UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

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SCHOOL OF THE BUILT ENVIRONMENT

COMMUNITY POLICING AS A CRIME PREVENTION MANAGEMENT STRATEGY
IN MAKINA VILLAGE, KIBERA, CITY OF NAIROBI

BY
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**RESEARCH PROJECT REPORT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS OF MASTER OF URBAN MANAGEMENT DEGREE IN THE
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DECLARATION

This Research Project Report is my original work and has not been submitted before for a degree in any other University.

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This Research Project Report has been submitted for the degree of Masters of Urban Management with our knowledge as the University Supervisors.

Signed: ....Date: 16./1.11./12....2012

Professor Jerry Magutu

Signed: ....Date: ..14./11./......2012

Mr. Romanus Opiyo

DEDICATION

This Research Project Report is dedicated to my late parents, who inculcated in me a continuous love for knowledge and learning, and to my loving Jane Wangari, for her unconditional love, support and encouragement throughout the course of this work.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

The study focused on community policing as a strategy where community collaborates with security agencies to reduce and prevent criminal activities. The objectives were to establish the implementation approaches; identify the challenges; and develop a framework that can address inadequacies on community policing in Makina village. The study employed secondary data from literature review for theoretical framework development and fieldwork tools. Simple random sampling and convenience sampling techniques were applied in the case of residents and police officers whose sample sizes were 103 and 45 respectively. The study also employed cross-sectional study design and the data was analysed using Ms Excel programme and presented in tables and figures.

The implementation approaches used by police officers include community partnership whereby residents report incidences of crime to the police station, or to some stationed community policing booths; placement of information boxes at strategic locations to allow gathering for confidential intelligence on crime from the community; and awareness creation and training on community policing by the Government and Civil societies for example Pamoja Trust amongst others. The challenges found out include:- inadequate training on community policing to the residents; inadequate resources in terms of police patrol vehicles; non holding of confidential information; non quick response to crime scenes and/or issues; non thorough conduct of investigations; bribery demand; harassment of people and poor customer service by the police officers; mistrust between police officers and the residents; low level of consultation between the residents and police officers on security matters; low organization of civic education programmes on community policing by government and civil societies; inadequate street lighting; and presence of many passages which happens to be very narrow.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AMREF	Africa Medical Research Foundation
AP	Administration Police
CBP	Community Based Policing
CHRI	Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative
COURC	Community Organization Resource Centre
CPFs	Community Police Forums
CPTED	Crime Prevention through Environmental Design
DFID	Department for International Development
D.O	District Officer
ERSWEC	Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth & Employment Creation
GJLOS	Governance, Justice, Law and Order Sector
GoK	Government of Kenya
GoT	Government of Tanzania
GSU	General Service Unit
ICPC	International Centre for the Prevention of Crime
IFRA	French Institute for Dental Research
ICT	Information Communication and Technology
I.T	Information Technology
KIPPRA	Kenya Institute of Public Policy Research and Analysis
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
UN	United Nations
UN-HABITAT	United Nations Human Settlements Programme
U.S.A	United States of America

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The chapter is divided into the following sections:-background of community policing; description of the study area; the problem statement; aims and objectives of the study; research questions; research assumption; justification of the research; scope of the study and its limitations; and operational definitions of terms and concepts adopted in the study.

1.1.0 Background

The complexity of security goes beyond the formal policing system thus requiring multiplicity of strategies that can handle the increasing crime rate. Strategies such as holding of meetings by provincial administrators, use of information communication technology, police patrols and street lighting have been used but none of these strategies give consideration to participation of community where they collaborate with security agencies to check, report and reduce criminal activities in their area of habitation. The study focused on community policing which is a crime prevention strategy that envisages a closer partnership between responsible members of the community and the police in preventing crime. It is both a philosophy (a way of thinking) and an organizational strategy (a way of carrying out that philosophy) that allows and enables the police and the community to work together in solving problems of crime, disorder and safety issues in order to improve the quality of life for everyone in the community (Ngare: 2007).

Since 2003, the Government of Kenya has embraced community policing as a core crime prevention strategy and varieties of Community Based Policing (CBP) projects and sites have been launched across Kenya including Kibera area. This is augmented by the speech given by the President and Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces of the Republic of Kenya on the occasion of the launch of community policing strategy at Ruai police station, Nairobi, on 27th

April 2004. The President noted that Community Policing has been piloted successfully in Ruai and Kibera in Nairobi among other places. Prior to the introduction of CBP in Makina village, the traditional systems of security provision that existed include vigilantism, regular police patrol and neighbourhoods watch. Regular police patrol and neighbourhoods watch still exists but with the introduction of CBP, vigilantism has declined. CBP has also been given support through awareness creation and training workshops organized by Saferworld and Peacenet Kenya amongst other organizations in partnership with the government.

The aim of CBP programme in Kibera was to reclaim peace and security for its residents by responding to their safety and security concerns. The type of activities carried out in each site is varied but has included: training and awareness creation on CBP for police officers and communities, the establishment of Community Safety and Information Centres, support for practical projects, and anonymous information 'drop-in' boxes labeled *Toa Habari kwa Polisi-* frugally translated as 'volunteer information to the police' posted across the pilot site in order to facilitate information exchange on community safety issues (Saferworld: 2008).

The objectives of community policing are to:-promote community safety and security through enhanced partnership between the community, the police and all stakeholders; identify and solve common security problems; improve reporting of crimes; and, encourage sharing of information (Kenya Police: 2003). Nevertheless, the concept has been faced with the challenge of enhancement of public participation in security initiatives so as to promote access to justice; and contributing to increased safety whilst encouraging the right to live without fear of crime. Overcoming this requires focusing on issues relating to the role of the policing services within

the rule of law and the delivery of effective services to the public. It also requires a focus on engaging the public on crime prevention efforts (Republic of Kenya: 2003).

An approach that emphasizes community policing and partnership building requires that stakeholders accept the legitimacy of the institutions and approaches employed, as well as the legitimacy of the individuals themselves. In this respect, integrity becomes a key factor. Kenya Police and the other stakeholders have to ensure that they are above reproach, if partnerships for crime prevention are to become sustainable (CHRI: 2006). As such, strategies to improve the integrity of the institutions must be developed and implemented. Any crime prevention strategy must be open to public scrutiny and oversight-this is true for both the police and for other community policing stakeholders. Nonetheless, lack of internal accountability mechanisms within the police service; failure to build integrity in the public institutions has been hindering successful partnerships of the stakeholders (Amnesty International: 2003).

1.2.0   Description of the Study Area

The study was done in Makina village in Kibera informal settlements. Kibera as shown in figure 1 below is located southwest of Nairobi city centre and is approximately 5 kilometres away from it. Kibera Informal settlement is surrounded by the Royal Nairobi Golf Club to the northeast, Nairobi dam to the southeast and Ngong forest to the southwest. Kibera is broken down into 13 villages whose borders are not clearly defined but mostly consist of natural boundary markers such as walking paths, railroad tracks, and streams. Each village houses people from different ethnic and national backgrounds, although most villages have a dominant ethnic group (de Smedt: 2009b).

3
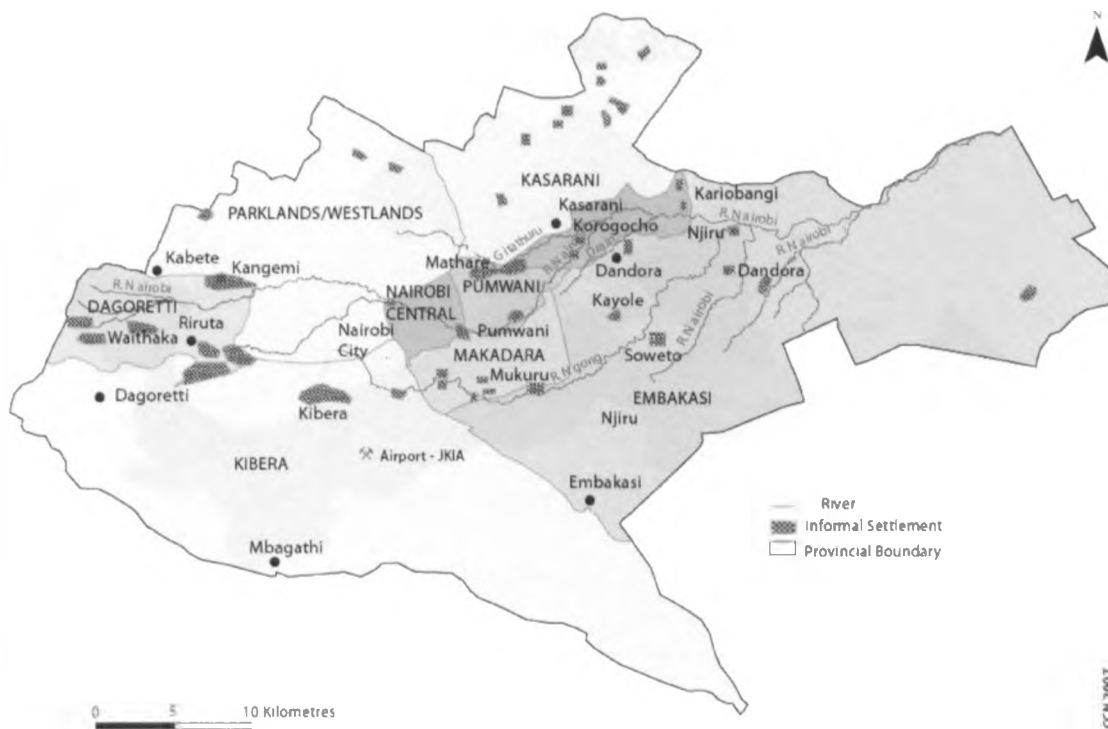
Figure 1: Location of Informal Settlements in Nairobi
Source: City Council of Nairobi: 2007

The 13 villages (shown in figure 2 below) that constitute Kibera informal settlements include Makina, Kianda, Soweto East, Soweto West, Gatwekera, Kisumu Ndogo, Lindi, Laini Saba, Silanga, Mashimoni, Kambi Muru, Kichinjio and Raila (http://peopleofkibera.com). The villages names help reveal their history. For instance, Kichinjio ("slaughterhouse") was so named since the location used to slaughter animals; Mashimoni ("caves") had many pits; Kisumu Ndogo ("Little Kisumu") was named after the city of Kisumu, which is predominantly Luos; and Raila named after the Prime Minister of Kenya. Just outside the 13 villages are a handful of estates including Olympic, Karanja and Ayany to the northwest and Ngumo to the northeast.
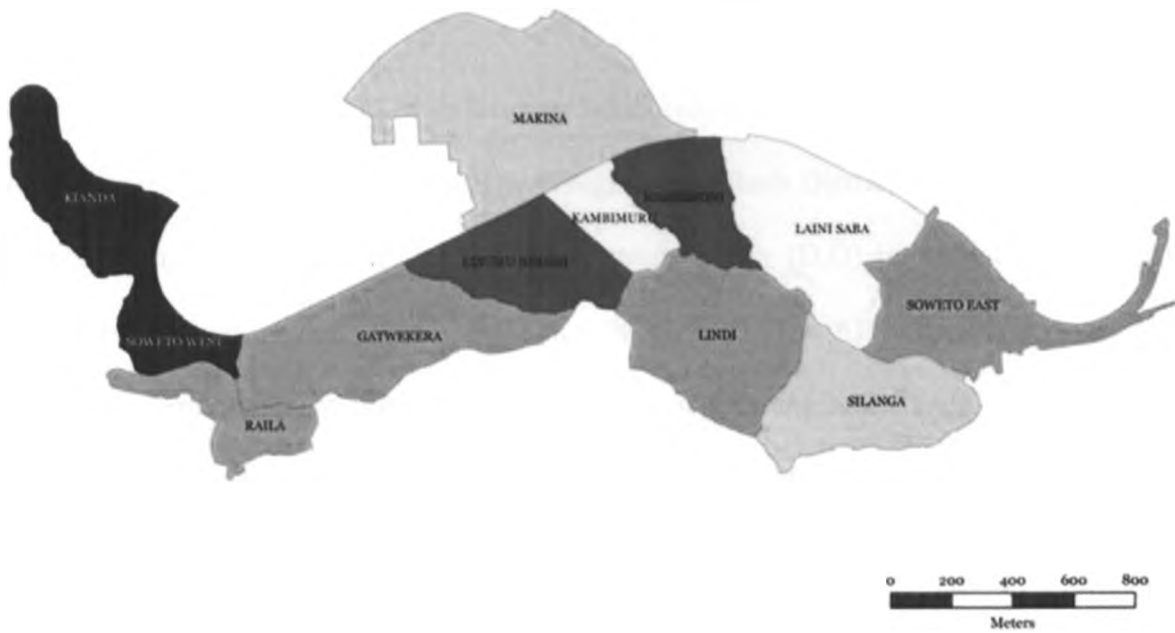
Figure 2: Kibera Informal Settlements
Source: Keyobs, IFRA Survey: 2009

Makina village is sandwiched between Mashimoni, Kambi Muru and Kisumu Ndogo villages; Woodley and Karanja estates; and Toi market. It is accessible from Nairobi city via Ngong Road while Joseph Kang'ethe Road and footpaths are used for internal access. The village covers about 42.67 hectares and is owned by the Government of Kenya. It is the biggest compared to other villages for instance Gatwekera and Lindi villages that cover 28.557 and 26.213 Hectares respectively. The village has about 25,242 people with males and females representing 12,965 and 12,277 of the population respectively (KNBS: 2010). Most of the village residents are Nubians; whose religion is mainly Islam and they own majority of the houses. The design of their houses is different from the other villages in that they are more spaced. Their structures are built of mud and old iron sheets but due to redevelopment in the area, stone houses have also

5

been built. This has prompted the rent to vary between Kshs. 700 to Kshs. 3,000 per month depending on their quality and location.

Makina village is in Makina Sub-location which alongside Kibera, Lindi and Siranga Sub-locations makes up Kibera Location. The village hosts Kibera District Office headquarter besides an Administration Police (AP) camp. The District Officer (D.O) is assisted in administration matters by a Chief, an Assistant Chief, and village elders. The AP heightens up security in the area and is complimented further by the neighbouring Sarang'ombe and High rise AP camps. Makina village was identified as an appropriate Community Based Policing site in order to reclaim peace and security for its residents by responding to their safety and security concerns (Saferworld:2008).

