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The role of community policing in crime prevention: Kirinyaga county, Central Kenya

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THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN CRIME PREVENTION:

KIRINYAGA COUNTY, CENTRAL KENYA

MUCHIRA JOSEPH MWANIKI

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTERS OF GOVERNANCE AND ETHICS DEGREE OF MOUNT KENYA UNIVERSITY

OCTOBER, 2016
DECLARATION
This research project report is my original work and has not been presented for an award in any other University.

MUCHIRA JOSEPH MWANIKI

MGE/2014/75779

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DATE………………………………………………………………………………

This thesis report has been submitted for examination with our approval as the university Supervisors.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family and especially my beloved wife, Regina Wanjiru for all their immeasurable support and love during this period of study. Thank you all
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisors Dr. Kennedy Mutundu and Dr. George Maroko both Lecturers of Mount Kenya University who have guided me from the beginning to the end of my thesis research work. I also extend much gratitude to Eric Mark and James for their participation in field data collection and compilation. I wish to thank my family and my fellow students of Mount Kenya University for their continued support, and also my friends for encouraging me to make this thesis a success.
ABSTRACT

Community policing was first initiated in London in 1829 by Metropolitan Police District. The British parliament hoped to address the soaring crime rate in and around the nation’s capital when it was growing. Community policing was also initiated in South Africa in the early 1990’s. It was aimed at democratizing and legitimizing the police. Later there was a shift towards improving service delivery and tackling crime issues. The initiative succeeded in building trust between citizens and the police. Community policing is a Government funded initiative built on the premise that everyone should be working to reduce the fear of crime. According to Kenya Police data across all counties in Kenya who have implemented community policing revealed that there have been a raise in crime levels in Kirinyaga County while in counties like Nakuru where community policing is implemented, the level of crime has fallen. In Kirinyaga County crime levels have been raising for the last three years despite presence of community policing practiced as Nyumba Kumi Initiatives hence my choice for research. This research work is focused on the use of community policing as a method for crime reduction in Kirinyaga County of Central Kenya. This research study was guided by the following objectives: to analyze the effectiveness of joint community-police patrols in prevention of crime in Kirinyaga County, to find out the effectiveness of youth vigilante groups as a means of crime prevention in the county and to analyze the role played by community courts process to reduce crimes in the county. The researcher employed descriptive survey analysis using both qualitative and quantitative approach. A Sample population of two hundred community members picked from ten wards out of twenty wards of the County making fifty percent from the county words were sampled, with joint patrol groups, youth vigilante groups, officers commanding police stations within the county and administrative officers as the respondents. The respondents were selected through cluster sampling comprising of government security agents. The questionnaires were distributed to the relevant respondents, filled in, collected and analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics and presented in form of tables, charts and graphs. The data was analyzed using various statistical soft-wares such as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), and Microsoft Excel. These quantitative data were complimented and triangulated with qualitative data from focus group discussions and key informant interviews. The findings indicate that joint police-community patrols as well as the engagement of vigilante groups and community courts have contributed to crime prevention in Kirinyaga County. Between the three areas of focus, the court process was found to less effective. The people of Kirinyaga County will benefit from the information resulting on from this research. The study may bring out the areas that may need more research, education and attitude change towards community policing and management measures to be put in place to reduce crime in future. The research is significant to the people of Kirinyaga County by contributing to their better understanding of the extent to which community policing can help in crime prevention. It will also serve to inform the government on the effect and best methods of community policing.
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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

U.S.A - United States of America

CAF - Community Accountability Forum

ID – Identification

FGD - Focus Group discussion

OCPD – Officer Commanding Police Division

OCS – Officer Commanding Station
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study
Community, according to the dictionary is a social group of any size whose members reside in a specific locality, share government, and often have a common cultural and historical heritage. Community is also defined as a social, religious, occupational, or other group sharing common characteristics or interests and perceived or perceiving itself as distinct in some respect from the larger society within which it exists.

Policing is gerund or present participle of Policy and can be defined as a course or principle of action adopted or proposed by a government, party, business, or individual. A leading policy and practice publication aimed at connecting law enforcement leaders, police researchers, analysts and policy makers, this peer-reviewed journal will contain critical analysis and commentary on a wide range of topics including current law enforcement policies, police reform, political and legal developments, training and education, patrol and investigative operations, accountability, comparative police practices, and human and civil rights. Therefore, Community Policing is the system of allocating police officers to particular areas so that they become familiar with the local inhabitants.

Crime is an action or omission that constitutes an offense that may be prosecuted by the state and is punishable by law. Prevention is the action of stopping something from happening or arising.

"Prevention is the first imperative of justice" (United Nations document S/2004/616, para. 4). "Crime 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."

Community policing is a philosophy that promotes organizational strategies which support the systematic use of partnerships and problem-solving techniques, to proactively address the
immediate conditions that give rise to public safety issues such as crime, social order and fear of crime. (Kenneth J. 1999). Community policy is aimed at ensuring that community members take the forefront in initiating plans, programs and policies so as to reduce crime. There have been many policies initiated worldwide to curb insecurity.

Community policing was first initiated in London by Metropolitan Police District. The British parliament hoped to address the soaring crime rate in and around the nation’s capital when it was growing. Citizens were to be familiar with each other and this was to enable them to recognize suspicious persons or crime activity. The citizens were also able to communicate with the police in case of any incident. This greatly helped to deter criminals from committing crimes in the immediate vicinity.

