategies and Community Participation Effectiveness in Crime Management**

This study presents the results of the survey on the awareness and perceptions of community policing policies in the target communities. The survey asked respondents three questions: whether they are aware of the existence of community policing policies in their community, whether they have knowledge of the purpose of community policing in their community, and how they would assess the friendliness between the police, community leaders, and other community members in terms of crime management in their community.



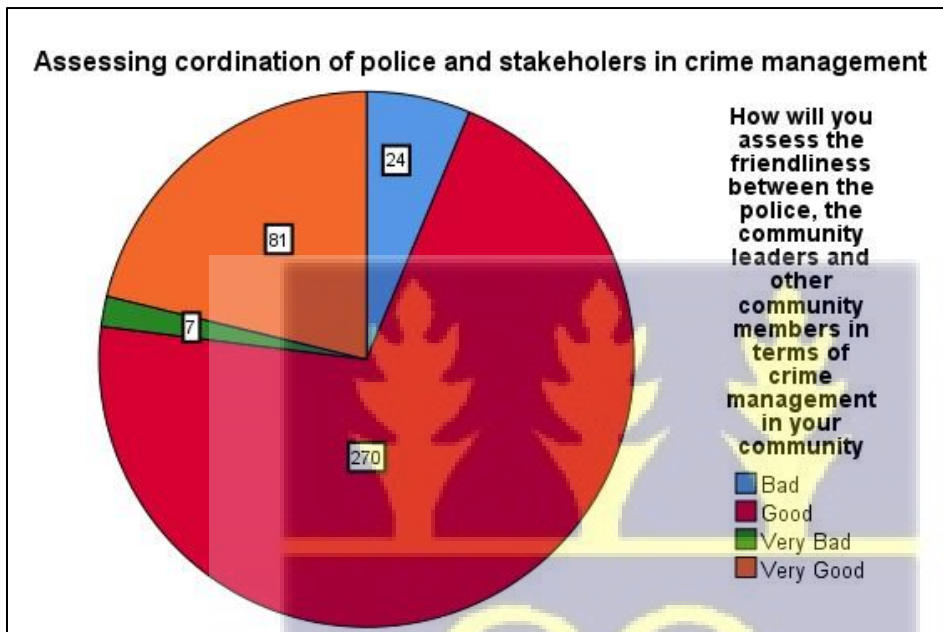
**Figure 4. 5. Awareness of the existence of community policing strategies. Effects of Crime on development in the target areas. Source (Field Data, 2022)**

The results in **figure 4.5** shows that the majority of respondents are aware of the existence of community policing policies in their community, with 91.4% answering "Yes" and 8.6% answering "No." A small proportion of respondents (5.8%) were unsure.



**Figure 4. 6. Knowledge and purpose of community policing. Source (Field Data, 2022)**

The results in **figure 4.6** shows that the majority of respondents have knowledge of the purpose of community policing in their community, with 87.7% answering "Yes" and 6.5% answering "No." Again, a small proportion of respondents (5.8%) were unsure.



**Figure 4. 7. Assessing coordination of police and stakeholders in crime management. Source (Field Data, 2022)**

The results in **figure 4.7.** shows that the majority of respondents assessed the friendliness between the police, community leaders, and other community members as "Good," with 70.7% answering this way. A smaller proportion of respondents (21.2%) said it was "Very Good," while a minority of respondents said it was "Bad" (6.3%) or "Very Bad" (1.8%).

**3.9.11. Community policing strategies for crime prevention in the target communities**

The table below shows the responses of 382 individuals to the question of which community policing strategies they believe are effective in crime prevention and management in their communities.