1.3.0   The Problem Statement

Makina village is coupled by different insecurity issues that include mugging commonly referred to as '*ngeta*'; pick pocketing; snatching of mobile phones; house break-ins and robbery with violence. According to (Saferworld:2008), the periods prior to elections often lead to an increase in crime as criminals take advantage of the highly charged political environment to steal from residents. In addition, crime levels in the village is exacerbated by the social and physical situations that include high levels of poverty, unemployment, illicit activities, unlit streets and shallow alleys. Accordingly, the experience of slum-dwellers starkly illustrates that people living in slums are threatened with violence and insecurity (Amnesty International: 2009).

1.4.0   Aims of the study

i.   To assess the role of community as partners in community policing so as to alleviate the security threats in Makina village; and,

ii.   To recommend guidelines that can be used in community policing programme in Makina village specifically and any other similar set up generally.

1.5.0   Objectives of the study

i.   To establish the implementation approaches of community policing programme in Makina village;

ii.   To identify the challenges facing implementation of community policing in Makina village;

iii. To develop a framework that can address inadequacies on community policing in Makina village.

1.6.0   Research Questions

i.   Which are the implementation approaches of community policing in Makina village?

ii.   What are the challenges facing the implementation of community policing in Makina village?

iii. What is the community policing framework in Makina village?

1.7.0   Research Assumption

i.   Improved security is reasonably attributed to functioning of community policing.

1.8.0   Justification of the Research

Every definition of community policing shares the idea that the police and the community must work together to define and develop solutions to problems (Sadd and Grinc: 1994). One rationale for public involvement is the belief that police alone can neither create nor maintain safe communities. It is argued that by opening themselves to citizen input, the police will become more knowledgeable about and responsive to the varying concerns of different communities (Skogan: 1990). Furthermore, community policing changes the fundamental nature of the relationship between people and their police to one of mutual respect and trust (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux: 1991).

At the urban level, one of the discourses around urban safety has been the design of defensible space (UN-HABITAT: 2007). The study is thus important because of its far reaching effect on urban management. A good urban manager will give consideration to neighborhood security before deciding what should be located where; security will also influence the social and physical infrastructure to be provided in specific areas. Deciding on the priority schedule to have in use of resources should also be influenced by security considerations; if for example insecurity is prevalent in Makina village it will not make sense to develop residential houses in the area because you will not attract investments; if people are not assured of their security to a reasonable level, they may be reluctant to buy a housing development in such a neighborhood.

Security will also inform urban managers on how to allocate resources; do they put up normal security lights or do they need to consider high mast to prevent vandalism? Security will also influence resource allocation in an effort to deal with the challenges; how many police stations shall we need and with what strength? The study too contributes towards promoting public-

private cooperation and civilian/community involvement for improved safety and security. It also explores community policing in unplanned area whereby the settlement process and/or most of the activities are not formalized such that there are very few Government institutions which are effective. Moreover, since crime especially in our urban settings has become a chronic problem that requires attention and resolution, the study will shed light to guide in either policy formulation or implementation.

1.9.0   Scope of the Study and its Limitations

The study was limited to Makina village in Kibera slum; Nairobi. The study focused on community policing as a strategy where community collaborates with security agencies to reduce and prevent criminal activities. Some of the limitations encountered during the study include: - unwillingness by some respondents to answer some questions for they feared that the information would be used by the police to harass them; limited time in data collection; inadequate financial resources; and the security concerns did not allow for extended observations in the communities which might have helped to correct possible bias.

1.10.0 Operational Definitions of Terms and Concepts

Community Policing: - "A crime prevention strategy that envisages a closer partnership between responsible members of the community and the police in preventing crime. It is both a philosophy (a way of thinking) and an organizational strategy (a way of carrying out that philosophy) that allows and enables the police and the community to work together in solving problems of crime, disorder and safety issues in order to improve the quality of life for everyone in the community (Ngare: 2007).

Makina Resident:-Someone who lives or has lived in Makina village for a period of more than one year or who was born there.

Crime: - "activities that involve breaking the law" (Oxford advanced learner's dictionary, seventh edition: 2006).

Prevention:-Comprises strategies and measures that seek to reduce the risk of crimes occurring, and their potential harmful effects on individuals and society, including fear of crime, by intervening to influence their multiple causes (UN Economic and Social Council, resolution 2002/13 of 24 July 2002).

Crime prevention:-The anticipation, recognition and appraisal of a crime risk, and the initiation of action to remove or reduce it. According to (Cusson: 2002), crime prevention consists of all non-coercive actions on the causes of crimes with the specific goal of reducing their likelihood or severity.

Stakeholders:-persons, groups or institutions with interests in project or programme (McElroy and Mills: 2000).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

The chapter contains the following sections:-genesis of community policing based on a review of the related literature as presented by various scholars; urban crime; crime prevention mechanisms that include community based anti-crime initiatives and community policing among others; crime prevention policies and regulations; and theoretical framework of the study.

2.1.0 Genesis of Community Policing

According to (Skogan: 2006; Virta: 2006; Innes: 2003; Fridell: 2004) Community policing is considered a popular contemporary policing approach responding to: the decline in public confidence in police; and growing evidence that police forces could not fight crime by themselves. It can be traced back to the introduction of community constables, known as 'bobbies', by Sir Robert Peel in the newly created Metropolitan London Police District during the early 19th century (Brogden and Nijhar: 2005). Sir Robert Peel rationalised that "the police are the public and the public are the police" (Braiden: 1992 cited in Fridell: 2004). As stated by (Fridell: 2004), then police plays a significant role in community policing and they should not be separated from but rather joined in partnership with the community.

Different countries have different reasons on why they started community policing. For instance, in the United States of America (U.S.A), community policing resulted from an overall failure of the police to fight crime, maintain order and service the people (David: 2000). In Argentina, an arms exchange programme in the province of Mendoza provided an entry point to the development of broader community engagement and commitment to security measures (Bourne and Greene: 2004). In Uganda community policing was initiated in 1989 to contain the political

turmoil and social strife that started in 1986 (http://locatedata.info/community-policing-and-crime-prevention-in-uganda-prospects-and-challenges).

In Tanzania, community policing begun by sungusungu/wasalama traditional defence groups formed by people volunteering to fight cattle rustlers, banditry, murders resulting from cattle rustling, or beliefs in witchcraft in Tabora, Shinyanga, and Mwanza Region in 1981 and later on in Kagera, Mara, and Singida regions in 1982 (http://www.ipppmedia.com/frontend/index.php). In Nigeria, community policing was introduced into selected pilot in 2004 as an effort to address mutual antagonisms that had developed between the public and the police forces. (DFID: 2010) while in Kenya, community policing started in a bid to enhance safety and security (UN-HABITAT: 2005).

The philosophy of police not being separated from but rather joined in partnership with the community is affirmed by a case study of community policing in New Zealand that started in the late 1980's. The New Zealand Police *New Model of Policing: Strategy* promotes working in partnership with the community to solve local problems (Skolnick and Bayley: 1988). Community policing involves problem-solving and community engagement with an emphasis on police-community partnerships to solve the underlying problems of crime, the fear of crime, physical and social disorder, and neighbourhood decay (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux: 1990; Palmiotto: 2000).

Similarly, community policing is "a philosophy of policing that promotes community-based problem solving strategies to address the underlying causes of crime and disorder and fear of crime and provides reassurance. It is a process by which crime control is shared, or co-produced

with the public, and a means of developing communication with the public thus enhancing the quality of life of local communities and building police legitimacy" (Virta: 2006). The primary objective of community policing is positive police-community relationships, which are achieved through community engagement, and by emphasizing collaboration and prevention (Cordner and Perkins: 2005).

However, (Cordner: 1999) argues that community policing is: "...not the answer to all the problems facing modern policing ... It is not anti-law enforcement or anti-crime fighting. It does not seek to turn police work into social work... and there is no iron-clad, precise definition of community policing or a set of specific activities that must always be included". In addition, community policing is not a single concept but could mean: "... a contrast to rapid response and enforcement-oriented policing, so constables are closer to the community ... a process by which crime control is shared with the public ... or a means of developing communication with the public and interest groups" (Fielding: 1995).

Internationally, it is agreed that community policing needs to be a long term strategy with long term outcomes to allow for the development of decision making processes and a police culture that fosters the concept (Skogan and Hartnett: 1998). Skogan and Hartnett further argue practices will vary from place to place to respond to the unique situations faced by communities. From the http://law.jrank.org website, community policing promises that closer alliances between the police and the community will help reduce citizen fear of crime, improve police-community relations, and facilitate more effective responses to community problems. But there are also drawbacks associated with community policing: hostility between the police and residents can hinder productive partnerships; increase in officers' decision making autonomy can lead to

greater opportunities for police corruption; and resistance within the police organization can hamper community policing successful implementation.

According to (Mastrofski *et al.*: 1998), under community policing, the relationship between citizens and the police is supposed to improve. It does appear that increased cooperation between the police and local residents increases satisfaction with police services on both sides, although this is not universal. The success of community policing may prompt area residents for example to comply with certain Government directives because they can see the output of the initiative. For example, in St. Petersburg, Florida, 85 percent of those residents who lived in community-policing areas of the city reported being "very" or "somewhat" satisfied with their neighborhood police services. According to (Saferworld: 2008) the success of a pilot community policing in Kibera, has been the degree to which stakeholders worked together to generate a shared sense of ownership and commitment by the whole community throughout the programme.

However, recent evaluations of community policing suggest that the level of community satisfaction with police services varies according to how it is implemented, and the social characteristics of community members. Even though community policing promises to benefit everyone, specific programs may favor particular community interests groups (Skogan and Lyons: 2006). In poor and high crime neighborhoods, residents may be distrusting the police and rates of community participation may be very low. For example, in Makina village this attribute is present and is associated with police not holding confidential information availed to them about criminals by the residents. The benefits of community policing may be highest in these areas, but the challenges the police face in convincing citizens that they are committed to the

long-term improvement of the local neighborhood, in creating productive partnerships, and in mobilizing citizens to get involved in local organizations are also greatest.

According to (Bayley: 2005), community policing is a strategy for enlisting the public as partners in controlling and preventing crime. It does this in four basic ways: by:- demonstrating that police give priority by responding to the needs of individuals and communities; consulting with the public in developing local law enforcement and crime prevention agendas; mobilizing the community to participate in crime prevention activities; and adopting a proactive problem-solving approach to crime prevention.

According to (Coquilhat: 2008) there are four elements of an ideal community policing that include: - first, philosophical dimension – the ideas and beliefs that underlie community policing; second, strategic dimension-translates philosophies into action; third, tactical dimension-translates philosophy and strategies into concrete programmes, tactics and behaviours; and fourth, organizational dimension- support changes to promote community policing. The ideal element in Makina village is the third concept which propagates for partnerships that should endeavour to: - arrive at the role of both the police and that of the community regarding crime prevention; identify the safety needs of the community through consultation; share both the decision-making and the responsibility of securing the community; apply a problem-solving approach; and educate and build the capacity of both parties to enable a problem-solving approach.

The concept propagates for positive interactions with all parts of the community to counter the general negative nature of policing, enhanced through techniques such as media campaigns, shop

15

front based officers and accessible mini-stations. It promotes working in partnership with the community and agencies to achieve desired outcomes and developing collaborative and targeted responses to community issues among others (Coquilhat: 2008). Kenya Police website 'www.kenyapolice.go.ke/community' affirms that community policing is an approach to policing that rests upon a partnership between the police and 'the community'.

2.2.0   Urban crime

Crime and violence are typically severe in urban areas and are compounded by their rapid growth. Approximately 60 percent of urban dwellers in developing and transitional countries have been victims of crime over a five-year period, with victimization rates reaching 70 per cent in parts of Latin America and the Caribbean and Africa. In Africa, cities such as Lagos, Cape Town, Johannesburg, Durban and Nairobi account for a sizeable proportion of their nation's crime (UN-HABITAT: 2007).

In Tanzania during the year 2007, half the population living in urban centres felt that crime and violence had increased over the past three years, compared to only 28% in rural areas. There was also an increasing proliferation of drugs, alcohol and small arms in urban centres. Theft of personal property and home burglaries were the most common crimes overall. A victimization survey of 2007 conducted in Dar es Salaam, found that the city had very high rates of burglary (43 per cent of households burgled over the last five years), compared to other African cities (GoT: 2007).

According to some study conducted in Kampala, youth unemployment, uncontrolled development of slum areas, urban development inequality, and the breakdown of moral, cultural,

religious and social controls and values, breed urban crime (Alao: 2002; Makara: 2008; Kirunda: 2008; Amal:2009). Similarly, findings from a study conducted in the year 2010 in two Nairobi settlements: Korogocho and Viwandani show that crime and violence are pressing issues in Nairobi's impoverished urban communities. The high levels of deprivation in these communities are a result of low levels of education, lack of employment and other income-generating opportunities and frustration; all of which are strongly correlated with the levels of crime and violence (World Bank: 2010).

A study also conducted in February and March 2009 in Alexandra, Tembisa (Winnie Mandela Section, Phomulong, Extensions 4 and 5), Soweto (Kliptown), and Diepsloot 1 and 2, depicts that crime and violence are serious and pervasive issues in the researched communities. They generate fear; dampen productivity, investment and quality of life and social bonds are further weakened. Poverty, which already limits the available time and resources for collective action, is intensified by the scale of the crime problem. This in turn inhibits effective public oversight and locally generated solutions for change, damaging overall human development prospects (World Bank: 2010).

2.3.0   Crime Prevention Mechanisms

Management of crime has always been an issue of national interest and has now become a major source of concern and fear in our society, particularly in Nairobi because of the high incidence of crime. There is also growing realization that insecurity and crime adversely affect investment and general social life (KIPPRA: 2004). Approaches to crime prevention have developed over time and are reflected in different United Nations resolutions and in practices and policies implemented around the world. The emphasis is not only on how crime can be reduced but also

on how this can be used to maintain and reinforce social cohesion of communities themselves to collectively act and to improve their quality of life (ICPC: 2010).