Meanwhile, across the Atlantic, America community policing developed along lines almost similar to those of London police. Most U.S.A cities had already established a police department where they adopted paramilitary structures. Officers used to wear distinctive blue uniforms and patrolled the assigned beats. However, unlike in London, the officers carried guns and were under command of politically appointed local captains. (Jerome H. 1976)

Community policing was also initiated in South Africa in the early 1990’s. It was aimed at democratizing and legitimizing the police. Later there was a shift towards improving service delivery and tackling crime issues. The initiative succeeded in building trust between citizens and the police. “The police shall endeavor to protect the people of South Africa from all crime acts and shall do so in a rigorously non-partisan manner, regardless of the political belief and affiliation, race, gender or ethnic origin of the perpetrators or victims of such act. The police shall be guided by the belief that they are accountable to society in rendering their policing services and shall therefore conduct themselves so as to secure and retain the respect and approval of the public. Through such accountability and friendly, effective and prompt service, the police shall endeavor to obtain the operation of the public whose partnership in the task of crime control and prevention is essential”. (Peace Accord of South Africa 1999).
In Tanzania, a national wide, grassroots at village level system known as 'Nyumba Kumi' was adopted. This ensured that the police and Immigration Officers knew precisely who was staying in which hotel, who was renting and living in which house, who owned which property, and who was moving in and out of the villages. No aliens were to rent a house in Tanzania, stay in a hotel or arrive at a village without the Immigration and police knowing about it in 24 hours. They were even supposed to keep records of such people. Community policing has become the new orthodoxy for police officers; it is the only form of policing available for anyone who seeks to improve police operations, management, or relations with the public.” (Eck and Rosenbaum, 1994: 3-4). Community policing is an ideological cult in the making; generating more slogans than substance and creating more followers than leaders. As a “movement,” community policing is a guarded success. Almost everyone who is involved with “modern” policing is expected to be knowledgeable about, proficient with, and committed to the idea and ideal of community policing (Moore, 1992).

The system was to work by appointing trusted and vetted people from the smallest village level. Most elders who were already organized as councils were in charge of monitoring the ten houses, each at a minimum, thus the name Nyumba Kumi. Any stranger especially aliens who arrived at a particular house, home, hotel or a guest house, the local Nyumba Kumi council was to be informed instantly and the news was to be passed on to the Immigration Officers.

Kenya has adopted the Nyumba Kumi initiative from Tanzania among other strategies used in Community policing in Kenya like the Youth Vigilante groups, community court system and joint patrols. This model has been proposed as the solution for criminal behavior and terrorism. The initiative will also encourage Kenyans to interact and share information about each other. They are also expected to monitor security threats and provide information to the local administration and security organs. Using measuring levels of neighborhood this will ensure safety and public satisfaction. Although police are still responsible for vigorous and impartial enforcement of law and life threatening emergencies, community policing is a joint police and
society wide focus. Realizing that police alone cannot solve the problems of crime we have gone a long way towards achieving these goals.” (Rhonda J. 2000)

In Kirinyaga County, the most common crimes according to the Kenya Police records (Kenya Police Report 2012 to 2014) are robbery with violence, shop lifting and rape. The police data indicates that there are at least three robberies per day, two shop lifting and one rape consequently. Kirinyaga was rated second worst crime prone counties in Kenya. It is this high rate of crime that necessitated the need to carry out research in Kirinyaga County. The table below is an extract of the police report year 2014. These crimes are likely to be committed by people leaving within the country and therefore involving the community that could probably help prevent the crimes.

Table 1.1 Crime Index Per 100,000 for the year 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTIES</th>
<th>CRIMES 2014</th>
<th>POPULATION</th>
<th>CRIME INDEX (per 100,000 people)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. TAITA TAVETA</td>
<td>1047</td>
<td>284657</td>
<td>368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. KIRINYAGA</td>
<td>1776</td>
<td>528054</td>
<td>336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. MOMBASA</td>
<td>2946</td>
<td>939370</td>
<td>314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. LAMU</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>101539</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. NAKURU</td>
<td>4525</td>
<td>1603325</td>
<td>282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. NYANDARUA</td>
<td>1654</td>
<td>596268</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. KIAMBU</td>
<td>4449</td>
<td>1623282</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. KERicho</td>
<td>1577</td>
<td>590690</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. MURANGA'</td>
<td>2501</td>
<td>942581</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. ELGEYO MARAKWET</td>
<td>892</td>
<td>369998</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. NYERI</td>
<td>1632</td>
<td>693558</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. KISUMU</td>
<td>2249</td>
<td>968909</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. TANA RIVER</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>240075</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. KAJIADO</td>
<td>1502</td>
<td>687312</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. NAIROBI</td>
<td>6732</td>
<td>3138369</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. KILIFI</td>
<td>2362</td>
<td>1109735</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. UASIN GISHU</td>
<td>1872</td>
<td>894179</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. TRANSNZOIA</td>
<td>1610</td>
<td>818757</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. NAROK</td>
<td>1626</td>
<td>850920</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. LAIKIPIA</td>
<td>752</td>
<td>399227</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. THARAKA</td>
<td>659</td>
<td>365330</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. SIAYA</td>
<td>1452</td>
<td>842304</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
My research on community policing and its effects in crime prevention shall bring out the strength and weaknesses that require attention and action by the county government and the national government.

1.2 Statement of the Problem
The government effort to prevent crime through community policing initiative had raised expectations of the citizens to see its efficiency. The model has already been embraced in some counties like Kisumu, Nakuru and some parts of Nairobi County. In Kirinyaga County, despite establishment of community policing, more than five police stations and more than twenty police posts crime rate has continued to rise for the last three years.

Crime is committed mostly by people within the same community; however, members of the same community may not report criminals to the police for fear of revenge.

The research shall analyze the level of understanding of the community in matters of community crime prevention and the role it can play to prevent crime by working closely with the police during patrols and in giving information to the police to help in crime prevention.

1.3 Objectives

1.3.1 Main Objective
This study sought to analyze the role of community policing in crime prevention Kirinyaga County.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives
i. To analyze the effectiveness of joint community-police patrols in prevention crime rate in Kirinyaga County.

ii. To investigate the effectiveness of youth vigilante as a means of crime prevention in Kirinyaga County

iii. To analyse the role played by community in community court process to reduce crimes in Kirinyaga County
1.4 Research Questions
   i. What are the causes of crime in Kirinyaga County?
   ii. How successful are youth vigilantes in prevention of crimes in Kirinyaga County?
   iii. Have community patrols had any impact in crime prevention in Kirinyaga County?