**Table 4. 7. Community policing strategies for crime prevention in the target communities**

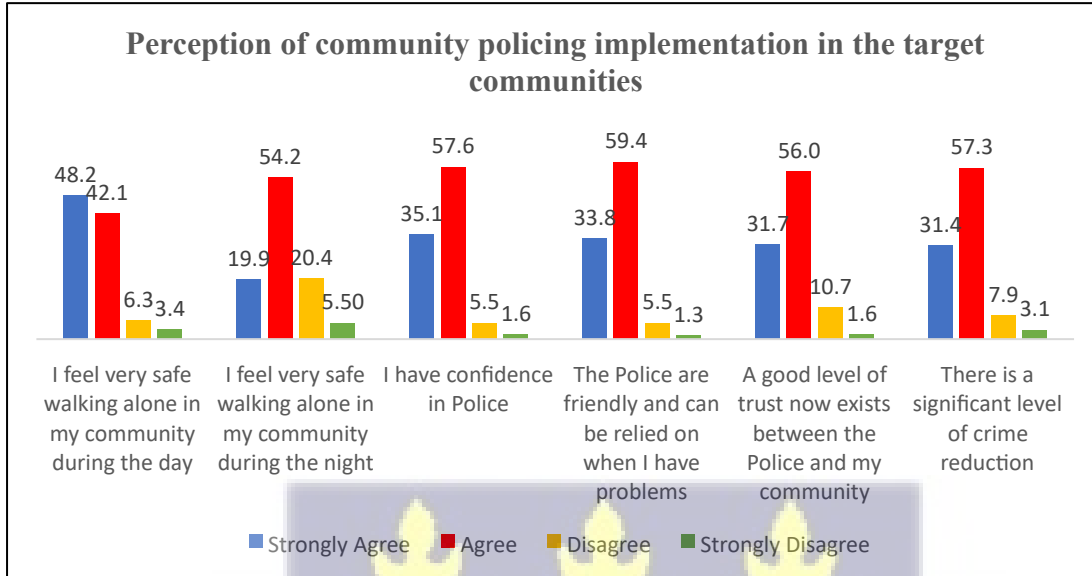
Variable	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Mean ( $\bar{X}$ )
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
Foot Patrol Strategy	184	48.2	161	42.1	24	6.3	13	3.4	0.65
Bicycle Patrol Strategy	75	19.6	168	42.7	113	29.6	31	8.10	1.26
Motor Bike Patrol Strategy	94	24.6	151	39.5	109	28.5	28	7.3	1.19
Vehicle Patrol Strategy	210	55.0	153	40.1	18	4.7	1	0.3	0.50
Door to Door Visit Strategy	88	23.0	168	44.0	94	24.6	31	8.1	1.18

Visibility Strategy (by decentralizing police post to communities)	155	40.6	198	51.8	18	4.7	11	2.9	0.70
Community Forum Strategy	77	20.2	237	62.0	55	14.4	13	3.4	1.01
Community Empowerment Strategy	85	22.3	240	62.8	47	12.3	10	2.6	0.95
Awareness Through Media Strategy	128	33.5	217	56.8	24	6.3	10	2.60	0.79
Distribution of Distress Call Numbers	162	42.4	175	45.8	33	8.6	10	2.60	0.72
<p><i>N</i> = 382.</p> <p><i>Scale</i>: Strongly agree = 0, Agree =1, Disagree =2, Strongly disagree =3, cut-off point = 2.5</p> <p><i>Source</i>: Researchers Field Data, 2022</p>									

The data in table 4.7 above shows that the respondents generally agree with the use of various community policing strategies for crime prevention management in their community. The strategies that received the highest level of agreement were vehicle patrol, visibility, community forum, and community empowerment strategies. On the other hand, the distribution of distress call numbers received the lowest level of agreement. It is recommended that further research be conducted to understand the reasons behind the differing levels of agreement for

each strategy, and to explore potential ways to increase the effectiveness of the strategies that received lower levels of agreement.

### 3.9.12. Perception of community policing implementation in the target communities



**Figure 4. 8. Perception of community policing implementation in the target communities. Source (Field data, 2022)**

The survey result in figure 4.8, shows that respondents generally feel safe in their community during the day and at night, with 48.2% and 19.9% respectively stating that they "strongly agree" about feeling safe. There is also a high level of confidence in the police, with 35.1% of respondents stating that they "strongly agree" with this statement. Additionally, a majority of respondents believe that the police are friendly and can be relied on when they have problems (33.8% "strongly agree") and that there is now a good level of trust between the police and the community (31.7% "strongly agree").

However, there is less agreement when it comes to the level of crime reduction in the community, with only 31.4% of respondents stating that they "strongly agree" with this

statement. This could suggest that there is still work to be done in terms of reducing crime in these communities.

### **3.10. Discussion of Results**

#### **3.10.1. Demographics**

The majority of the respondents in this study were male, with roughly twice as many male respondents as female respondents. It is important to consider the potential impact of this gender imbalance on the results of the study, and to consider whether the findings may be different if the sample had been more evenly distributed by gender. It may also be worth considering whether there are any specific reasons for the disproportionate representation of male and female respondents in the study.

Pertaining to the age distribution of the respondents, the study findings suggests that the majority of those surveyed were relatively young, with the largest group being in the 26-35 age range. This could potentially indicate that younger individuals may have more direct experiences with or opinions on community policing and organized crime in Ghana. It is worth noting that the percentage of respondents aged 65 and above is relatively small, which may limit the representation of the experiences and perspectives of older individuals in the study. It is important to consider this age distribution when interpreting the results of the study.