There are four types of approach to crime prevention. -*(i) Crime prevention through social development-* includes the range of social, educational, health, cultural and environmental measures which can help to reduce the risks of offending and victimization, and reinforce protective factors. *(ii) Locally based crime prevention, or "community prevention"-* includes all those actions that help to "change the conditions in neighborhoods that influence crime, victimization, and the resulting insecurity."; *(iii) Situational crime prevention-* includes a range of approaches which aim to reduce the opportunities for and benefits of offending, as well as increasing the risks of being caught, primarily through the design of the built environment; and *(iv) Reduction of recidivism-* is concerned with the prevention of recidivism through the social reintegration of offenders (ICPC: 2010).

In U.S.A, the underlying premise of community crime prevention is to strengthen communities, not just individual homes, primarily by encouraging neighbors to watch out for each other through Neighborhood Watch, Citizen Patrol, and related programs (Gardner: 2010). There is plenty of evidence that communities that enjoy more neighborliness, social cohesion, social capital, and collective efficacy also experience less fear of crime (Taylor: 2002; Flaming: 2005). Community crime prevention became more effective, though, when linked with community policing.

In South Africa, the National Crime Prevention Strategy of 1996 endorsed the principle of community involvement in crime prevention. The strategy was reviewed in 1997 and led to the

drafting of the white paper on Safety and security which advanced a two-tier approach with effective policing and social crime prevention viewed as necessary partners (Elena and Jeffrey: 2010). Great stress was also laid on the rule of local government in partnership with relevant governmental and non-governmental agencies in drafting and implementing local crime prevention programmes and projects (Palmary: 2001).

In order to reduce crime levels in Durban Metropolitan Area, the Durban City Police provides the following security services amongst others:-mounted horse patrols and use of Closed Circuit Television at the beachfront and in the Central Business District area (http://www.ceroi.net). Conversely, the South African Police Services in Limpopo see traditional leaders as indispensable role players in the fight against crime. They attribute this to influence that traditional leaders have in their communities. Crime prevention through environmental design would for example benefit significantly from the active participation of traditional leaders (Tshehla: 2005).

In Tanzania, the Safer Cities approach has mobilized communities in implementing local crime prevention initiative. This has included the development of the Sungusungu (citizen crime prevention patrols) and the re-vitalization of the establishment of the auxiliary police (GoT: 2007). In Kenya, there has been the 'Safer Nairobi Initiative' started in 2001 aimed at developing a citywide crime prevention strategy for Nairobi (GoK: 2006). In Makina village, the aspect of community policing has been in practice since 2004 in a bid to enhance personal and community security.

In Nigeria, there are the more prominent *Bakasi Boys* of the Igbo, the *Hisha* of the Hausa/Fulani, and the *Odu'a People's Congress* of the Yoruba, among many other indigenous law enforcement and social control organizations. In the southeastern states of Nigeria where the *Bakasi Boys* operate, they are reputed to be so good that they are capable of identifying a criminal despite attempts to conceal his or her identity. The *Bakasi Boys* move from one community to another fishing out suspected criminals (mainly perennial thieves, armed robbers, and murderers), arresting, and quickly judging and punishing the criminals. The punishment is typically death, which is applied swiftly by decapitating and burning the adjudged criminal. The *Bakasi Boys*, the *Hisha*, and the *Odu'a People's Congress* illustrate the large, coordinated, and well organized indigenous organizations for security, crime prevention, and law enforcement in African societies.

According to (UN-HABITAT: 2007) report, the fundamental to the development of crime prevention strategies is the existence of the rule of law, recognition of the human rights of individuals and the use of policies that are inclusive of all sectors and groups in society. The report outlines six United Nations guiding principles of crime prevention that include the principle of: -the rule of law; socio-economic inclusion; community-centered action; partnership; sustainability and accountability; and evidence-based practice.

2.3.1   Community Based Anti-Crime Initiatives

Time and time again; African states have been found weak, non-functioning or even mere territorial frames for hosting its citizens. The formal institutions of African states have failed to gain, or even seek legitimacy and respect of its inhabitants and proven to be incapable of providing its citizens with basic security. As a result, mistrust in these formal institutions and

authorities have made people turn to alternative solutions to cope with their everyday lives and safeguard their basic human security. Yet international donors and others, who aim to contribute to the strengthening of the security context in Africa states, have seldom managed to look beyond the official façade of the state and its formal security institutions in order to gain an in-depth understanding of how informal networks operate. By not acknowledging the informal sphere, one undoubtedly fails to recognize the very actors and mechanisms that African citizens, more often than not, rely on for their basic security (Kantor and Persson: 2009).

2.3.1.1 Informal Networks of Security Provision

In western democracies, the implied assumption is that security and safety are a public good, and it is up to the state to 'deliver' this service. One can claim that in African states, as in many other parts of the non-western world, official state structures and institutions may often be only one of the relevant players within a multi-actor, multifaceted security configuration. In fact, the state and non-state actors may share the distribution of 'public goods' (Baker: 2009). As Baker argues, in this context, the state "has to share authority, legitimacy and capacity with other structures. Hence, any analysis of the security setting must thereby also take the 'informal' reality into account. Baker further argues that this type of informal security provision is a valuable asset for advancing safety and security among the poor especially since poor communities tend to be excluded from formal security provision (Baker: 2008).

In Western Africa, most activities are shaped by informal networks made up by a multitude of actors, inter alia: politicians, military, businessmen, NGOs, national and international organizations, secret societies, religious leaders, warlords, trade unions, etc. Support and

authorization of these informal networks often enable the formal mechanisms to function and operate (Jorgel and Utas: 2007).

2.3.1.2 Vigilantism

One form of non-state policing that is often cast aside, although it plays a significant part in the security context, is vigilantism. While there is no precise scholarly definition or understanding of what vigilantism exactly is, generally it is understood as a form of protection by organizations or movements, which seek to provide security for their local communities. Abrahams' comprehensive definition describes vigilantism as "an organized attempt by a group of 'ordinary citizens' to enforce norms and maintain law and order on behalf of their communities, often by resorting to violence, in the perceived absence of effective official state action through the police and courts." (Abrahams: 2003).

Modern-day empirics suggest that often vigilante outcomes are particularly violent and sometimes lethal (Adinkrah: 2005). Various studies also point to the effectiveness of these groups, and there are well-documented cases where vigilante success led to a dramatic decrease in crime (Buur: 2003). Literature also demonstrates: "The history of vigilantism is filled with cases of mistaken identity, in which the wrong person was made to pay for someone else's misdeeds." (Adinkrah: 2005).

Vigilante-type organizations often emerge when there is the perception of increased criminality or social deviance which threatens social order (Adinkrah: 2005). These groups flourish not only in places where states lack capacity to protect citizens from crime, but also where the state itself is believed to be corrupt or untrustworthy (Heald: 2007). Deep mistrust of the state and formal

security providers, driven by the inability of the police to provide basic security and protect its citizens' human rights, further encourages vigilantism. Daniel Nina, for example, has argued that vigilantism arises from the perception that the state is doing nothing to guarantee the safety of a community. Accordingly, when communities' demands on the state to do something are considered to have been ignored, actions of vigilantism occur. The state is thereby seen as a limited player with regard to crime prevention and when it comes to guaranteeing citizens' security (Nina: 2000). But despite this, as argued by David Pratten, vigilantism can not merely be explained as a popular response to the vacuum left by state collapse, failure or instrumentalized disorder (Pratten: 2008).

Buur and Jensen further argue that vigilantism should be seen as a form of local everyday policing. Even though it should be recognized that vigilante groups, in different ways, challenge the rule of law and the state's monopoly of using legitimate force and often severely infringe on citizen's rights, Buur and Jensen suggest that vigilantism cannot be reduced to either expressions of the mob or to mere antidotes to formal law (Buur and Jensen: 2004). Pratten argues that often vigilante activities are not solely focused on security; vigilantism serves a range of other functions in a community, such as disciplining children, sponsoring unemployed youth, recovering debts, and screening political candidates (Pratten: 2008).

Nonetheless, the existence of vigilante groups leads to a number of negative consequences. The most obvious one is when these groups become more of a threat, rather than the defenders of the community. The unpredictable nature of these groups can become particularly exacerbated when the young men patrol the streets under the influence of alcohol or drugs, or when their vigilante ways become profitable; for example, when they resort to extortion or other gang-like activities.

On the one hand, there is much evidence that 'so-called' suspects' rights are severely violated by these methods and the manner in which they are apprehended (Kantor and Persson: 2009).

2.3.2 Community Policing

Community policing is based on the notion that citizens should be empowered to prevent crime or the problems that lead to crime (Stevens: 2001). Establishing and maintaining mutual trust is therefore the central goal of community policing, as it allows wide law enforcement access to valuable community information leading potentially to the prevention and resolution of crimes. The partnerships formed in support of community crime prevention efforts can also provide a framework for engaging citizens to help police identify possible terrorist threats and infrastructure vulnerabilities. Effective community policing involves not only developing partnerships between law enforcement and citizens, however, but also intergovernmental and interagency collaborations with state and federal agencies. These partnerships are essential for the collection and exchange of intelligence, the identification of threats and vulnerabilities, and the sharing of resources in the event of an attack (Docobo: 2005).

There is need to embrace the concept of community policing and partnership policing as a strategy in the fight against crime. It is envisaged that partnership allows the community to work together with the police by informing them about criminal activities in the community (KIPPRA: 2004). The official website of Administration Police (http://www.administration police.go.ke/cbp) too emphasizes the key role of creating partnerships and even specifies the "6 vital members of any community policing partnership", being: the Kenyan Police; Local Government; community police forums; civil society; business; media; religious bodies; and drug enforcement agencies. Although the website does not state their role or the role of any of

24

these partners in such partnerships, it curiously states that what a "partnership MUST do" is to "share information about training content and delivery, and to co-ordinate its activities".

The website of the Kenya Police (http://www.kenyapolice.go.ke/community) makes clear that community policing is an approach to policing that rests upon a partnership between the police and 'the community'. It states that, among others, such partnerships should endeavour to: - arrive at the role of both the police and that of the community regarding crime prevention; identify the safety needs of the community through consultation; share both the decision-making and the responsibility of securing the community; apply a problem-solving approach; and educate and build the capacity of both parties to enable a problem-solving approach. From this we deduce that for the Kenyan Police; community policing and problem solving policing are a means towards crime prevention.

The website goes on to broadly set out the roles and activities of each of the two parties in the implementation of community policing. Lifting out those roles pertaining to crime prevention would appear as if the role of the Kenyan Police is to help create Community Police Forums (CPFs) and to maintain law and order in the execution of crime prevention strategies identified by the CPFs. The role of the community according to the website is to supplement police patrols through private guards and neighbourhood watch schemes; and to work with the police through CPFs, and to be the eyes and ears of the police by becoming involved in informal community surveillance and by providing the police with criminal intelligence.

Interestingly, the website alludes to the potential pitfalls of community policing: police must be able to listen, communicate, give feedback, be problem solvers and be transparent, accountable

and effective; Communities must be the primary mobilizers of CPFs and crime prevention strategies arrived in such forums. They must be prepared to co-operate with the police (implying trust) and furthermore, must not have unrealistic expectations of the police.

According to (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux: 1990), the community policing core operational principles include: - first, *philosophy and organizational strategy*: people deserve input into the police process, in exchange for their participation and support. It also rests on the belief that solutions to today's community problems demand freeing both people and the police to explore creative, new ways to address neighborhood concerns beyond a narrow focus on individual crime incidents; second, *commitment to community empowerment*: this demand making a subtle but sophisticated shift so that everyone in the department understands the need to focus on solving community problems in creative, and often ways, that can include challenging and enlightening people in the process of policing themselves. Third, *decentralized and personalized policing*: police departments must create and develop a new breed of line officer who acts as a direct link between the police and the people in the community.

Fourth, *immediate and long-term proactive problem solving*: the community policing officer's broad role demands continuous, sustained contact with the law-abiding people in the community so that together they can explore creative new solutions to local concerns, with private citizens serving as supporters and as volunteers. Fifth, *ethics, legality, responsibility, and trust*: the police can serve as a catalyst and challenge people to accept their share of responsibility for the overall quality of life in the community. Citizens will be asked to handle more of their minor concerns themselves, but in exchange, this will free police to work with people on developing immediate as well as long-term solutions for community concerns in ways that encourage mutual

accountability and respect. Sixth, *expanding the police mandate:* community policing adds a vital, proactive element to the traditional reactive role of the police, resulting in full-spectrum policing service.

Seventh, *helping those with special needs:* stresses exploring new ways to protect and enhance the lives of those who are most vulnerable. Eighth, *grass-roots creativity and support:* promotes the judicious use of technology, but it also rests on the belief that nothing surpasses what dedicated human beings, talking and working together, can achieve. Ninth, *internal change*: everyone in the department must be fully integrated, with community policing officers serving as generalist who bridge the gap between the police and the people they serve. They play a crucial role internally by providing information about the awareness of the community and its problems, and by enlisting broad-based community support for the department's overall objectives.

Tenth, *building for the future:* Community policing provides decentralized personalized police service to the community. It recognizes that the police cannot impose order on the community from the outside, but that people must be encouraged to think of the police as a resource that they can use in helping to solve contemporary community concerns. It is not a tactic to be applied and then abandoned, but a new philosophy and organizational strategy that provides the flexibility to meet local needs and priorities as they change over time.

Despite there being some core operational principles on community policing, there are some challenges encountered and more so in the informal settlements. At the global level for example, in Kliptown, South Africa; there is poor relationship between the community and the police, mistrust between the CPF representatives and certain sections of the community, apathy and

corruption on the side of many police members, police members being open to taking bribes from criminal suspects involved in drug dealing and robbery (Newham: 2004). In Gauteng, South Africa; there is lack of co-operation between the community and the police, inadequate police procedures and the process of investigation to the community, ineffective dialogue, non cooperation and collaboration (Rakgoadi: 1995).

Other challenges of community policing in South Africa include:- basic resources, trust, education, incremental resources, lack of full partnership, inadequate personnel which is still largely undertrained and under skilled, the hierarchical organization of personnel inhibits individual innovation and the continuing lack of a coherent and integrated training, deployment, development and succession strategy geared towards enhancing local level service delivery (Pelser: 1999).