1.5 Significance of The Study
The study shall benefit the government and the community in crime prevention methods including but not limited to policy formulation, joint patrols, vigilante groups, and community traditional courts. The study will bring out the weaknesses and strength of community policing. This research study shall inform both the police and the community on the level of awareness of community policing, causes of crime rise and how best to engage for crime production.

1.6 Scope of The Study
The study covers the whole of Kirinyaga County. The study highlights on the role of community policing on crime prevention. Crime is a global problem which calls for concerted efforts both at the international and local fronts and the study sought to establish these facts. By examining the current effects of community policing on crime prevention in Kirinyaga County The study opened to any community policing strategy applicable in Kenya. Data was mainly collected by way of interviewing the key respondents and general respondents by use of questionnaires that was administered to the community policing agents.

1.7 Basic Assumptions
The respondents were free to give their responses towards this study. The key assumption of this study was that the crime trends will remain the same and the policy of the government in crime prevention will take a long time to change.
The role of the police as the crime prevention agency in Kenya shall remain in the national government and not the county government and therefore no strategy change in crime prevention management.

1.8 Limitations of The Study

a) Inadequate information from the respondents, lack of knowledge on community policing, mistrust and fear of giving information to a stranger.

b) Some of the respondents may lack knowledge about the community policing initiative and may not understand the need of sharing information on matters touching on crimes.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the literature on community policing and crime prevention as a theoretical framework for the study. A general overview of community-joint patrols, the role of vigilante groups and community courts are covered. The conceptual and theoretical framework are also presented.

2.2 An Overview of Community Policing

The foundations of a successful community policing strategy are the close, mutually beneficial ties between police and community members. Community policing consists of two complementary core components, community partnership and problem solving. To develop community partnership, police must develop positive relationships with the community, must involve the community in the quest for better crime control and prevention, and must pool their resources with those of the community to address the most urgent concerns of community members. Problem solving is the process through which the specific concerns of communities are identified and through which the most appropriate remedies to abate these problems are found.

Community policing does not imply that police are no longer in authority or that the primary duty of preserving law and order is subordinated. However, tapping into the expertise and resources that exist within communities will relieve police of some of their burdens. Local government officials, social agencies, schools, church groups, business people—all those who
work and live in the community and have a stake in its development—will share responsibility for finding workable solutions to problems that detract from the safety and security of the community.

The goal of community policing is to reduce crime and disorder by carefully examining the characteristics of problems in neighborhoods and then applying appropriate problem-solving remedies. The “community” for which a patrol officer is given responsibility should be a small, well-defined geographical area. Beats should be configured in a manner that preserves, as much as possible, the unique geographical and social characteristics of neighborhoods while still allowing efficient service.

Patrol officers are the primary providers of police services and have the most extensive contact with community members. In community policing efforts, they will provide the bulk of the daily policing needs of the community, and they will be assisted by immediate supervisors, other police units, and appropriate government and social agencies. Upper level managers and command staff will be responsible for ensuring that the entire organization backs the efforts of patrol officers.

Effective community policing depends on optimizing positive contact between patrol officers and community members. Patrol cars are only one method of conveying police services. Police departments may supplement automobile patrols with foot, bicycle, scooter, and horseback patrols, as well as adding “mini-stations” to bring police closer to the community. Regular
community meetings and forums will afford police and community members an opportunity to
air concerns and find ways to address them.

Officers working long-term assignments on the same shift and beat will become familiar figures
to community members and will become aware of the day-to-day workings of the community.
This increased police presence is an initial move in establishing trust and serves to reduce fear of
crime among community members, which, in turn, helps create neighborhood security. Fear must
be reduced if community members are to participate actively in policing. People will not act if
they feel that their actions will jeopardize their safety.

Although the delivery of police services is organized by geographic area, a community may
encompass widely diverse cultures, values, and concerns, particularly in urban settings. A
community consists of more than just the local government and the neighborhood residents.
Churches, schools, hospitals, social groups, private and public agencies, and those who work in
the area are also vital members of the community. In addition, those who visit for cultural or
recreational purposes or provide services to the area are also concerned with the safety and
security of the neighborhood. Including these “communities of interest” in efforts to address
problems of crime and disorder can expand the resource base of the community.

Concerns and priorities will vary within and among these communities of interest. Some
communities of interest are long-lasting and were formed around racial, ethnic, occupational
lines, or a common history, church, or school. Others form and reform as new problems is
identified and addressed. Interest groups within communities can be in opposition to one
another—sometimes in violent opposition. Intercommunity disputes have been common in large urban centers, especially in times of changing demographics and population migrations.

These multiple and sometimes conflicting interests require patrol officers to function not only as preservers of law and order, but also as skillful mediators. Demands on police from one community of interest can sometimes clash with the rights of another community of interest. For example, a community group may oppose certain police tactics used to crack down on gang activity, which the group believes may result in discriminatory arrest practices. The police must not only protect the rights of the protesting group, but must also work with all of the community members involved to find a way to preserve neighborhood peace. For this process to be effective, community members must communicate their views and suggestions and back up the negotiating efforts of the police. In this way, the entire community participates in the mediation process and helps preserve order. The police must encourage a spirit of cooperation that balances the collective interests of all citizens with the personal rights of individuals.

The conflicts within communities are as important as the commonalities. Police must recognize the existence of both to build the cooperative bonds needed to maintain order, provide a sense of security, and control crime. Police must build lasting relationships that encompass all elements of the community and center around the fundamental issues of public safety and quality of life. The key to managing this difficult task is trust.

Establishing and maintaining mutual trust is the central goal of the first core component of community policing—community partnership. Police recognize the need for cooperation with
the community. In the fight against serious crime, police have encouraged community members to come forth with relevant information. In addition, police have spoken to neighborhood groups, participated in business and civic events, worked with social agencies, and taken part in educational and recreational programs for school children. Special units have provided a variety of crisis intervention services. So how then do the cooperative efforts of community policing differ from the actions that have taken place previously? The fundamental distinction is that, in community policing, the police become an integral part of the community culture, and the community assists in defining future priorities and in allocating resources. The difference is substantial and encompasses basic goals and commitments.