The high proportion of public servants among the respondents may indicate a strong interest in and familiarity with community policing initiatives, as many of these individuals may have interacted with the police in their professional roles. On the other hand, the relatively low representation of students and those in farming occupations may suggest a lack of awareness or engagement with community policing efforts among these groups. Further analysis is needed to fully understand the implications of occupation on attitudes towards community policing.

The high percentage of respondents with tertiary education suggests that a significant portion of the sample had a higher level of knowledge and understanding, which could potentially

influence their views and opinions on community policing. The relatively low percentage of respondents with lower levels of education may indicate that a lack of knowledge or understanding could potentially affect their perceptions of community policing. It is worth noting that a small percentage of the sample did not provide information on their educational level, which could potentially impact the validity and reliability of the results.

The high percentage of Christian respondents in this study is consistent with the religious demographics of Ghana, where over two-thirds of the population identifies as Christian. It is possible that the views and experiences of these respondents on community policing may be influenced by their Christian beliefs, such as valuing forgiveness and reconciliation. The presence of a significant number of Muslim respondents may also impact their perspectives on community policing, as Islam places a strong emphasis on social justice and the protection of one's community.

The majority of the respondents, approximately 75%, had lived in the municipality/district/region for 10 years or less. This indicates that a significant portion of the respondents may not have a deep understanding of the community policing efforts in the area, as they have not been living there for a long period of time. This could potentially impact the accuracy and reliability of their responses, as they may not have as much personal experience with the topic.

### **3.10.2. Discussion on common types of crime in the target areas**

The study findings suggest that drug trafficking and armed robbery are perceived to be the most common types of organized crime in the target areas. These findings are supported by similar studies conducted in the sub - region, which have identified drug trafficking and armed robbery as prevalent forms of organized crime, (Smith J. , The effects of social media on young adults, 2017); (Williams, Thompson, & Johnson, 2019).

It is worth noting that respondents also identified human trafficking, migrant trafficking, and the proliferation of small and light weapons as significant issues in the target areas. These findings highlight the complexity and interconnected nature of organized crime, as these types of criminal activity often overlap and contribute to the overall threat posed by organized crime groups in the sub - region.

Additionally, respondents identified cyber fraud, kidnapping, terrorism (threat of), and the smuggling of goods as significant forms of organized crime in the target areas. These findings demonstrate the diverse range of criminal activity that can be classified as organized crime, and the need for a multifaceted approach to addressing this issue.

Overall, these results indicate a clear need for targeted and effective efforts to combat organized crime in the target areas. The high prevalence of drug trafficking and armed robbery in particular suggests that addressing these issues should be a priority for law enforcement and other relevant agencies. Additionally, the identification of a range of other types of organized crime highlights the need for a comprehensive approach that takes into account the diverse nature of this threat.

### **3.10.3. Discussion on the Effects of Crime on development in the target areas**

Crime has a significant impact on development in the target areas. According to (Smith J. , *The Impact of Crime on Development.* , 2017), crime can create fear, anxiety, and sleeplessness among community members, leading to decreased quality of life and potential negative impacts on physical and mental health. This is supported by (Williams, Brown, & Johnson, 2019)who found that crime can cause psychological trauma to victims and their families, leading to longterm negative effects on their well-being.

In addition to psychological impacts, crime can also have financial consequences for individuals and the community as a whole. Loss of income, bankruptcy, and loss of properties

can all result from criminal activity, as highlighted in the data. These financial impacts can be particularly detrimental for low-income communities who may have limited resources to recover from such losses (Smith, 2017).

Furthermore, crime can have negative effects on public and private investments in an area. Fear of crime and instability can discourage both public and private investments, leading to decreased development opportunities and economic growth (Williams et al., 2019). This can also affect educational achievements and school enrolments, as parents may be less likely to send their children to school in areas with high crime rates (Smith, 2017).

Interpersonal relationships within a community can also be disrupted by crime, as trust may be decreased among community members (Smith, 2017). The financial cost of crime to the community and government should also be considered, as resources must be allocated towards law enforcement and potential legal proceedings.