In Nigeria, there is widespread corruption, poor quality of personnel, inadequate training, hostile police-public relations, and the country's police force is ill equipped amongst other challenges (Alemika and Chukwuma: 1998). In Tanzania, the national police force is under-resourced (Spuy and Rontsch: 2008) while in Uganda, there is limited community consultation and limited training and training materials (Makara: 2008). In Serbia, the highly centralized management structures hampers the implementation of community based policing on the ground while in Northern Ireland, policing remains a deeply divisive issue and attitudes reinforced over generations have been slow to break down. There has also been sheer public disinterest and despite extensive advertisement, meetings to involve the community take place in empty rooms and instead of public support and involvement, apathy and skepticism characterize community based policing (Groenewald and Peake: 2004).

Despite the numerous challenges on community policing, there are best practices on the same that include:-Edmonton, Detroit and Japan (Bayley, no date). In Edmonton, Canada: the police department analyzed calls for service and came up with what they considered to be the twenty-one major 'hot spots' of crime and disorder, places where there were most requests for police assistance and where most patrol activity seemed to be concentrated. In each of these delineated areas a constable has been assigned to be the primary agent of policing. The police officer is supported by mobile patrols in the traditional way. The officer is responsible for setting up a police office, recruiting volunteers from the community to help the officer, diagnosing the problems of the community, and coming up with action plans to meet the problems that residents of those 'hot spots' consider need attention. The community police officers also patrol regularly on foot. They are given a vehicle, but it is really just for transportation from the police station to wherever they work.

In Detroit, U.S.A: Community policing program begun in 1976 and it involved the creation of ninety-three mini-stations that now very nearly cover Detroit. The ninety-three stations are dedicated to community crime prevention and the officers there do not answer calls for service. Instead, they work with the community to promote crime prevention programs, notably Neighbourhood Watch. The mini-stations rely heavily on volunteers from the community to help in the work of implementing or promoting community crime prevention.

The Japanese community policing system, reformulated after World War II but resting on older traditional elements, is based on 15,500 *koban*, or mini police stations, scattered all over Japan. There are 6,500 of them in cities and towns and 10,000 in rural areas. There is a neighbourhood

police station of this sort within six or seven blocks of every urban resident in Japan. It is still the case that just fewer than 50 per cent of all people requiring police service come to the police in person rather than calling over the telephone. Personnel in these *koban* and *chuzaiso* do several things. They regularly patrol on foot and respond to citizen requests for service. They also make twice yearly visits to every home and business in their area, knocking on doors and asking what problems people have. They use these occasions to promote crime prevention and to offer security inspections.

In Kenya, Ruai community policing model serves as an example. Its achievements include a completed dog kennel with police dogs; Capital Hill police post that has offices and accommodation for 20 police officers; and police canteen that serves as police mess, mingling area for community and police, and venue for CPF meetings and other events. Ruai CPF has brought together diverse citizens' groups, facilitated consensus building on security, assisted in articulating priorities for the community and successfully lobbied for resources from the Local Authority Trust Fund to address issues (Kenya Police: 2003).

2.3.3   Improving the Built Environment
The built environment has an important relationship with violent behavior. Poorly designed buildings or public areas can create situational opportunities for violent crime. They may allow places for perpetrators to hide, or not allow neighbors to observe the area and thus exert a natural control over behavior. Recognizing this, the Crime Prevention through Environmental Design (CPTED) approach focuses on the design of the built environment to allow for natural surveillance. Since CPTED emphasizes the systematic analysis of crime in a particular location,

it directly supports community policing by providing crime prevention strategies tailored to solve specific problems.

CPTED is guided by three principles: (1) natural surveillance, (2) control of natural access points to public spaces, and (3) natural territorial reinforcement (ICPC: 2008). The principles helps to create a robust CBP by identifying potential targets for crime and taking action; deterring potential offenders; disrupting and frustrating crimes as they happen; and preventing further crimes by reducing the risk. As a result, there are behavioural effects and changes leading to the resultant reduction in the incidence and fear of crime, thereby improving the quality of life.

2.4.0   Crime Prevention Policies and Regulations

This section looks into legal and institutional framework and policy documents, with specific emphasis on crime prevention. Specifically, it looks into the Administration of Police Act,1958; Police Act,1988; the Police reforms; Governance, Justice, Law and Order Sector (GJLOS) Reforms; and Kenya Police Service and Administration Police strategic plans amongst others.

2.4.1   The Administration of Police Act, 1958

The Administration of Police Act of 1958 is the primary piece of legislation that legitimates the Administration Police, but Cap 63, 75, 85 and 128 of the Laws of Kenya all have relevance. The Chiefs Act (Cap 128) also stipulates that the Administration Police are also law enforcement agents.

2.4.2 The Police Act, 1988

Section 14 of the Police Act of 1988 sets out the functions of the police as prevention and detection of crime; apprehension of offenders; and enforcement of all laws and regulations with which the Service is charged amongst others.

2.4.3 The Police Reforms

The need for police reforms was recognized by Kenyan Government as far back as the early 1990s when Kenya amended its Constitution to allow a multi-party system. Reform has been piecemeal since then but the five-year for Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (ERSWEC) launched in 2003 included police reform within its priority of strengthening the institutions of governance. In the (ERSWEC: 2003-2007), security priorities include:- decrease the overall police to population ratio from current 1:850 to 1:450; develop and implement a public education programme to build trust between the police service and the public; enhance police effectiveness and service coverage through recruitment and training on modern technology and emphasizing the need to operate within the law; provide the police with modern equipment and technology; and improve housing and terms of conditions of work for the police (CHRI: 2006).

2.4.4 Governance, Justice, Law and Order Sector Reforms

The Governance, Justice, Law and Order Sector (GJLOS) Reform Programme focus is sustainable sector-wide reforms in the priority areas of crime prevention and police reforms among others. GJLOS is expected to contribute towards community policing by having responsive and enforceable policy, law and regulation enforced through a preventative, proactive police service; improved service delivery by aiming for greater police accountability and

response time, supported by world-class Information Technology (IT) led crime reporting and victim processing systems; reduction of corruption-related impunity particularly as concerns reducing corruption and impunity within the police service; improved access to justice especially for the marginalized and vulnerable poor by seeking to improve the police to population ratio, increasing gender- sensitivity and the proportion of women in the service; and development of a more informed and participative citizenry and civil society who can provide wider community support for local level (community) policing initiatives (Republic of Kenya: 2006).

2.4.5 Kenya Police Service Strategic Plan 2008-2012

The Kenya Police Service Strategic Plan 2008-2012 serves to enhance partnership between the community and the police in crime management among others. To counteract the negative police image, the plan emphasis on efforts being made to continuously address complaints from the public against the police. In particular, complaints alleging corruption and abuse of power which not only erode the people's confidence but negate the efforts to create strong community links aimed at fighting crime. The Plan further acknowledges that crime prevention/management will be achieved through sustained community policing and liaison with other security agencies amongst others.

2.4.6 Administration Police Strategic Plan 2009-2013

The Administration Police Strategic Plan 2009-2013 recognizes the need to enhance security and peaceful co-existence, including partnerships with other players within and outside government, and offering a good avenue for the public to engage with members of the Service. The Plan emphasizes amongst other interventions that community policing should be embraced by all. Among the core functions of the Service include Community Policing focusing on partnership

working; community safety; and crime prevention. The Plan also intends to pursue the following specific goals and strategies as outlined in the vision 2030 among others: deepening policy, legal and institutional reforms in the Service; and crime prevention through enhanced community policing. The Plan has further identified a number of reform and image building areas that require close attention and support key among them being the offices of Community Policing Officer and Complaints Officer.

2.4.7   National Task Force on Police Reforms, 2009

National Task Force on Police Reforms, 2009 gave recommendations on three things:-first-institutional, policy and legal reforms; second- police image, accountability and partnership; and third- operational preparedness, tooling and logistical capacity, professionalism and terms and conditions of service. Under institutional, policy and legal reforms, major changes proposed included the establishment of the Police Service Commission; National Policing Council and Provincial Policing Authorities; and the development of the National Policing Policy. The National Policing Council is supposed to determine and promote the sharing of resources such as training facilities at the national level to avoid the overlap of functions and unhealthy competition between the two Services. While the National Policy Council addresses coordination between the two Services at the national level, Provincial Policing Authorities in each Province would fill in the gap at the Provincial level.

In regard to police image, accountability and partnership; significant changes proposed concerned the establishment of the Independent Oversight Authority. By having all powers necessary for the execution of its function under the Constitution and legislation, it is envisaged to protect the oversight from political, executive and police interference. The measures will

enhance public confidence that complaints about the police conduct will in future be investigated in an impartial manner and that transgressors will be called to account. In promoting community policing, the Board Authority shall consist of seven other persons appointed by virtue of their knowledge and at least have fifteen years' experience in the field of community policing amongst others. On the other hand, operational preparedness, tooling and logistical capacity, professionalism and terms and conditions of service part gives a discussion on the operational aspect of the police service and addressed issues that impact directly on police standards and morale.

2.4.8   The Constitution of Kenya, 2010

The aspect of enhancing the national security for the people is currently entrenched in Chapter Fourteen of the Constitution of Kenya, 2010. Section 239 outlines the national security organs to include: - the Kenya Defence Forces, the National Intelligence Service and the National Police Service. Under Section 243, there is established the National Police Service consisting the Kenya Police Service and the Administration Police Service. The objects and functions of the National Police Service as outlined in Section 244 include preventing corruption, promoting and practicing transparency and accountability; and fostering and promoting relationships with the broader society among others. The National Police Service will be headed by the Inspector-General who shall exercise independent command over it while the Police Service Commission shall have disciplinary control over the Kenyan Police Service.

The Independent Policing Oversight Authority Act, 2011 further give effect to the provision of Article 244 that the Police shall strive for professionalism and discipline and shall promote and practice transparency and accountability. The Oversight Authority shall also monitor and

investigate policing operations affecting members of the public amongst other functions. In contrast, the Independent Policing Oversight Authority Act provides for civilian oversight of the work of the Police.

In South Africa, the legal framework, with specific emphasis on crime prevention include the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996. Chapter 11 sets out the country's security services, which include a police service. Under this chapter, section 205 establishes a national police service, stipulates that national legislation must establish the powers and functions of the police service, and sets out the objectives of the service as follows: to prevent, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law.

Section 206(1) stipulates that the member of Cabinet responsible for policing must determine national policing policy after consulting the provincial governments and taking into account the policing needs and priorities of the provinces as determined by the provincial executives. In addition to the national police service, the Constitution makes provision for the establishment of municipal police services, stipulating in section 206(7) National legislation must provide a framework for the establishment, powers, functions and control of municipal police services. In Uganda, Article 212 of the Constitution mandates the police to protect life and property, preserve law and order, prevent and detect crime and cooperate with civilian authority, other security organs and with the population generally (CHRI: 2006).

2.4.9 Institutional set up

Many organizations in Kenya, both in Government and in civil society, are engaged in activities to deter crime and violence. While there is a range of initiatives to address insecurity in several sectors and administrative levels, efforts are scattered and poorly coordinated. Tackling crime and violence are still very much considered the responsibility of the police and the criminal justice system. As a result, structural, social and environmental causes behind the high rates of crime and violence are overlooked, as are the opportunities for addressing them. If levels of crime and insecurity are to be effectively reduced, it will be important to increase institutional capacity on both the control and prevention sides, and foster the necessary coordination mechanisms between them (World Bank: 2010). In this regard, "The Government has engaged higher education institutions to develop modern models of fighting crime and transform the police force into a professional service. The initiative has started at Kenyatta University with the formation of Peace and Security Studies" (Sunday Nation: 2010).

2.4.10 Programmes within Kenyan Sectoral Ministries

The (National Youth Policy: 2006) identifies youth crime and deviant behavior along with problems of drugs and crime overall as important issues. The policy proposes to: create visibility on the issue of drugs and crime through sensitization and awareness campaigns; support social, institutional and physical programs that work towards crime prevention; and promote partnerships with institutions already working on crime prevention and rehabilitation programs among others (World Bank: 2010).

The issues of safety and security have also been integrated into urban development for example, the *Safer Nairobi initiative* within the Nairobi City Council. The initiative has made significant

progress in incorporating crime and violence as part of urban management through victimization surveys, crime audits, building partnerships with residents' associations and the private sector, the introduction of street lighting and rehabilitation of key public spaces (UN-Habitat: 2001).

2.4.11 Kenya Vision 2030

The main objective of this national level policy framework is to improve security in order to lower the costs of doing business and to provide Kenyans with a more secure living and working environment. It aims to achieve this through promoting public-private cooperation and civilian/community involvement for improved safety and security; deepening policy, legal and institutional reform for improved enforcement of law and order; improving the practice of community policing; and adopting Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in crime detection and prevention among others (GoK: 2008).

2.5.0   Theoretical Framework

New theoretical areas like postmodernist theory, cultural theory, rational choice and the greed-grievance debates, all seem to have by-passed community policing, which has received relatively little critical or other attention (Fielding: 2005). Research on feminism and mascylinities also has relatively little to say about Security Sector Reforms, including Community policing. Theory *per se*, has ventured little into specific policing programmes. For instance, whereas post-modern theory put forward that citizens are progressively more disconnected from formal organizations, giving the state less legality (Loader: 1996; Norris: 1999); the realities on the ground is that they want more commitment on security from their governments'. This contradiction might be used to explain why factual data on policing is a bit out of touch with post-modernist claims. In addition, whereas many allegations are leveled about the public being more critical on public institutions

like the police, evidence points to the contrary: people expect more from the institution; hence the institution is vital to people reasoning. As such, policing appears to be a core factor through which the community tries to "moderate anxiety about that distinctly post-modern condition: a prevalent feeling of being insecure" (Erickson and Haggerty: 1997).

Community policing has been found to have an unrelenting appeal regardless of the many constructions of its meaning, each informed by different methodical undertakings by the actor and authors concerned. It is seen to be rather a "chameleon concept" (Fielding: 2005). This might imply that this strategy keeps changing with each emerging security programme as it gets encompassed in an "endless cycle of structural conditioning, followed by social interaction then structural elaboration" (Fielding: 2005). Once policy makers select some security factors as important, these are represented as the preliminary structural conditioning of the community policing programme resulting in a blue-print. As such, a workable meaning of community policing "can only be obtained by contrasting it with whatever it is intended to replace" (Dixon and Rauch: 2004).