Community partnership means adopting a policing perspective that exceeds the standard law enforcement emphasis. This broadened outlook recognizes the value of activities that contribute to the orderliness and well-being of a neighborhood. These activities could include: helping accident or crime victims, providing emergency medical services, helping resolve domestic and neighborhood conflicts (e.g., family violence, landlord-tenant disputes, or racial harassment), working with residents and local businesses to improve neighborhood conditions, controlling automobile and pedestrian traffic, providing emergency social services and referrals to those at risk (e.g., adolescent runaways, the homeless, the intoxicated, and the mentally ill), protecting the exercise of constitutional rights (e.g., guaranteeing a person’s right to speak, protecting lawful assemblies from disruption), and providing a model of citizenship (helpfulness, respect for others, honesty, and fairness).
These services help develop trust between the police and the community. This trust will enable the police to gain greater access to valuable information from the community that could lead to the solution and prevention of crimes, will engender support for needed crime-control measures, and will provide an opportunity for officers to establish a working relationship with the community. The entire police organization must be involved in enlisting the cooperation of community members in promoting safety and security.

Building trust will not happen overnight; it will require ongoing effort. But trust must be achieved before police can assess the needs of the community and construct the close ties that will engender community support. To build this trust for an effective community partnership police must treat people with respect and sensitivity. The use of unnecessary force and arrogance, aloofness, or rudeness at any level of the agency will dampen the willingness of community members to ally themselves with the police.

According to Moore (et al. 1988), the effective mobilization of community support requires different approaches in different communities. Establishing trust and obtaining cooperation are often easier in middle-class and affluent communities than in poorer communities, where mistrust of police may have a long history. Building bonds in some neighborhoods may involve supporting basic social institutions (e.g., families, churches, schools) that have been weakened by pervasive crime or disorder. The creation of viable communities is necessary if lasting alliances that nurture cooperative efforts are to be sustained. Under community policing, the police become both catalysts and facilitators in the development of these communities.
Community policing expands police efforts to prevent and control crime. The community is no longer viewed by police as a passive presence or a source of limited information, but as a partner in this effort. Community concerns with crime and disorder thus become the target of efforts by the police and the community working in tandem. The close alliance forged with the community should not be limited to an isolated incident or series of incidents, nor confined to a specific time frame. The partnership between the police and the community must be enduring and balanced. It must break down the old concepts of professional versus civilian, expert versus novice, and authority figure versus subordinate. The police and the community must be collaborators in the quest to encourage and preserve peace and prosperity.

The more conspicuous police presence of the long-term patrol officer in itself may encourage community response. But it is not sufficient. The entire police organization must vigorously enlist the cooperation of community residents in pursuing the goals of deterring crime and preserving order. Police personnel on every level must join in building a broad rapport with community members.

For the patrol officer, police/community partnership entails talking to local business owners to help identify their problems and concerns, visiting residents in their homes to offer advice on security, and helping to organize and support neighborhood watch groups and regular community meetings. For example, the patrol officer will canvass the neighborhood for information about a string of burglaries and then revisit those residents to inform them when the burglar is caught. The chief police executive will explain and discuss controversial police tactics so that community members understand the necessity of these tactics for public and officer
safety. The department management will consult community members about gang suppression tactics, and every level of the department will actively solicit the concerns and suggestions of community groups, residents, leaders, and local government officials. In this police/community partnership, providing critical social services will be acknowledged as being inextricably linked to deterring crime, and problem solving will become a cooperative effort.

In Kenya across all counties there are traditional courts that are not formal by nature but accepted by communities as a tool for disputes resolutions. Community policing can use community courts to address disputes resolution at the village level to avoid small disputes escalating to major disputes leading to uncontrollable crimes. An example is land boundary disputes and the grazing areas disputes among the Masai community in Kenya. In an attempt to establish whether such courts are useful in crime reduction the research is therefore is to evaluate whether those courts have a role in crime reduction.

Problem solving is a broad term that implies more than simply the elimination and prevention of crimes. Problem solving is based on the assumption that crime and disorder can be reduced in small geographic areas by carefully studying the characteristics of problems in the area, and then applying the appropriate resources and on the assumption that “Individuals make choices based on the opportunities presented by the immediate physical and social characteristics of an area. By manipulating these factors, people will be less inclined to act in an offensive manner (Eck and William, 1987; Tonry and Norval, 1983).
The theory behind problem-oriented policing is simple. Underlying conditions create problems. These conditions might include the characteristics of the people involved (offenders, potential victims, and others), the social setting in which these people interact, the physical environments, and the way the public deals with these conditions. According to Eck and Spelman (1987), a problem created by these conditions may generate one or more incidents. These incidents, while stemming from a common source, may appear to be different. For example, social and physical conditions in a deteriorated apartment complex may generate burglaries, acts of vandalism, intimidation of pedestrians by rowdy teenagers, and other incidents. These incidents, some of which come to police attention, are symptoms of the problems. The incidents will continue so long as the problem that creates them persists.

As police recognize the effectiveness of the problem-solving approach, there is a growing awareness that community involvement is essential for its success. Determining the underlying causes of crime depends, to a great extent, on an in-depth knowledge of community. Therefore, community participation in identifying and setting priorities will contribute to effective problem-solving efforts by the community and the police. Cooperative problem solving also reinforces trust, facilitates the exchange of information, and leads to the identification of other areas that could benefit from the mutual attention of the police and the community.

For this process to operate effectively the police need to devote attention to and recognize the validity of community concerns. Neighborhood groups and the police will not always agree on which specific problems deserve attention first. Police may regard robberies as the biggest problem in a particular community, while residents may find derelicts who sleep in doorways,
break bottles on sidewalks, and pick through garbage cans to be the number one problem. Under community policing, the problem with derelicts should also receive early attention from the police with the assistance of other government agencies and community members.

Community policing must also address the problems of significant concern to the community. Community policing in effect allows community members to bring problems of great concern to them to the attention of the police. Once informed of community concerns, the police must work with citizens to address them, while at the same time encouraging citizens to assist in solving the problems of concern to the police.