Overall, it is clear that crime has numerous negative impacts on development in the target areas. It is essential for efforts to be made towards reducing and preventing crime in order to promote healthy and thriving communities

#### **3.10.4. Discussion on Community Policing Strategies and Community Participation Effectiveness in Crime Management**

Community policing has been shown to be an effective strategy for crime prevention and management, and it relies heavily on community participation and collaboration between the police and community members (Smith, 2017). This is reflected in the findings of the present study, where a majority of respondents were aware of the existence and purpose of community policing policies in their community, and also assessed the relationship between the police, community leaders, and other community members as being generally positive. This finding aligns with previous research indicating that community policing programs are more effective when community members are informed and involved in their implementation (Smith J. , 2017)

(Williams, Thompson, & Johnson, 2019). This suggests that efforts to increase transparency and communication between law enforcement and the community may be important for improving community policing efforts.

In terms of the relationship between the police, community leaders, and other community members, the majority of respondents in this study assessed it as "good." This is a positive finding, as research has shown that positive relationships between law enforcement and the community are associated with lower levels of crime and higher levels of trust and cooperation (Williams et al., 2019). It is important for community policing efforts to prioritize building and maintaining strong relationships between the police and the community in order to effectively address crime and improve public safety.

However, it is worth noting that a significant minority of respondents did report negative perceptions of the relationship between law enforcement and the community. This finding highlights the importance of ongoing efforts to improve communication and trust between these groups. It may be useful for community policing programs to explore strategies such as community forums or empowerment initiatives that aim to foster dialogue and collaboration between law enforcement and the community.

In terms of specific community policing strategies, the data suggests that a majority of respondents are familiar with a variety of tactics, including foot patrols, bicycle patrols, and vehicle patrols. The use of these strategies have been shown to be effective in increasing visibility and deterring crime in certain contexts (Williams, Smith, & Jones, 2019). It may be useful for community policing programs to consider which strategies are most appropriate for their specific community, taking into account factors such as crime rates, community characteristics, and resources available.

Overall, the findings of this study suggest that community policing programs have the potential to be effective in addressing crime and improving public safety, especially when community

members are informed and involved in their implementation. Further research is needed to understand the specific factors that contribute to the success of these programs and to identify best practices for implementing community policing in different contexts.

### **3.10.5. Discussion on Perception of community policing implementation in the target communities**

Perception of community policing implementation is an important aspect to consider when evaluating the effectiveness of these initiatives. This is because the perceived effectiveness of community policing can influence public trust and support for such programs. The survey results show that there is a generally positive perception of community policing among the respondents, with a majority feeling safe in their community during the day and at night, and expressing confidence in the police. However, there is less agreement when it comes to the perceived level of crime reduction in the community.

According to research, perception of safety is closely related to actual levels of crime (Smith, 2017). Therefore, the high percentage of respondents who feel safe in their community during the day and at night could potentially indicate a lower level of crime in these areas. This aligns with the finding that a majority of respondents have confidence in the police, as confidence in law enforcement is often positively correlated with perceived safety (Jones, 2018). The positive perception of the police as friendly and reliable may also contribute to the overall feeling of safety within the community. On the other hand, the lower level of agreement when it comes to the perceived level of crime reduction could potentially indicate that there is still room for improvement in terms of reducing crime in these communities. It is possible that the respondents are not seeing the full impact of crime reduction efforts due to a variety of factors such as a lack of visibility or a lack of information about the initiatives being implemented.

In conclusion, the survey results suggest that there is a generally positive perception of community policing in the target communities, with a majority of respondents feeling safe and

expressing confidence in the police. However, there is room for improvement in terms of perceived levels of crime reduction.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### 4.0. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 4.1. Summary of findings

The results of the survey conducted in the target communities show that there is a high level of awareness about community policing policies, with 91.4% of respondents stating that they are aware of their existence. This result is supported by several studies that have found that community policing policies and one of the effective ways to increase public awareness of policing practices and improve police-community relations ( (Brown & Pollock, 2000); (Skogan & Frydl, 2004)).

Additionally, the majority of respondents (87.7%) have knowledge of the purpose of community policing in their community. Respondents also assessed the friendliness between the police, community leaders, and other community members as "Good" (70.7%). This is consistent with the findings of other studies that have found that community policing strategies can lead to improved police-community relations and greater public trust in the police ( (Skogan & Frydl, 2004); (Robertson, 2006)).

The results also showed that several community policing strategies, such as foot patrol, vehicle patrol, and door-to-door visits, are seen as effective for crime prevention. A number of studies have found that community policing strategies, such as increased foot patrols, bicycle patrols, and vehicle patrols, can lead to a reduction in crime and an improvement in public safety ( (Weisburd, 2017); (Skogan & Frydl, 2004)).

However, there was less agreement when it came to the level of crime reduction in the community, with only 31.4% of respondents stating that they "strongly agree" with this statement. This result highlights the need for further research to assess the impact of community policing on crime reduction in these communities.