Also, community policing could also be theorised through debates informing the social theories voicing both the macro and micro levels in a society. This entails differentiation between construction of institutions and what is actually achieved by these institutions as captured in the "structuration theory" (Gidden: 1976; 1991). Both the micro and macro levels have a middle ground function: the action level which draws on micro interactions and the structural level, which use the macro to capture the organisational and community context of interactions. It is thought that the culture of an organisation supplies understanding of community policing by reference to the patterns established in police-public interactions (Clarke and Eck: 2003). These

interactions provide necessary resources informing the powers in community policing since the distribution of organisational resources has always been a structural matter.

Rated as the best alternative to conventional policing, as it seeks to bring police and the policed closer towards a communal goal, this construction of community policing rests on a romantic past of a community characterised by a shared and unifying value systems. In light of Parsons viewpoint, community policing might as well be a tool of professionalising the police as a functionally differentiated structure of modern societies (Ritzer: 1988); free from bureaucracies associated with conventional policing that has been accused over the years as being reactive rather than proactive on individual crimes. This rudimentary approach to insecurities calls for a "smarter approach" (Clarke and Eck: 2003) and community policing has been thought to be that new strategy.

Most policy makers view criminal acts as incidences which require a lot of technical security investments; neglecting the most underlying causes of political and economic factors which are of impetus to solving the puzzle. We also need to appreciate that police get their mandate as an institution of government (Potts: 1982). To give even a slightest suggestion that people are capable of self-regulation could be seen as a contradiction, in that the priority of any government is acting as a guardian of collective public interests, and security is a public good. Whereas the government has always tried to balance its functions as a public 'servant' and 'coercer', if need be, of its citizens, the police find this balancing act problematic as the two functions pull in opposing directions (Fielding: 2005) and in most cases, receive hostilities from the members of the public. Police have to relentlessly balance between the need to serve the whole society

through enforcing general laws and rules and the need to attend to individuals security needs as per police standing orders.

Several dilemmas arise while implementing community policing. The most important is how police officers get to professionally respond to locals security demands. Further, there is need to articulate the type of information police will require when they do respond to security concerns of an area, and the action to be meted out to a 'community' which is itself deviant to core security values when the police do respond. Therefore, to implement community policing requires re-thinking both the police and the community role in prevention measures of crime as well as re-structuring police command structures and control procedures. This is because; extending police-public co-operation in law and order enforcement and maintenance faces not only organisational challenges, but also occupational, political and environmental ones.

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│ Effective Community Policing Programme                      │
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         ▲                          ▲
┌──────────────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ Shared and unifying      │  │ Patterns established in  │
│ value systems            │  │ police-public interactions│
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┌──────────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────────┐
│ Community            │  │ Police Officers      │  │ Culture of an        │
│                      │  │                      │  │ organization         │
└──────────────────────┘  └──────────────────────┘  └──────────────────────┘
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Community

- Government commitment on security
- More expectations from public institution
- Re-thinking on the role in prevention measures of crime

Police Officers

- Professionalism
- Free bureaucracy
- Pro-activeness on individual crimes
- Enforcement of general laws and rules
- Attending to individuals' security needs as per police standing orders
- Re-thinking on the role in prevention measures of crime
- Re-structuring police command structures and control procedures

Political & Economic factors

Figure 3: Theoretical Framework
Source: Adapted from (Clarke and Eck: 2003; Erickson and Haggerty: 1997;

Fielding: 2005; Ritzer: 1988; Potts: 1982)

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The chapter contains the following sections of study:-research methodology; unit of analysis; sources of data; data collection techniques; population; sampling methods; and sample size.

3.1.0 Research Methodology

The study reviewed literature on community policing with emphasis on comparative literature from other parts of the world and this review is presented in chapter two. Fieldwork was undertaken in Makina village during the month of May, 2011 and lasted for four weeks. Data for this study was through observational techniques which entailed use of Archival Materials, Physical Traces and observing Environmental Behavior as well as survey techniques that essentially consisted of Questionnaires and Interviews. Key Respondents for the Survey carried out were the Administration personnel (D.O.; Chiefs, and influential Makina Residents (Elders, Businessmen, Community Leaders, etc.). Two research assistants were recruited, inducted on data collection and instructed to re-assure the respondents on the confidentiality of their feedback. The study employed simple random sampling and convenience sampling techniques in the case of residents and police officers respectively so as to improve on validity.

The study employed cross-sectional study design which according to (Babbie: 1989), some phenomenon are studied by taking a cross-section of it at one time. The design was best suited in the study as it is useful in obtaining the overall 'picture' as it stands at the time of the study. It involve only one contact with the study population, thus was comparatively cheap to undertake and easy to analyze.

The study population constituted Makina village residents; Administration Police officers from the District Office, Sarang'ombe and Highrise camps and key informants. According to (Mugenda and Mugenda: 2003), it is impractical to select a representative sample from the target; hence a sample was drawn from an 'accessible population' which is more narrowly defined and manageable. This sample was informed by the 2009 Population and Housing Census data for Makina village and it was pre-determined at a minimum of 103 respondents following the adoption of (Fisher et al.:1983) formula.

To conduct the study in Makina village, first, an introductory letter was obtained from University of Nairobi. This letter was presented to the Kibera D.O who then granted permission. The Chairman of Makina Community security committee assisted in contacting the residents about the study prior to the fieldwork. The study employed documentation review, structured interviews, focus group discussions and questionnaires as data collection techniques. Whilst interviews were conducted to the respondent, responses to the questionnaires administered to the police officers were collected from their office after some time.

3.2.0   Unit of Analysis

Unit of analysis is the level of social life on which the research question is focused (Schutt: 1996). The major units of analysis for this study were community policing as a crime prevention management strategy in Makina village. Crime reporting variables included which crime most concerned the respondent, if the respondent would report a crime he or she observed and how long did it take for the police to respond. Community involvement variables covered consultation of the community by the police on matters of security; and the civic programmes organized by the Government or civil society to create awareness on community policing to the community.

Police/citizen interaction variables focused on their relationship with the police; different aspects on how they view the police in regard to community policing; reporting of suspicious person or activity to the police and how long it took to respond; how satisfied they were with how the police handled the problem, and, expectation of community policing since its launch amongst other variables. Variables relating to community policing include whether the respondent expectation on community policing had been met; is community policing an effective way of fighting crime; has the level of crime reduced in Makina village since the introduction of community policing; and what recommendations the residents could make towards enhancement of community policing programme in the village. The demographic variables included educational status and how long the respondents have lived in the village. The variables have been explained in details in chapter four in relation to Makina village.

3.3.0 Sources of Data

Data was obtained from primary and secondary sources. The study adopted structured interviews, Focused Group Discussion and Questionnaires to obtain primary data while published and unpublished literature was reviewed to obtain secondary data.

3.4.0 Data Collection Techniques

The study employed documentation review, structured interviews, focus group discussions and questionnaires as the data collection techniques.

3.4.1 Documentation Review

Various documents that include text books, reports, published and unpublished works, newspapers and websites were reviewed to get the necessary information on the research study.

Some of the challenges encountered included getting some text books on the study topic. To counteract the challenge, published and unpublished works and access of information from websites acted as further reference materials. The method was suitable in the study because one could get comprehensive and historical information; and does not interrupt program or client's routine in program.

3.4.2 Structured Interviews

During the study, interviews were conducted on same questions in the same specified order so that statistical manipulation would be possible. Most of the questions were close-ended so that the respondent could select their answer from a limited set of responses that had been determined. No room was allowed of flexibility for the interviewer or the respondents when choosing the responses that would be pre-coded to make it easy for creation of computer database and the subsequent statistical analysis.

This technique was appropriate in the study area since the respondents targeted may have had trouble reading and answering questions in the English language, hence the researcher and his assistants provided interpretation in situations that the respondents did not understand. In addition, given that structured interview leaves the researcher with no scope to find out the beliefs, feelings or perceptions of the respondent that do not fit into the pre-ordained response options (Burns: 2000), this challenge was overcome by identifying all the possible key people and then held wide consultation to establish all the options of the most significant responses.

Additionally, the detachment and impersonal approach presumed for the interviewer in the structured interview session can eliminate trust and rapport building between the interviewer and

the respondent. This was overcome by first holding general and friendly conversation with the respondent before embarking into interview enumeration. Due care was taken to ensure that the conversation does not materially relate to the subject of the interview to prevent contamination of data. The technique was suitable in the study as it is faster and cheaper compared to a questionnaire mode. It is also possible to get full range and depth of information taking into account that it is flexible.

3.4.3 Focus Group Discussions

During the study, views were collected from the Makina security committee members that comprised of eleven members. The eleven members comprised of both the young and the old. This composition helped to get different perspectives of the study from them. In addition, the Chairman of community policing in Kibera Division was also incorporated in the focused group discussions to augment other members' ideas since he had more experiences on the subject matter. Furthermore, meetings were held in different days in order to get more information, from the members and the researcher assured them that the information garnered was to be used strictly for academic use. The study employed this technique to get quick, reliable common impressions, a range and depth of information in short time on the study topic.

3.4.4 Questionnaires

The researcher administered to police officers questionnaires through hand delivery to D.O, Sarang'ombe and Highrise camps instead of posting to save time and cost. They comprised of close-ended and open ended questions. Preference was given to the use of this technique over other techniques because it was very hard to get all police officers at once in the camps due to the nature of their work. Police officers were allowed to complete the questionnaires

anonymously thus they gave as much information as possible. To overcome the challenge of collecting uncompleted questionnaires, a two week period was given to the police officers and the researcher also assured them that the information gotten was strictly meant for academic work.

3.5.0 Population

Population is the entire group of individuals or items under consideration in any field of inquiry and have a common attribute (Mugenda and Mugenda: 2003). Accordingly, (Mugenda and Mugenda: 2003) states that it is impractical to select a representative sample from the target; thus a sample was drawn from an 'accessible population' which is more narrowly defined and manageable. Despite the high likelihood of losing the generalizability of the results, 'population validity' was used which is a way of establishing that the accessible population is in itself representative of the target population. The sample size was made up of 103 residents, 45 police officers and key informants that included the D.O, Chief and an Assistant Chief.

3.6.0 Sampling Methods

The study employed simple random sampling technique in coming up with the residents' sample. Convenience sampling design was applied in the case of police officers who were stationed at three different camps namely: - D.O, Sarang'ombe and Highrise. Each camp had 50, 12, and 13 police officers respectively. Once data was collected, it was keyed into the computer and errors observed were cleaned. Data collected was then analysed using Ms Excel programme and presented in tables and figures.

3.7.0   Sample size

The study adopted (Fisher et al.:1983) formula in (Mugenda and Mugenda: 1999) to determine the sample size of the residents.

$$n = \frac{Z^2 pq}{d^2}$$

n = desired sample size

z = standard normal deviation at required confidence level

p = proportion of target population to population

q = 1-p

d = statistical significance level

In this study, the standard normal deviation at required confidence level (z) is 1.96

The proportion of target population to the population (p) is 25,242/355,188=0.071

1-p (0.054) =0.946

The statistical significance level adopted (d) is 5%

Hence   n= $1.96^2(0.071)(0.946)/(0.05)^2 =$ **103**

49

CHAPTER FOUR: FIELD STUDY, DATA COLLECTION, ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

The chapter contains field study, data collection, analysis and presentation. The study findings have been discussed under the following sections:- social economic background of the residents and police officers; implementation approaches of community policing; challenges facing implementation of community policing; and, framework addressing inadequacies of community policing in Makina village. The study findings are based on a sample of 103 residents from Makina village and 45 police officers. 45 out of 75 police officers responded to the questionnaires as follows: - D.O camp 30; Sarang'ombe camp 8; and Highrise camp 7. This represented a response rate of 60% which is good (Mugenda and Mugenda: 1999).

4.1.0 Field Study

The area of field study was Makina village in Kibera informal settlements. To conduct study in the village, the researcher first obtained an introductory letter from University of Nairobi. The letter was subsequently presented to the D.O, Kibera who then granted permission to conduct the study. Through the D.O, the Chairman of Makina Community security committee assisted to contact the residents about the study prior to the fieldwork and also assisted in the identification of the study area boundary as shown in figure 4 below.

KIBERA INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS
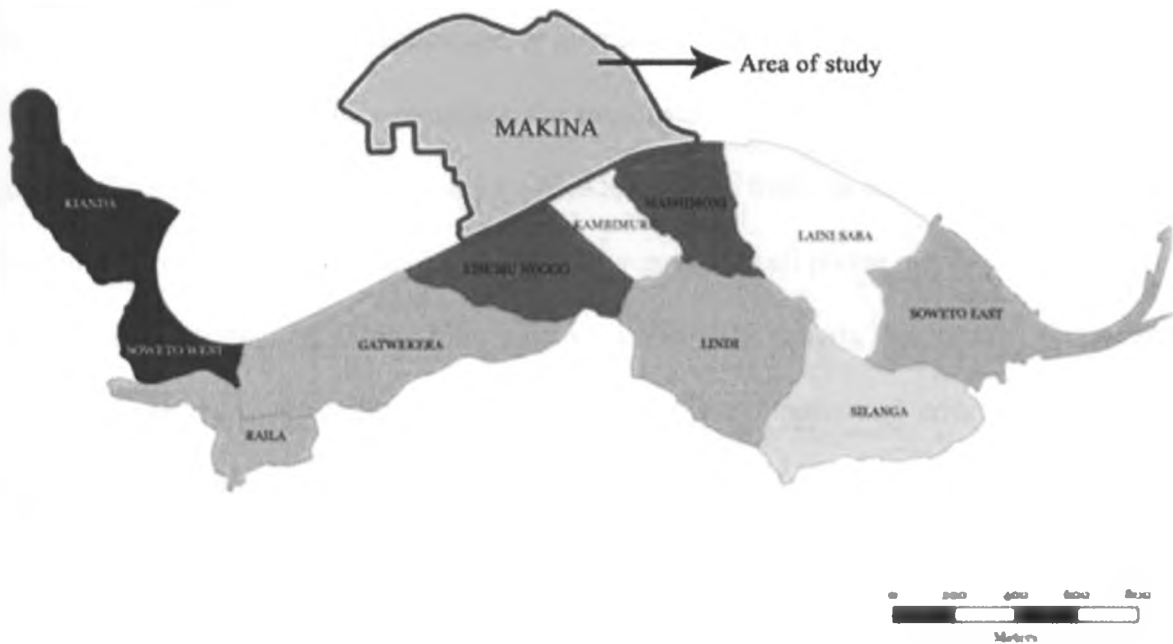
Figure 4: Area of study in Kibera Informal Settlements

Source: Keyobs, IFRA Survey: 2009

Field study was undertaken during the month of May, 2011 and lasted for four weeks. The author hired two research assistants to assist him conduct the interviews to 103 residents. The sample size was pre-determined following the adoption of (Fisher et al.:1983) formula and was guided by the 2009 Population and Housing Census data which indicates that Makina village has about 25,242 people (KNBS: 2010). The study employed simple random sampling and convenience sampling techniques in the case of residents and police officers respectively. For the police officers, there was selection of three police camps namely District Office, Sarang'ombe and Highrise camps which had 50, 12, and 13 police officers respectively. The selection of the officers was informed by the need to have a valid and reliable data as information may vary markedly from source to source.