The nature of community problems will vary widely and will often involve multiple incidents that are related by factors including geography, time, victim or perpetrator group, and environment. Problems can affect a small area of a community, an entire community, or many communities. Community problems might include the following (Goldstein 1990):

i. An unusually high number of burglaries in an apartment complex that are creating great anxiety and fear among residents.

ii. Panhandling that creates fear in a business district.

iii. Prostitutes in local parks or on heavily traveled streets.

iv. Disorderly youth who regularly assemble in the parking lot of a convenience store.

v. An individual who persistently harasses and provokes community members.

In community policing, the problem-solving process is dependent on input from both the police and the community. Problem solving can involve:
i. Eliminating the problem entirely. This type of solution is usually limited to disorder problems. Examples include eliminating traffic congestion by erecting traffic control signs, and destroying or rehabilitating abandoned buildings that can provide an atmosphere conducive to crime.

ii. Reducing the number of the occurrences of the problem. Drug-dealing and the accompanying problems of robbery and gang violence will be decreased if the police and community work together to set up drug counseling and rehabilitation centers. Longer range solutions might include intensifying drug education in schools, churches, and hospitals.

iii. Reducing the degree of injury per incident. For example, police can teach store clerks how to act during a robbery in order to avoid injury or death and can advise women in the community on ways to minimize the chances of being killed or seriously injured if attacked.

iv. Improving problem handling. Police should always make an effort to treat peoplehumanely, (e.g., show sensitivity in dealing with rape victims and seek ways to ease their trauma, or increase effectiveness in handling runaway juveniles, drug addicts, drunk drivers, etc., by working with other agencies more closely).

v. Manipulating environmental factors to discourage criminal behavior. This can include collaborative efforts to add better lighting, remove overgrown weeds and trim shrubbery, and seal off vacant apartment buildings.

There are as many solutions as there are problems. These solutions range from simple, inexpensive measures to complex, long-term answers that will require significant investment of
staff and resources. Problem solving is limited only by the imagination, creativity, perseverance, and enthusiasm of those involved. Community policing allows solutions to be tailor-made to the specific concerns of each community. The best solutions are those that satisfy community members, improve safety, diminish anxiety, lead to increased order, strengthen the ties between the community and the police, and minimize coercive actions. The following example describes such a solution:

A patrol officer faced with chronic nighttime robberies of convenience stores discovered that a major contributing factor was that cash registers could not be seen from the street, either because of their location within the store or because of posters plastered on front windows. The officer did not identify the “root cause” or ultimate cause of crime, but instead identified an underlying condition that, once addressed, held promise of reducing the number of future convenience store robberies.

According to Dietz and Baker (1987), to identify this underlying problem, the patrol officer talked with and solicited suggestions from convenience store owners and employees, other members of the business community, and community residents. The officer’s identification of a contributing cause of the robberies is a high-leverage accomplishment in terms of its likely positive impact on the frequency of future robberies. Evidence of police concern and soliciting input from the community also reinforces cooperative ties.

Patrol officers serve as catalysts for joint police and community problem-solving endeavors. They are involved with the community on a day-to-day basis, understand its unique physical and
social characteristics, are aware of local problems, and when needed can help community members articulate their needs. Many problems within the community can be successfully handled by patrol officers or their immediate supervisors and members of the community, for example, determining that better lighting would decrease the incidence of muggings at a local park.

All levels of the police organization should contribute to problem solving, depending on the scope and seriousness of the problem. For example, crafting a solution to widespread incidents of spousal assault taking place in several communities in an agency’s jurisdiction might involve multiple levels of police management. Patrol officers may have noticed a correlation between spousal assaults and excessive drinking by the perpetrators, especially at illegal after-hours clubs. The officers, their supervisors, and community members might explore ways to close down these clubs with the help of local zoning and city planning boards. Perpetrators with alcohol problems might be required to attend rehabilitation programs run by a city agency. Meanwhile, mid- and senior-level police managers and community leaders might confer with women’s groups and other social agencies about providing temporary housing and counseling for victims and their families. In addition, members of the community might be able to repair an abandoned building to house the victims.

The problem-solving process relies on the expertise and assistance of an array of social and government agencies and community resources. At the senior command level, police managers might combine forces with a civil abatement agency to condemn and board up crack houses. One police officer seeking a system wide approach to the problem of spousal assault formed a team
comprised of units from the police department and representatives from women’s shelters, the YWCA, nearby military bases, the prosecutor’s office, newspapers, hospitals, and social agencies. A tremendous amount of leverage can be attained through the collaboration and partnership of this type of far-ranging alliance.

Community policing puts new emphasis on tackling the underlying causes of crime by addressing problems at the grassroots level. To maximize the time that the patrol officer can spend interacting with community members, community policing encourages the use of the 911 system only for true emergencies. Nonemergency calls should be handled through other means, including delays in responding and report handling by the police station or sheriff’s office over the telephone or by mail.

These alternative measures require a wide base of support within the community. To obtain this support, the police must instruct residents on the nature of an emergency and on alternative responses to non-emergencies. Alternative responses will need to be thoroughly explained before community members will accept them. The residents should be secure in the knowledge that the police response will be appropriate for the urgency of the demand for service, and that the reduction in the volume of 911 calls will allow officers to spend more time in the community and will maximize the use of the residents’ tax dollars.

The third research question is on the role of vigilante groups in community policing. Vigilante group in community policing play a major role and therefore there is need to evaluate and analyze the extent to which the affect community policing performance in its core components of
community policing. According to Braiden (1992), effective community partnership and problem solving will require the mastery of new responsibilities and the adoption of a flexible style of management.

Community policing emphasizes the value of the patrol function and the patrol officer as an individual. Patrol officers have traditionally been accorded low status despite the scope and sensitivity of the tasks they perform. Community policing requires the shifting of initiative, decision making, and responsibility downward within the police organization. The neighborhood officer or deputy sheriff becomes responsible for managing the delivery of services to a community, and everything of a policing nature [in that community] ‘belongs’ to that person.

With this responsibility comes wide-ranging discretionary and decision making power. Under community policing, patrol officers are given broader freedom to decide what should be done and how it should be done in their communities—they assume managerial responsibility for the delivery of police services to their assigned area. Patrol officers are the most familiar with the needs and strengths of their communities and are thus in the best position to forge the close ties with the community that lead to effective solutions to local problems.