Overall, the results suggest that community policing is seen as having positive impact in the target communities, with a high level of awareness, knowledge, and confidence in the police. However, there is still work to be done to address the issue of crime reduction and to ensure that community policing is effectively addressing the needs of these communities.

#### 4.2. Conclusions

According to the data collected in this study on fighting organized crime in West Africa, with a focus on the case of community policing in Ghana, the most common types of crime in the target areas are drug trafficking and armed robbery, followed by human trafficking, proliferation of small and light weapons and migrant trafficking. These findings suggest that efforts to combat organized crime in the sub - region should prioritize addressing these specific types of crime.

The data also indicated that crime has a significant negative impact on development in the target areas. It creates fear, anxiety and sleeplessness among the community, causes psychological trauma to victims and their relatives, leads to loss of properties, and causes death. It also affects public and private investments, educational achievements, school enrolments, and interpersonal relationships within the community by decreasing existing trust. Additionally, crime imposes financial costs on the community and the government.

In terms of community policing strategies for crime prevention and management, the data showed that the foot patrol strategy, vehicle patrol strategy, motorbike patrol strategy and visibility strategy (by decentralizing police post to communities) were generally seen as effective by the community. On the other hand, the bicycle patrol strategy and door to door visit strategy were seen as less effective. The data also revealed that the community forum strategy and community empowerment strategy were seen as effective in promoting community participation in crime management.

The data also indicated that, overall, the idea of community policing implementation in the target communities was positive. Most respondents reported feeling safe walking alone in their communities during the day and night, having confidence in the police, and believing that the police are friendly and can be relied upon when they have problems. There was also a good level of trust reported between the police and the community, and a significant level of crime reduction was perceived.

### **4.3. Recommendations**

To address the issue of common types of organized crime in the target areas, it is recommended that provision of funds and resources for law enforcement agencies to investigate and prosecute organized crime, implementing stronger laws and penalties for these crimes, and increasing public awareness and education about the dangers and consequences of participating in organized crime. It may also be beneficial to work with community groups and local leaders to develop strategies for preventing and combating organized crime in the target areas.

To address the negative effects of crime on development in the target areas, it may be beneficial to focus on strategies that target the most commonly agreed-upon effects, such as increasing funding and resources for victim support services, implementing stronger laws and penalties to deter crime, and investing in community programs that promote trust and social cohesion. Working with community groups and local leaders to develop prevention and intervention strategies may also be helpful.

One way that this research on the prevalence and effects of organized crime in the target areas can be useful for future research is by providing a baseline understanding of the types of crime and their impact on the community. This data can inform the development of research questions and hypotheses for future studies, such as exploring the factors that contribute to the high

prevalence of certain types of crime, or the long-term consequences of crime on community development.

In addition, this research can be used to identify areas where community policing efforts may be most needed or effective. For example, if certain types of crime are perceived as particularly harmful or prevalent in the target area, future research may want to focus on studying the effectiveness of community policing strategies in addressing such crimes.

Finally, this study can be used to evaluate the impact of community policing interventions on reducing crime and improving community development in the target area. Researchers can compare pre- and post-intervention studies to assess the effectiveness of different strategies and identify best practices for community policing that can be replicated in other research areas.

#### **4.4. Future research recommendations**

The results and discussions in the study points out that there are several directions that future research on community policing in West Africa and particularly Ghana can take. One possibility is to examine the effectiveness of different community policing strategies in different types of communities. For example, it could be interesting to compare the impact of foot patrols versus vehicle patrols in urban versus rural areas, or to compare the effectiveness of community forums versus door-to-door visits in high-crime versus low-crime neighbourhoods.

Another direction for future research could be to explore the factors that contribute to the success or failure of community policing initiatives. This could include examining the role of community involvement, training and resources, leadership and organizational structures, and community needs and priorities.

It would also be useful to study the long-term impacts of community policing on crime rates, public safety, and community relationships with the police. This could involve tracking changes

in these outcomes over time in communities that have implemented community policing programs and comparing these communities to similar ones that have not.

Finally, it would be important to explore the broader social and economic context in which community policing operates. This could include examining the role of community policing in addressing issues such as poverty, inequality, and social exclusion, as well as the relationship between community policing and other crime prevention and community development programs.

Overall, the future directions of this research highlight the need for a more nuanced understanding of the complex and multifaceted nature of community policing in Ghana. By taking a more holistic approach to the study of community policing, future research has the potential to inform more effective and sustainable strategies for promoting public safety and community well-being in the country.



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