51

The study employed documentation review, structured interviews, focus group discussions and questionnaires as data collection techniques. Whilst interviews were conducted to the respondent identified through simple random sampling, the responses to the questionnaires administered to the police officers was collected from their office after some time. In case of any queries, from the respondents regarding the research, the researcher gave his cell phone number. Data collected was supplemented further by information gotten from key informants and through focus group discussions. Once data was collected, it was keyed in the computer and errors observed were cleaned. This was followed by report writing which entailed analysis of data in Micro soft Excel programme and presentation of the same in tables and graphs.

4.1.1 Social-Economic Background of the Residents and Police officers

Of the 103 residents interviewed, in terms of educational levels, the data reveal that 4.9% respondents had no formal education, 44.7% and 46.6% had completed their primary education and secondary education level respectively while 3.9% had furthered their education to tertiary level. Factors such as unemployment rate and low levels of educational attainment are the predominant factors in situations of social conflict which exacerbate insecurity (Herrenkohl *et al*: 2000). Indeed, through focused group discussions the study found out that there is a high level of unemployment in the researched communities that was partly attributed to the level of education attained. It is assumed that when there are many educated people, it is easier to understand community policing and therefore have more participation.

On the other hand, the study found out that 8.7 % of the residents had stayed in Makina village for less than 5 years while 14.6% and 76.7% had stayed between 5-10 years and for more than 10

years respectively. Bearing in mind that community policing started in Kibera village in the year 2003, there was a high likelihood that most of the people had come across the concept of community policing thus making them aware hence leading to more collaboration. Table 1 below presents the profile of the residents sampled in terms of highest level of education attained and duration of stay in Makina village.

Table 1: Profile of the residents sample

Highest level of Education attained	Frequency	% of the Total
None	5	4.9
Primary	46	44.7
Secondary	48	46.6
Tertiary	4	3.9
University	-	-
Total	**103**	**100.0**
Duration of stay in Makina village		
Less than 5 years	9	8.7
5-10 years	15	14.6
More than 10 years	79	76.7
Total	**103**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2011

On the profile of the police officers with respect to gender; the male and female respondents comprised of 66.7% and 33.3% respectively. Gender mainstreaming for nation police is an important component of all missions with a major police component. Creating a police service that is representative of the population it seeks to serve in terms of ethnicity, sex, religion, language, tribal affiliation etc increases the credibility, trust and legitimacy of the service in the eyes of the public. A representative police service also increases operational effectiveness, through access to a broad range of skills, experiences, education and culture, which maximizes the ability to deliver local solutions to local problems. Women often bring specific skills and strengths to police work, such as the ability to defuse potentially violent situations and employ

good communication skills to minimize the use of force. In certain contexts, female officers are necessary to perform the cordon and search of women, widen the net of intelligence gathering and assist victims of sexual exploitation and abuse (Singh and Pouliot: 2009).

Table 2: Profile of the Police Officers

Gender	Frequency	% of the total
Male	30	66.7
Female	15	33.3
Police Rank	**Frequency**	**% of the total**
Constable	24	53.3
Corporal	11	24.4
Sergeant	7	15.6
Senior Sergeant	3	6.7

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Conversely, figure 5 below illustrates the frequency and the respective percentage of the total for police officers in regard to duration of service in Makina village community policing program. The findings indicate that 37.8% of the police officers had served in the policing program for a period of less than 5 years; 44.4% of the police officers for a period of between 5 to 10 years while 17.8% of the police officers had served for more than 10 years.

It is important to assign police officers for not less than three years at a time to manageable levels where the public can get to know them by name, require the officers to consult with the community about safety needs and to design practical crime-prevention programs (Bayley: 2005). However, from the respondents' views concerns were raised in regard to staying at a particular station for long. Respondents said that this enhanced entrenchment of some of the vices observed in the police force for example, corruption and collusion with criminals to commit crime. As a result, implementation of community policing is hindered.
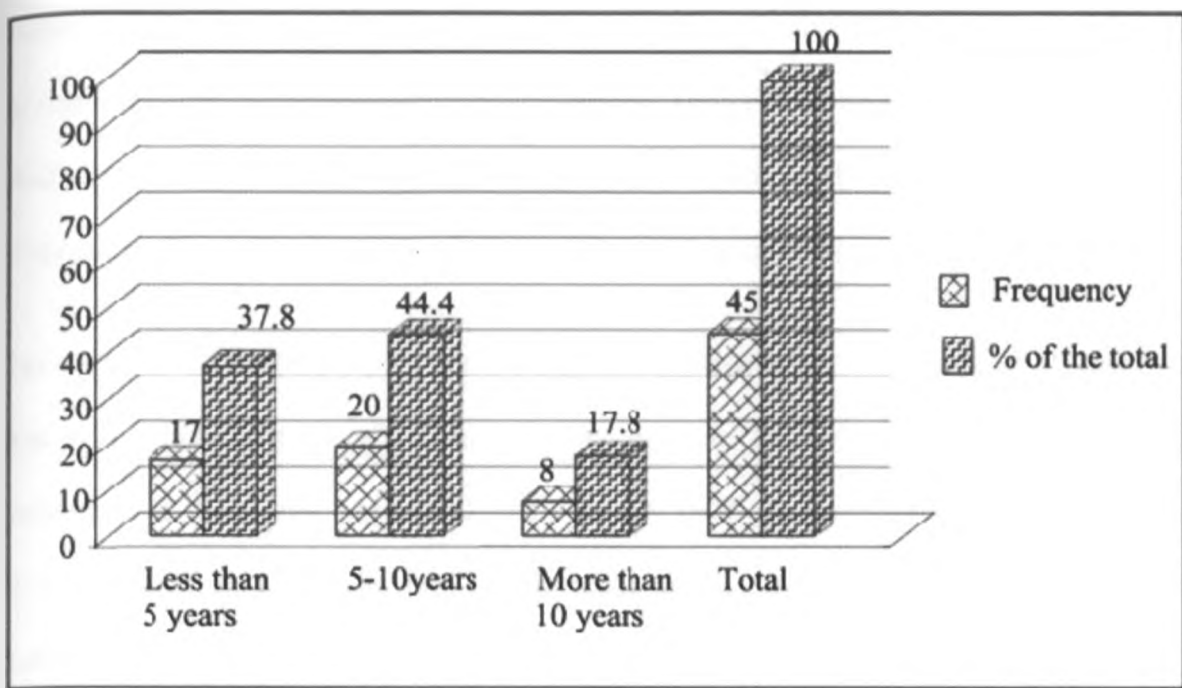
Figure 5: Duration of service in Makina village community policing program
Source: Field Survey, 2011

Further on, Table 3 below illustrates areas that the police officers had been trained on.

Table 3: Training areas by Police Officers

Training areas	Frequency	Total	% of the Total
Customer Service	38	45	84.4
Public relations	35	45	77.8
Human Psychology	18	45	40.0
Social work	30	45	66.7
Project Management	15	45	33.3
Others(first aid, gender based violence and sexual offences)	10	45	22.2

Source: Field Survey, 2011

The study found out that the training areas by the police officers included customer service,

public relations, human psychology, social work, project management, first aid, gender based

violence and sexual offences. According to (www.csvr.org.za) website, there should be training

for all serving police officers on "new" subjects, such as group dynamics, affirmative action,

human rights and other issues which are integral to the effective transformation and functioning of a professional and representative police service. Training should also expand on interpersonal skills and become more community-oriented. This is particularly relevant as a relatively small proportion of the officer's training is dedicated to such issues (Friedman: 1992).

The purpose of community policing training is to provide officers with a level of understanding that will allow them to effectively employ problem solving and community engagement techniques in their daily work (Peak and Glensor: 1999). Without training, police are likely to move directly from identifying problems to acting on them instinctively, shortcutting information gathering and analysis (Skogan et al: 2000). In addition, with limited training it is unlikely that police will realise the full potential of community policing (Buracker and Associates: 2007).

According to (Jones: 1995), three-tiered training will adequately prepare officers for such ethical problems. First, recruits should receive training on police ethics and the agencies' code of ethics. Second, regular roll call or in-service training should provide ethics awareness sessions. Third, police administrators also should eceive extensive classroom training. Police academies should provide more training on the topic of human relations, especially relating to adolescents. Yet, the biggest drawback of these basic training programs is the minimal priority given to instruction of "human values" (Edwards: 1993).

4.1.2 Implementation Approaches of Community Policing

The study found out that implementation approaches of community policing in Makina village include:-community partnership with the police whereby residents reports incidences of crime to the police station, or to some stationed community policing booths; placement of information

boxes at strategic locations to allow for confidential intelligence from the community regarding crime; awareness creation and training on community policing by the Government and Civil societies for example Pamoja Trust among others; and consultation.

Partnerships are essential for the collection and exchange of intelligence, the identification of threats and vulnerabilities, and the sharing of resources in the event of an attack (Docobo: 2005). Furthermore, community partnership recognizes the value of involving the community in the policing process (Kenya Police: 2003). One of the ways community policing might become a permanent part of law enforcement is through the development of effective partnerships with local community groups (Saferworld: 2008).

Police and community should work in partnership not only to solve problems but to reduce the fear of crime, physical and social disorder and neighbourhood decay. These relationships need to be based on trust by challenging people to accept their share of the responsibility, which will in turn enable parties to identify priorities and develop responses to solve their own problems (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux: 1990). One and perhaps most important component of community policing is the reliance on community itself (Friedman: 1992). Equally, police agencies that cooperate inclusively with all local groups to develop the strategic framework needed for implementing a comprehensive community-oriented policing program will be better off (Coleman: 1996).

In Makina village, the sharing of information between communities and police officers has been undertaken through Information boxes called 'Toa Habari kwa Polisi'. Indeed this has allowed individuals to pass information confidentially to police officers to prevent and reduce crime.

pertaining to awareness creation and training, trainers have worked with local theatre groups to stage dramas raising awareness of the Community policing and its potential benefit for the community. Younger members of the community who are both victims and perpetrators of crime in the village have also been reached out through community based forum. In return, the young people are involved in efforts to improve safety for example through theatre.

Makina community is also sensitized on community policing through 'Chief Barazas' while the Government and civil societies also undertakes training on civic education programmes by holding seminars. Through focused group discussions, the study found out that two 'Chief Barazas' takes place in a year to help in disseminating community policing information. Despite the 'Barazas' not being a formal channel of effective CBP and held seldom, they give the community an opportunity to raise specific security and safety concerns with the local government and security agencies and generate joint solutions.

For an ideal community policing, one of the element is information. Systems are crucial in the identification and analysis of problems/issues (Coquilhat: 2008). To become responsive, there is need to:-create a toll-free emergency telephone number, provide convenient, comfortable access for the public to police stations and police posts to encourage requests for assistance, assign competent, well-trained staff to telephone and police station reception duties, and inform members of the public regularly about progress being made about their cases and requests (Bayley: 2005).

Regarding consultation approach, the study found out that 74% of the residents had never been consulted compared to a cumulative total of 26% who had been consulted. There is thus the need

for police officers to increase the consultation levels between them and the residents to improve the implementation of community policing. In the United States and the United Kingdom, community policing was largely popularized from the 1980s, and is based on the platform of co-ordination and consultation between the police and the policed (Boal: 2008).

To foster consultation, there is need to:-assign police officers for not less than three years at a time to manageable levels where the public can get to know them by name, require the officers to consult with the community about safety needs and to design practical crime-prevention programs, create a consultative committee in each level and police station composed of representative members of the public and open to public participation. These committees should meet not less than once every two months, and share timely information about crime in local areas with consultative committees and the media (Bayley: 2005).

Similarly, the Community Policing Handbook recognizes that 'there shall be community policing committee which will oversee the establishment and implementation of the community policing programme activities at the station level. The committee shall consist of a community leader-Chairman; Officer Commanding the Station-Co-Chairman; Police Liaison Officer-Secretary; and not more than 12 community members. In addition, meetings should be held at the office of the Officer Commanding Police Station at least once every month (Office of the President: 2009).

4.1.3 Challenges Facing Implementation of Community Policing

The study found out that 56.4% of the respondents do not understand the core concepts of community policing. The core concepts include policing by consent, not coercion; the police as part of the community not apart from it; the police and community working together to find out

what communities needs are; the police, public and other agencies working together in partnership; and tailoring the business of policing to meet community needs.

On the other hand, 50.4% respondents were in agreement that the Kenya police lack adequate capacity to counter crime in a densely populated area such as Makina. Inadequate capacity is evidenced by the few number of police officers allocated in patrolling the area; and insufficient vehicles to conduct patrols appropriately besides responding promptly to crime scenes and/ or issues. The challenge of inadequate capacity by the police officers to counter crime through community policing is not unique in Kenya but it is also found for example in Nigeria, Tanzania and Liberia. In Nigeria, the country's police force is ill equipped (Alemika and Chukwuma: 1998) while in Tanzania, the national police force is under-resourced (Spuy and Rontsch: 2008). In Liberia, officers do not have batons, gas, or handcuffs, and many use their personal mobile phones to communicate with each other and with police headquarters. Vehicles are scarce, as is fuel (Kantor and Persson: 2009).