The shift in status and duties of the patrol officer is critical to the community partnership and problem-solving components of community policing. Assignment stability of these neighborhood officers is also essential if they are to develop close working relationships within their communities because
According to Oettmeier and Bieck (1987, they are expected to engage in activities other than simply reacting to calls for service. Having officers periodically rotate among the shifts impedes their ability to identify problems. It also discourages creative solutions to impact the problems, because the officers end up rotating away from the problems. Thus, a sense of responsibility to identify and resolve problems is lost. Likewise, management cannot hold the officers accountable to deal with problems if the officers are frequently rotated from one shift to another.

The enhanced role of the patrol officer has enormous organizational and managerial implications. The entire police organization must be structured, managed, and operated in a manner that supports the efforts of the patrol officer and that encourages a cooperative approach to solving problems. Under community policing, command is no longer centralized, and many decisions now come from the bottom up instead of from the top down. Greater decision making power is given to those closest to the situation with the expectation that this change will improve the overall performance of the agency. This transformation in command structure is not only sound management, but is also crucial to the creation of meaningful and productive ties between the police and the community.

According to Sparrow et al. (1990), the police must move to empower two groups: the public itself and the street officers who serve it most closely and regularly. Only when the public has a real voice in setting police priorities will its needs be taken seriously; only when street officers have the operational latitude to take on the problems they encounter with active departmental backing will those needs really be addressed.
Community policing alters the contemporary functions of supervisors and managers. Under community policing, management serves to guide, rather than dominate, the actions of patrol officers and to ensure that officers have the necessary resources to solve the problems in their communities. Creativity and innovation must be fostered if satisfactory solutions to long-standing community problems are to be found. The transition to community policing requires recognizing that the new responsibilities and decision making power of the neighborhood patrol officers must be supported, guided, and encouraged by the entire organization. In addition, it requires establishing clearly stated values that provide both the police organization and the public with a clear sense of policies expanded focus and direction.

Community policing is ultimately about values—specifically, the change in values that is needed to adapt policing to these changing times. Values must be ingrained in the very culture of the organization and must be reflected in its objectives, in its policies, and in the actions of its personnel. According to Wasserman and Moore (1988), values are the beliefs that guide an organization and the behavior of its employees. The most important beliefs are those that set forth the ultimate purposes of the organization. They provide the organization with its raison with trust for outsiders and insiders alike and justify the continuing investment in the organization’s enterprise. They influence substantive and administrative decisions facing the organization, they lend a coherence and predictability to top management’s actions and the responses to the actions of employees. This helps employees make proper decisions and use their discretion with confidence that they are contributing to rather than detracting from organizational performance.
A clear statement of beliefs and goals gives direction to the organization and helps ensure that values are transformed into appropriate actions and behaviors. The entire agency must be committed to the values embodied by such a mission statement. This mission statement should be widely disseminated both inside and outside the police organization to garner public support and to facilitate accountability. In the move to community policing, where problem-solving efforts and accountability are shared by the police, the local government, and the community, explicitly defined values become critically important in assigning responsibility and attracting and mobilizing support and resources.

According to Brown (1989), community policing relies heavily on the articulation of policing values that incorporate citizen involvement in matters that directly affect the safety and quality of neighborhood life. The culture of the police department therefore becomes one that not only recognizes the merits of community involvement but also seeks to organize and manage departmental affairs in ways that are consistent with such beliefs.

An organization’s mission statement should be simple, direct, and unassuming. Values must be unequivocally communicated so that officers understand the influence on their actions:

According to Cordner (et al. 1991), planners need to assess what specific behaviors by organizational members support or undermine the stated values. This analysis requires that the values be defined in operational terms such that an observer can know whether any particular employee action is on target or off target. Planners must also think clearly about how management will know whether the desired changes are taking place; feedback and evaluative steps must be developed.
Community policing relies on the establishment of a clear, unambiguous link of values to behaviors. By creating a system of performance measurement, specific operational meaning can be given to seemingly abstract values. The guiding values central to community policing are trust, cooperation, communication, ingenuity, integrity, initiative, discretion, leadership, responsibility, respect, and a broadened commitment to public safety and security. A succinct mission statement that embodies these values and that is widely communicated to personnel, local government, and members of the community will form the basis of analysis systems that match actions and behaviors to the goals of community policing.

The research objective sought to assess the role of community policing in crime prevention in Kirinyaga County, Central Kenya. This chapter presents the analysis and findings with regard to the objectives and discussion of the same. Respondents were a mixture of the youths and women and men who are mostly affected by different types of crime in Kirinyaga County, Central Kenya. The findings are presented in percentages and tabular data.

2.3 Conceptual Framework
The conceptual framework was developed by speculating on the relationships and interconnectivity between the objectives of the study. In this study the independent variable was the community policing initiatives which include joint patrols, community court systems and nyumba kumi initiatives. The dependent variable is the reduced crime rate whose indicators are adequate community safety, low robbery rates, integration between the community and the government, peace, security and elimination of illegal trade.
2.4 The Need for Community Policing and Implementation Processes

2.4.1 The Need for Community Policing
Community policing is the most popular and the most demanded policing method among law enforcement authorities, and has been implemented by many countries in recent years. Its adoption and implementation was expected to bring a paradigm shift in the management of public security, with the introduction of partnership and teamwork between the security agencies and the community in a problem solving policing. Despite the expected benefits of the strategy in policing and the success in the pilot sites, there are still major obstacles to security reform in Kenya. Crime rates are still high, there is widespread accusation of corruption, and policing
approaches and actors are often politicized. Kirinyaga County in particular, has experienced communal clashes since the advent of multi-party politics in the early 1990s. Crime statistics indicate that the County recorded a total of 475 crime cases in the last twelve months with the prevalent crimes being assault, offences against the person, breakings, rape/attempted rape, general stealing and stock theft. (Source: Kirinyaga County Crime Statistics, 2013. Illicit brews cases were also reported in the county. As such, much of the expected benefits of Community Policing are yet to be realized in the County. When Community Policing was officially launched in Kenya in 2005, it was lauded as the solution to Kenya’s policing problems. Furthermore, community policing was supposed to introduce partnership and problem-solving approaches aimed at improving the relations between the security agencies and the community and to subsequently improve quality of police services, notably reduced crime levels. However, the fruits of the much praised and publicized strategy have not been forthcoming in many parts of Kenya where it was rolled out, Kirinyaga County included. Crime levels are still high. There are wide spread accusations of corruption among security agencies and mistrust between the community and security officers. It also is not known to what extent the Security Agencies in Kirinyaga County have implemented the community policing strategy, whether the strategy is working as expected. Specifically, thus the study established the efficiency of community policing in crime prevention in Kirinyaga County.