The study also established that only 49.5% of the respondents had reported a suspicious activity or persons to the police in the spirit of community policing. This indicates that majority of the respondents (50.5%) had never reported such incidents or persons to the police. They attributed this to failure by the police to: - non swift response; demands for bribes before the issue can be attended to; and 'the fear of the unknown', where the residents fear that the police may leak the information to the suspect(s) thus endangering their lives.

58.3 % of the residents interviewed also raised concerns on the manner in which the police officers conduct investigations on issues raised by them. They said that police officers conduct

their investigations by indiscriminative arrest of the suspects who later resurface in the community with allegation of bribes scandals; disclose sources of information to criminals; harass everyone during their investigations; do not conduct thorough investigations; and, delay in responding to residents' queries. According to police officers, residents are usually afraid to report to them in order to conceal the identity of the suspects because the suspects are usually comprised of their own relatives.

Concerning consultation to residents on security matters by police officers, the study found out mixed responses as shown in Figure 6 below. The study found out that 74% of the residents interviewed reported that police officers had never consulted them on matters touching on their security; 22% of the respondents had been engaged in consultations by police officers rarely while 4% of the respondents reported that they had been consulted frequently.
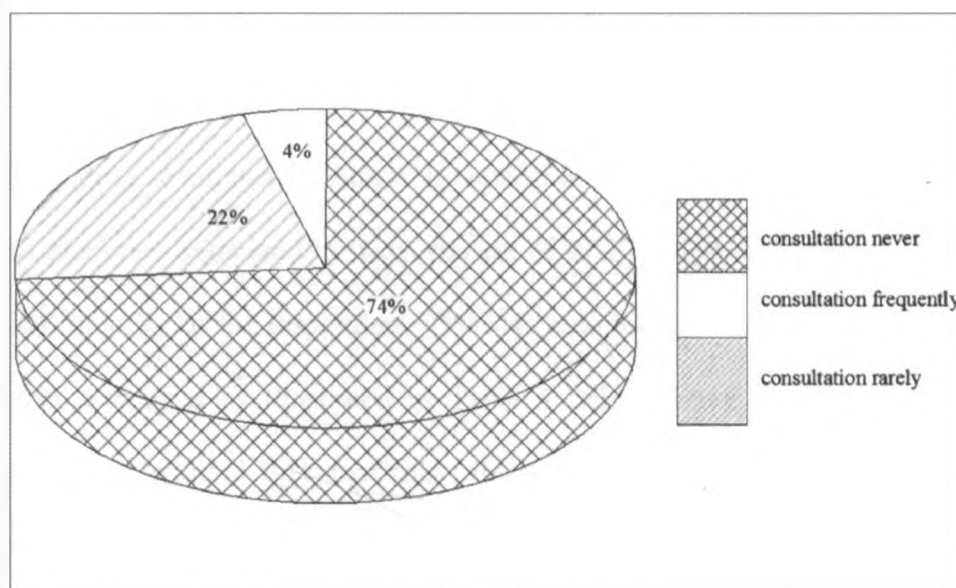

Figure 6: Frequency of consultations to residents on security matters
Source: Field Survey, 2011

Police and the community should work together in partnership and consultation with particular reference to the role police and the public play in resolving issues and problems (Coquilhat: 2008). Consultations have made positive contributions in many communities and because citizens are able to raise their concerns for discussion, public consultations can identify and address local priorities that may not be on the department's agenda (Neyroud: 2001).

Consultations also provide an important avenue for broader public representation particularly of marginalized groups in police work. The police may even choose to hold consultation meetings specifically targeting hard areas to reach groups such as youth, minorities and itinerant populations who are often excluded from traditional town hall meetings (Crawford:2001). Consultations are supposed to take place between an individual and a police officer when need arises; during CBP training sessions and/or police open day. This is meant to help build trust and give individual/communities and police an opportunity to interact. It also encourages sharing of information that is a core objective of community policing (Kenya Police: 2003).

Regarding awareness creation to residents on community policing through civic education programmes organized by Government or civil society in Makina village, the study found out that majority of the respondents (80.6%) reported that no civic education programmes had ever been organized as illustrated in Table 4 below. From forum group discussions, community members admitted that awareness inadequacy is closely associated with failure to equip the residents with the background facts and the principles behind community policing; and laxity by the Department of National Police Service in providing the resources necessary in provision of civic education.

Table 4: Civic Education Programmes on Community Policing

Question	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Are there any civic education programmes organized by Government or civil society to create awareness to residents of Makina village on concepts of community policing	20	19.4	83	80.6

Source: Field Survey, 2011

As in any institution, meaningful public participation requires first that the public be educated about democratic processes, as well as the rationale for reform and citizen involvement in it. The goal is not only to teach people about their rights and duties in a participatory democracy, but also to increase the public's understanding of the new roles and responsibilities of citizens and police in a democratic society. Civic education regarding police reform should be divided into separate events targeting adults and children. Adult civics programs may focus directly on educating citizens about their rights, the community policing philosophy and current police policies (Stromsem: 2003).

Civic education would serve the purpose of enlightening the residents on the nature of security environments they are living in besides how they can manage the prevailing insecurity. To support civic education, *Mwananchi Handbook for Community Policing* is used to sensitize and mobilize communities towards taking an active role in combating insecurity in their neighbourhoods. It is also used as a teaching guide for community members who wish to train others on community policing (Office of the President: 2009).

Conversely, Table 5 below presents findings on expectation of the residents in regard to community policing during its launch in Kibera.

Table 5: Residents Expectation on Community Policing

Expectations on community policing	Frequency	% of the total
Reduce crime incidents	59	63.4
Improved security for lives and properties	18	19.4
Build good, close and healthy relation between the community and the police	16	17.2
Total	93	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

The study found out that 63.4%, 19.4%, and 17.2% of the residents expected launch of community policing to contribute towards: - reduced crime incidents such as muggings, pick pocketing, and robberies; improved security of lives and properties; and build good, close and healthy relation between the police officers and the community correspondingly. The community also expected launch of community policing would help in rebuilding a positive image to police force; enable the police to investigate thoroughly before taking action; avoid killing of innocent persons; and bridge the gap between the community and the police. However as indicated in Figure 7 below, (83%) of the interviewed residents reported that their expectations had not been met; (9%) had their expectations met while (8%) expectations were not applicable.
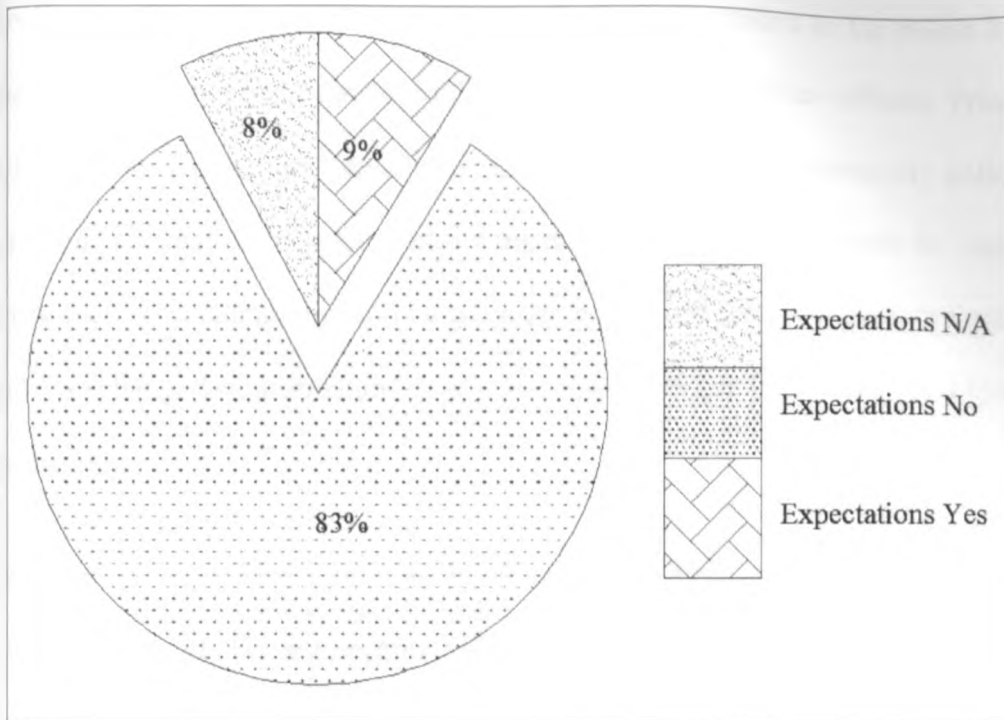
Figure 7: Expectations of the residents regarding community policing
Source: Field Survey, 2011

The interviewed residents attributed amongst other factors their expectations not being met to the following reasons:- unfriendly relationship between the residents and the police (51.5%); inadequate civic education programmes on community policing (80.6%) rare consultation on security matters to residents (22%) by police officers; police officers collude with criminals to commit crime (58.3%); police officers deliver poor services (58.3%); and the Police force (50.4%) has inadequate capacity to counter crime in the area.

The above mentioned issues have effect on implementation of community policing in various ways. For example, the unfriendly relationship between residents and police officers implies that they have not yet realized any benefits from the roll-out of community policing initiative and thus, they would be reluctant to actively participate in policing programmes. The continued

feeling by the residents that it is risky to disclose information to the police implies that there is persistence of mistrust between Makina residents and the police officers. Principle number (viii) of community policing (Republic of Kenya: 2006) outlines community policing as a means of sharing information between security agencies and public that result in 'intelligence' policing. However, poor communication between the police and the residents is an indication that there is poor exchange of information thus it becomes difficult to achieve the objective of the stated principle.

With respect to residents' opinion on effectiveness of community policing, Table 6 below depicts that majority of the respondents (77.9%) were of the opinion that community policing is an effective way of fighting crime in Makina village. The respondents reported that community policing would be effective in fighting crime if both the residents and the police can take it seriously; if the police officers are friendly; if it is implemented professionally; if upright and law abiding citizens are used to pass information for swift action; and if line of justice is fully followed. Although the effectiveness of community policing practices has not been clearly documented, it is widely believed that it can have a positive effect on community attitudes such as fear of crime and neighbourhood satisfaction (Cordner: 1999). However, the community needs to own the practice of community policing for it to be effective (Skogan and Hartnett: 1998).

Table 6: Residents opinion on Effectiveness of Community Policing

Question	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Is community policing an effective way of fighting crime?	74	77.9	20	22.1

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Despite majority of the residents acknowledging that community policing is an effective way of fighting crime, the study found out that 70.9% respondents agreed that since the introduction of

community policing, the level of crime within Makina village had not reduced. They attributed non decline to factors such as police releasing back the criminals to the community due to inadequate evidence to prosecute; residents still feel threatened to report criminal activities to the police; presence of illegal guns in the hands of criminals; and in some instances, criminals are not arrested.

In addition, during focused group discussions, members attributed poor quality of house walling materials mostly made of mud and old iron sheets that are broken easily; garbage dumpsite which act as hiding grounds for criminals, inadequate street lighting; narrow street and presence of many passages acting as lee way for criminals take off (as shown in figures 8, 9, 10 and 11 below respectively) amongst others as factors exacerbating crime in the village.

Figure 8: Poor quality of house walling materials

Figure 9: Garbage dumpsite

Figure 10: High mast flood lighting to complement electric power lines

Figure 11: Narrow Street between houses

Regarding relationship between police officers and the residents, Table 7 below indicate that a cumulative majority of the interview sample (51.5%) rated the nature of relationship between the police and the residents as "unfriendly". The unfriendly nature of the relationship was attributed to the continued existence of fear of the police by the residents; the police are corrupt; harass people instead of helping them; take laxity at work; are non-responsive; and they cannot be trusted by the residents amid other factors. On the other hand, (16.5%) of the interview sample were of the opinion that there exists a friendly relationship between the residents and the police. This was attributed to satisfaction of their services; commitment manifested by the police in their work; and working together between community and the police officers amongst other factors.

Table 7: Residents perspective on their relationship with Police officers

Rating	Frequency	% of the total
Friendly	17	16.5
Fair	31	30.1
Unfriendly	53	51.5
None	2	1.9
Total	**103**	**100**

Source: Field Survey, 2011

The persistence perception is a challenge in that first, a fearful resident will desist from diverging crucial information to the police for fear of intimidation. Secondly, the laxity and non-responsiveness of the police officers to residents needs de-motivate the working together between the residents and the police officers and the later is un-informed on the needs of the former. Thirdly, the fact that the police officers unleash harassment on the residents makes it difficult for the residents and the police officers to establish a healthy partnership with a common vision to fight the existing crimes. It also continues to widen the gap between the residents and the police officers. In contrast, Table 8 below indicates police officers' perspective on the relationship between themselves and the residents.

Table 8: Police officers perspective on their relationship with residents

Rating	Frequency	% of the Total
Friendly	28	62.2
Fair	17	37.8
Unfriendly	0	0.0
Total	**45**	**100**

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Unlike the residents, the above findings indicate that 28 respondents (62.2%) of the police officers agreed that there exists a friendly relationship between them and residents. The police officers attributed this to the fact that residents are able to report crime without fear; and have

become cooperative. The officers were of the view that even though the residents are friendly, there is need for further civic education to ensure that the residents get to understand the importance of sustaining a friendly relationship between them and the police officers.

As a public participation mechanism, the police-community relations unit leaves something to be desired since it is still ultimately the police who are responsible for managing and cultivating the relationship. It nonetheless serves a key public service function in its own right and is an important stepping stone to greater police and public interaction (Stevens: 1998).

Pertaining to the image of the police officers towards community policing by the residents, Table 9 below indicate that 58.3% of the respondents agreed that there is widespread belief that the police officers collude with criminals to commit crime. This indicates that the residents believe that the police officers play a role in propagating crime within Makina village. This is further reinforced by the fact that 36.9% of the respondents agreed that there is a widespread believe that the police officers disguise themselves as criminals to commit crime. The study findings also indicate that 69% of the respondents agreed that the police force is characterized by poor customer services which discourage the residents from reporting crime. Equally, 59.2% of the respondents agreed that in Makina village, crime is a way of living for some people and hence it is difficult to eliminate.