The fundamental principles of community policing includes but not limited to, Policing by consent rather than by coercion, the police and the community working together, identifying the security priorities of the community and tailoring policing to meet community needs and priorities.
2.4.2 Implementation Process

According to Sparrow, Malcolm K. 1988, the implementation of a community policing strategy is a complicated and multifaceted process that, in essence, requires planning and managing for change. Community policing cannot be established through a mere modification of existing policy; profound changes must occur on every level and in every area of a police agency—from patrol officer to chief executive and from training to technology. A commitment to community policing must guide every decision and every action of the department.

Implementation plans will vary from agency to agency and from community to community. The most appropriate implementation method will depend, in part, on internal and external conditions facing the agency. For example, a chief executive who comes into an organization that is ripe for change at a time when confidence in the police is low may find that the organization will respond favorably to innovative policies. On the other hand, a chief executive who inherits a smoothly running organization may find it more difficult to implement change.

One factor that will affect the approach to implementation is the extent of change that is required. In some agencies, current operations procedures and management practices may already conform closely to community policing, while in others extensive changes may be necessary. This will affect how a chief guides the organization toward the goals of community policing. A thorough analysis of current programs will help identify what will be required to integrate community partnership and problem-solving strategies and expanded crime control and prevention tactics with preexisting policies. Identifying priorities for change will also permit police agencies to establish interim milestones for monitoring progress.
Another essential element of successful implementation is communication. Communication must be timely, comprehensive, and direct. The chief executive must explain the concepts of community policing thoroughly to the entire police organization, the local political leadership, public and private agencies, and the community at large. All participants must understand their role in community policing efforts. Regular communication will encourage active participation and decrease resistance and opposition. Lines of communication must be maintained both within the police organization and between the police and participants within the community. Successful implementation requires the smooth flow of information. The implementation of a community policing strategy must be a dynamic and flexible process. Ongoing input, evaluation, and feedback from both inside and outside the police organization are essential to making community policing work. All phases of community policing implementation must be carefully planned and properly timed to maximize success; even good ideas can fail if they are poorly executed.

Planning must be responsive to changing needs, conditions, and priorities. A strong research and planning capability that is open to suggestion and criticism will allow refinements and revisions to be made during the implementation process. Such flexibility is crucial to the success of community policing. There are numerous ways in which police management can steer agencies toward community policing. This chapter offers guidelines that can be adapted to the circumstances of different organizations and communities.

The long-term success of community policing in transforming the law enforcement profession depends on the willingness of local governments to pursue effective integration. Elected and
appointed administrators must understand the law enforcement agency’s implementation strategy and participate in its development. Mayors, city managers, legislative representatives, and other government executives must not be passive partners in this process; they must guide the expansion of this movement toward “community-oriented government” at the local level. Just as the police need to determine the best ways to respond to and solve problems of crime and violence, political leaders and service providers need to find ways to direct all available resources at these critical social problems. Law enforcement agencies alone do not have the resources to address all contemporary problems; however, community policing can be a catalyst for mobilizing resources at the national, State, and local levels to impact these problems more successfully.

Collaboration between the police agency and local government officials is essential, since officers and supervisors will routinely seek assistance from local government departments for services from sanitation to health. Regular communication with the heads of government agencies will help secure their assistance and will allow them to prepare their personnel for the additional service requests that will be received. Non-government agencies and institutions constitute another important community asset. The chief or sheriff should enlist the support of these private agencies in community policing efforts. One department invited representatives from these organizations to participate in training sessions on community-oriented policing.

Depending on the nature and scope of the problem addressed, the composition of problem-solving teams could be restricted to police personnel or could include representatives from the community, government agencies, and social agencies. The department must develop close
cooperative links with all community policing partners who contribute to the problem-solving process, and explicit procedures must be established that facilitate the appropriate use of resources.

Every member of the police organization can contribute to the development of a comprehensive list of available government and private resources. This list should include names, addresses, phone numbers, and a description of services. This information should be easily accessible to allow patrol officers, supervisors, and dispatchers to provide references to community members.

According to Couper and Lobitz (1991), there is no “right” way to implement community policing. Each of the following three approaches has strengths and weaknesses.

I. **Plan, then implement.** This method entails developing a detailed long-range plan, with tasks and timelines, and assigning officers to execute the plan. This approach clearly delineates a set of strategies and actions that impart a sense of direction to implementation efforts; however, the initial planning stage for a large agency can take months or even years, and even a very detailed plan will be unable to predict the obstacles that will arise. In the absence of experience-based feedback, some part of the implementation process may be miscalculated.

Planning can also be complicated by the size of the staff involved. Keeping the planning staff relatively small may prevent the process from becoming unwieldy; however, it may not adequately represent all levels of command, function, and experience within the organization, thus creating the risk that the plan will not be well implemented. Planning can also become excessive and may stifle enthusiasm.
II. **Plan and implement.** In this approach, planning and action occur simultaneously. While the planning process continues, the agency begins to implement certain aspects of the program. This method allows the agency to get started quickly, involves more personnel at the outset, and permits future planning to benefit from feedback. However, the agency risks false starts, confusion, and major blunders unless effective, rapid, and regular communication takes place between planners and implementers.