Table 9: Perceived image of the Police force towards community policing by the residents

Issues	Disagree		Agree		Not Sure	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
There is widespread belief that the police officers collude with criminals to commit crime	17	16.5	60	58.3	26	25.2
There is a widespread belief that the police officers disguise as criminals to commit crime	35	34	38	36.9	30	29.1
The police force is characterized by poor customer services which discourage residents from reporting crime	27	26.2	71	69	5	4.9
In Makina village crime is a way of living for some people and hence it would be difficult to eliminate	41	39.8	61	59.2	1	1.0
Residents understands the core concepts of community policing	41	39.8	58	56.4	4	3.9
The Police force has inadequate capacity to counter crime in a densely populated area such as Makina	50	48.6	52	50.4	1	1.0
The residents are always willing to partner with the police in controlling the prevalence of crime in Makina	16	15.5	87	84.5	0	0.0
The residents are always willing to report suspicious persons or activities to the police	16	15.5	87	84.5	0	0.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

With respect to police officers view on community policing in Makina village, Table 10 below indicate that majority of the police officers, 77.8% agreed that the police force is characterized by poor customer services which discourage residents from reporting crime. For instance after a crime is reported, there are delays experienced at the police post in responding to the crime and the police officers do not conduct thorough investigations. In addition, the police officers proceed to harass the residents during their investigation exercises. Further on, 37.8% of the

72

officers agreed that in Makina village area, crime is a way of living for some people hence it would be difficult to eliminate it. The findings reinforce those of Table 9 indicating that the implementation of community policing in Makina village is faced with the challenge of poor image of the police force due to poor customer service, perpetration of crime and the belief by the police officers that crime is a source of livelihood for some residents within the village and therefore it would be difficult to eliminate completely.

Table 10: Police officers' views on community policing in Makina village

Issues	Disagree		Agree		Not Sure	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
There is widespread belief that the police officers collude with criminals to commit crime	41	91.1	2	4.4	2	4.4
There is a widespread belief that the police officers disguise as criminals to commit crime	41	91.1	0	0	4	8.9
The police force is characterized by poor customer services which discourage residents from reporting crime	8	17.8	35	77.8	2	4.4
In Makina village crime is a way of living for some people and hence it would be difficult to eliminate	22	48.9	17	37.8	6	13.3
Residents understands the core concepts of community policing	8	17.7	34	75.5	3	6.7
The Police force has inadequate capacity to counter crime in a densely populated area such as Makina	21	46.6	12	26.7	7	15.6
The residents are always willing to partner with the police in controlling the prevalence of crime in Makina	6	13.3	34	75.6	5	11.1
The residents are always willing to report suspicious persons or activities to the police	15	33.3	29	64.5	1	2.2

Source: Field Survey, 2011

According to the findings from the key informants' interviews, the poor public image of the police force has been brought about by persistence of mistrust between Makina residents and the police due to failure by the police to treat confidential information with the desired level of confidence; misunderstanding of the concept of community policing by the residents; lack of goodwill from the citizens to be major partners in community policing; and frequent intrusion into privacy of the residents by the police officers especially those on patrols within the slum. The key informants further attributed the mistrust between the police and the residents to factors such as political influence; ignorance; mistreatment of residents by the police; and bribery whereby the police officers raid and takes people's property by force and demands bribes in return. Further on, the police officers regard the volunteers of information as the primary suspects, hence volunteer of information choose to avoid the police altogether.

4.1.4   Framework to Address Inadequacies of Community Policing

As a way of addressing inadequacies of community policing, the study found out that majority of the police officers (93.3%), acknowledged that there exists monitoring and evaluation measures undertaken by the Government. The measures include questionnaire based surveys where the questionnaires are administered to the local residents through the police customer service desk; by holding seminars; and through crime trend analysis. Monitoring and evaluation is undertaken twice in a year. According to the police officer views, incidences of crime in Makina village have reduced since introduction of community policing than before.

The implementation framework should emphasize management, context-applicability and planning. The planning process need to recognize the specific characteristics of the context in implementing CBP. Context will shape the timing and length of the engagement, the most

appropriate entry point for example whether work should start on implementation of local pilot project and whether certain aspects of policing need more emphasis e.g corruption.

The implementation framework should be broken down into four phases' which are pre-engagement analysis and assessment; program design and planning; managing the implementation; and evaluation and drawback (Groenewald and Peake: 2004). During the first phase that is 'Pre-engagement analysis and Assessment', there is a thorough contextual analysis and needs and resources assessment. It is aimed to inform nuanced design, planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of the intended engagement. The second phase which is 'Program Design and Planning' entails considering the gender dimensions of policing and issues relating to women's access to safety, security, and justice. This is important as customary law and religious practices often govern certain issues that greatly affect women's lives and status. The third phase which is 'Managing the Implementation' builds on the previous assessments and analysis. It is aimed at formulating program strategies and priorities. Last but not least, the fourth phase that is 'Evaluation and Drawback' is supposed to monitor progress in order to ensure ongoing oversight, and remain clear on end goals.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The chapter seeks to give a summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study. The summary of findings have been demonstrated under: - implementation approaches of community policing; challenges facing implementation of community policing; and a framework to address inadequacies on community policing.

5.1.0   Implementation Approaches of Community Policing

The study found out that in Makina village the implementation approaches of community policing include community partnership whereby residents reports incidences of crime to the police station, or to some stationed community policing booths; placement of information boxes at strategic locations to allow gathering for confidential intelligence on crime from the community; and awareness creation and training on community policing by the Government and Civil societies for example Pamoja Trust among others.

For the success of community policing, there has to be the principle of police-community partnership (Trojanowicz and Bucquerox: 1990; Palmiotto: 2000). Nonetheless, the study found out that the principles of responsiveness and pro-activeness, promotion of integrity and transparency by the police officers need to be re-addressed for successful implementation approaches of community policing. From theoretical framework, with police-community partnership, community policing is viable while the provision of services and the involvement of the community lead towards crime prevention.

5.1.1   Challenges Facing Implementation of Community Policing

The study found out that challenges facing implementation of community policing in Makina village include:-low understanding on the core concepts of community policing by the residents (17.7%); the National Police Service lack adequate capacity in terms of police patrol vehicles; police officers:- do not respond promptly to crime scenes and/or issues, do not conduct thorough investigations, harass people during their investigations, some of them demands bribes from the residents to attend to some issues; there exist mistrust between police officers and residents; there is low level of consultation to residents by police officers on security matters; there is low organization of civic education programmes on community policing by government and civil societies; most of the houses are built of poor quality walling materials; and there is inadequate lighting amongst others.

Similar challenges are also faced in Uganda community policing that include:-danger of misunderstanding the concept; wrong options in design of community policing; management of community policing programme; general training and involvement of the police personnel in community policing-challenge of changing a culture of resistance and sabotage; recruitment and training leading to a challenge on sustainability; deployment of police officers; the role of Government and volunteers in the community policing programme-a case of persistent mistrust; image of the police and nature of relations that exist between the police and public- a case of resistance and suspicion (Kasingye: 2003).

5.1.2 Framework to Address Inadequacies on Community Policing

An implementation framework for community based policing should consist of pre-engagement analysis and assessment; program design and planning; managing the implementation; and, evaluation and drawback (Groenewald and Peake: 2004). From the study findings, questionnaire based surveys and crime trend analysis tends to be some of the features in the assessment phase. It is therefore imperative to come up with a CBP implementation framework in Makina village comprised of the four phases stated above. The pre-engagement and analysis phase will help in giving the background information of the study area. Thus, the different insecurity issues in Makina village will be of importance towards informing the framework besides consultations between the local community, police, government and the civil societies on the security matters. The information collated will contribute towards formulating strategies and priorities. However, once the strategies are formulated and prioritized, there will then be need to ensure ongoing oversight and remain clear on end goals. This will be achieved through strengthening and broadening of all stakeholders in the process.

5.2.0 Conclusions

The study gives conclusions based on the summary of findings on three study objectives and a research assumption. The study objectives include:- to establish the implementation approaches of community policing programme in Makina village; to identify the challenges facing implementation of community policing in Makina village; and to develop a framework that can address inadequacies on community policing in Makina village. The research assumption is improved security is reasonably attributed to functioning of community policing.

With respect to the implementation approaches on community policing in Makina village, the study concludes that success of community policing hinges on the principle of police-community partnership. This is in agreement to (Trojanowicz and Bucquerox: 1990); and (Palmiotto: 2000) statement that, for the success of community policing, there has to be the principle of police-community partnership. KIPPRA (2004) also affirm that partnership allows the community to work together with the police by informing them about criminal activities in the community.

Before introduction of community based policing in Makina village, the traditional system of security provision that used to exist were vigilantism, regular police patrols and neighbourhood watch. Regular police patrol and neighbourhoods watch still exists but with the introduction of CBP, vigilantism has declined. Besides community policing which is a formal state of policing, (Abrahams: 2003) states that vigilantism as one form of non-state policing plays a significant part in the security context. Often vigilante activities are not solely focused on security but serves a range of other functions in a community, such as disciplining children, sponsoring unemployed youth, recovering debts, and screening political candidates (Pratten: 2008).

Unlike before when vigilante groups used to provide security in Makina village, Community Based Policing programme was initiated to reclaim peace and security for its residents by responding to their safety and security concerns. Makina community has adopted community policing approach to prevent crime through shared and unified value systems unlike use of gated communities' strategy that has been used elsewhere such as Muthaiga Estate in Nairobi. From the community perspectives, the strategy has been successive unlike the partnership of Nairobi Central Business District Association with Nairobi City residents in the establishment of police booths within the Central Business District that has failed.

Concerning some stationed community policing booths and placement of information boxes at strategic locations, this has necessitated sharing of information between communities and police officers. Police are now able to reach neighborhoods that were previously classified as 'no-go' areas and this has contributed towards improvement of security.

The long-term prospects for community policing in Makina village have been improved by increased awareness creation and training by the Government and civil societies. Training has been central to this and was made more effective by being led by people within the community and by presenting the information in a lively, easy to understand way. The trainers have worked with local theatre groups to stage dramas raising awareness of community policing and the outcome has been a positive impact on Makina community leading towards crime prevention.

The community policing programme has given Makina community greater confidence to openly discuss the safety and security issues that confronts them in their day-to-day lives. Awareness-raising activities have empowered local communities to demand more support from their local political representatives. The programme has also opened up opportunities for new partnerships to emerge. For example, Adopt-a-Light have put up high mast flood lights to light up the dark alleys frequented by criminals. The street lighting project has reduced the incidences of mugging by lighting 'crime hot-spots' and has reduced fear of crime amongst residents.

In Makina village, the presence of many people (95.1%), having had at least primary formal education is assumed to contribute towards easier understanding of community policing and more participation. As well, it is construed that those residents who have stayed in the village for more than ten years had a higher likelihood of having come across the concept of community

policing. As a result, this has increased awareness on community policing whose outcome implicitly lead to more collaboration. In relation to duration of police officers stay at a particular station, (Bayley: 2005), states that it is important to assign them for not less than three years at a time to manageable levels where the public can get to know them by name, require the officers to consult with the community about safety needs and to design practical crime-prevention programs. Nonetheless, the author differ with his view in that it enhances entrenchment of some of the vices observed in the National Police Service that ends up hindering implementation of community policing.

With reference to gender mainstreaming for nation police force, the study is in agreement with (Singh and Pouliot: 2009) view that gender mainstreaming for nation police is an important component of all missions with a major police component. As found out in Makina village, a representative police service increases operational effectiveness, through access to a broad range of skills, experiences, education and culture, which maximizes the ability to deliver local solutions to local problems. The study also concurs with (Peak and Glensor: 1999) observation that the purpose of community policing training is to provide officers with a level of understanding that will allow them to effectively employ problem solving and community engagement techniques in their daily work. Furthermore, the study agrees with (Skogan et al.: 2000) views that 'without training, police are likely to move directly from identifying problems to acting on them instinctively, shortcutting information gathering and analysis'. This is further affirmed by (Buracker and Associates: 2007) statement that with limited training it is unlikely that police will realise the full potential of community policing.

In regard to challenges facing implementation of community policing in Makina village:- majority of the respondents (56.4%) do not understand the core concepts of community policing, National Police Service in Makina village lack adequate capacity and personnel to counter crime in terms of police patrol vehicles, police officers:- do not respond promptly to crime scenes and /or issues; some of them demands bribe; do not conduct thorough investigations; harass people during their investigations; do not consult residents on security matters; there exists mistrust between police officers and residents; and there is low organization of civic education programmes on community policing by government and civil societies. Moreover, most of the houses are built of poor quality walling materials; there is: -inadequate street lighting, narrow streets and presence of many passages that acts as take off for criminals.

Nonetheless, challenges in Makina village are not unique because other countries face similar challenges. For example, (Kasingye: 2003) states that in Uganda, community policing encounters:- danger of misunderstanding the concept; management of community policing programme; general training and involvement of the police personnel in community policing; recruitment and training; deployment of police officers; persistent mistrust; and resistance and suspicion. Similarly, (Alemika and Chukwuma: 1998) states that in Nigeria, the country's police force is ill equipped while (Spuy and Rontsch: 2008) states that in Tanzania, the national police force is under-resourced.

In relation to framework to address inadequacies on community policing, (Groenewald and Peake: 2004) states that a comprehensive framework on community policing should entail the following four phases:-pre-engagement analysis and assessment; program design and planning; managing the implementation; and evaluation and drawback. However, in Makina village,

questionnaire based surveys and crime trend analysis tends to be some of the features in the assessment phase. Although reporting of crime by Makina community to police station and the administration personnel has lead to decrease in crime in the village and unlike the general country trend, it is imperative to come up with a comprehensive framework.

Pertaining to the research assumption, literature review and study findings affirm that improved security is reasonably attributed to functioning of community policing. From the study findings, Makina residents also affirmed this statement and acknowledged that since the introduction of community based policing programme, crime has reduced in the village.

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