III. **Implement with little planning.** The third option is for an agency with little preparation or knowledge of the nature of community policing to quickly launch into the action phase and then, on the basis of feedback, to retool the effort and begin the cycle again. This process is continuous, with each reevaluation cycle advancing the idea of community policing a bit further within the organization. This approach assumes that a limited knowledge of community policing may prevent agencies from initially planning in a meaningful way. Advocates note that the almost immediate action will catch officers’ attention at all organizational levels and will harness the existing enthusiasm to help mobilize support. However, the constant shifts in goals and actions can be highly unsettling to the organization and the community it serves.

Among the factors to be considered when selecting a method of implementation are the extent of change in current agency operations that will be required, the size of the organization, the staff the agency can assign to implementation efforts, the readiness of the organization for the new approach, and the expectations of the community. The method of planning and implementing simultaneously will probably prove most effective for the majority of agencies implementing community policing.
Initial implementation of community policing can involve the entire agency, or only a special unit or district. Agency-wide commitment will require a re-evaluation of all aspects of operations. Many systems will need to be restructured to facilitate new job responsibilities and to foster productive partnerships with the community. Initiating changes of this magnitude will require patience, perseverance, and total commitment. For these reasons, organization-wide implementation may not be feasible for agencies in which current methods of policing are deeply ingrained. Effective implementation will require time to train personnel, establish bonds with the community, and create appropriate support systems. The amount of time required will depend on the current orientation of the organization, its existing relationship with the community, and the resources available.

Implementation of community policing through a special, well-trained unit often offers early indications of success and focuses the attention of the community and media on the beneficial nature of community policing. However, care must be taken to avoid creating divisions within the agency. If community policing is perceived as merely a special-unit function, its eventual implementation throughout the agency could be significantly impaired. In addition, launching community policing through a special unit can lead to the misconception that the new policing style does not have to be integrated with all other facets of operations.

Implementation within one or more districts or areas can serve to demonstrate success and generate valuable data for expanding community policing agency-wide, but this may also require more time and effort than implementation within a special unit. However, officers in the targeted district can help train others as community policing expands throughout the organization.
Another advantage of district implementation is that it requires the cooperative efforts of all levels of management. The community policing district must not be perceived as a mere adjunct to existing police procedures.

The effectiveness of the implementation of community policing throughout the organization will depend on the manner in which community policing goals are communicated initially. If agency leaders imply that community policing in the special unit or district constitutes a test to determine whether the approach should be expanded agency-wide, competition and divisiveness can result. Managers should state unequivocally that the special unit or district is not a test site, but is the starting point for the agency-wide implementation of community policing.

No matter which approach is selected, feedback is essential. Without adequate feedback, agencies can encounter implementation problems that could have been avoided. Mistakes are bound to occur during implementation of community policing. Recognizing mistakes, handling them in a timely manner, and learning from them should be built into well-planned feedback procedures.

The police executive will be called on to display exemplary leadership in the move to community policing. Change must come from the top down. The behavior of the chief executive will set the tone and pattern for the entire organization. Management must create a new, unified organizational outlook, and strategies must be developed to deal effectively with obstacles to change.
According to Sparrow, Malcolm K. 1988, for the police it is an entirely different way of life. The task facing the police chief is nothing less than to change the fundamental culture of the organization. Throughout the period of change the office of the chief executive is going to be surrounded by turbulence, like it or not. It will require personal leadership of considerable strength and perseverance.

Early mobilization of support for community policing is critical. Internally, the chief or sheriff must develop support at all levels of the organization; externally, the chief executives must gather support from the local government, public and private agencies, the media, and other policing agencies in the region. The cooperation of the local mayor or city manager is imperative to the successful implementation of a community policing strategy, as is the cooperation of local government decision makers and community organizations. A lack of commitment from any of these key groups could result in failure.

A certain amount of opposition to community policing should be anticipated, both inside and outside the agency. Elected officials may be too impatient to await the results of a community policing effort or may prefer to have a newer version of current policing procedures. Some groups within the community may be suspicious of the concept in general.

According to Cordner (1991), resistance within the agency is inevitable as restructuring occurs. During the implementation of any change, employees may feel threatened and seek ways to resist. This will be especially true if community policing is incorrectly perceived as being “soft on crime” and as making social service activities the patrol officers’ primary responsibility.
Those at the highest level of command must be aware of the concerns of mid-level managers, who may be particularly sensitive to the shifts in decision-making responsibility and to the wider discretion accorded patrol officers.

According to Meese (1991), teamwork, flexibility, mutual participation in decision-making, and citizen satisfaction are concepts that initially may threaten the supervisor who is more comfortable with the authoritarian role and routinized operations inherent in traditional policing. Thus, the education of supervisors in new styles of leadership and management must be given a high priority if they are to carry out their responsibility for the success of community policing.

Keeping all personnel well informed, involving them in ongoing planning and implementation, soliciting their input and suggestions, and encouraging feedback in all areas of implementation are essential to obtaining organization-wide support. Management must instill the agency with a new spirit of trust and cooperation that will be carried over into the relationships between the agency and its community policing partners. The early cooperation and influence of management is key to gaining support throughout the ranks.

According to Wycoff and Timothy (1994), chiefs who do not invest in assessing and responding to the honest attitudes of managers, who do not invest in defining the new roles managers are expected to play, and who do not provide their managers with the training they need to effectively fill these new roles are likely to be frustrated in their efforts to implement change. In their frustration with managers, they will be tempted to bypass them and to go straight to the
first-line officers with implementation plans. But without the support of the supervisors and managers, few first-line officers will be willing to risk changing their behaviors.

According to Sparrow, Malcolm K. 1988, agency leaders can also move to counter inter-agency resistance by building a strong external constituency. The chief or sheriff might make a public commitment to community policing and elicit from special interest groups a statement of their concerns. The chief may be able to support the work of commissions and committees that support ideas for change. These efforts would allow the top management to approach the organization backed by a public mandate for community policing.

In anticipation of a move to community policing, a chief might also disband some squads that emphasize traditional methods of policing, redesign evaluation systems to give credit for contributions to the nature and quality of community life, expand training to include community partnership and problem-solving strategies, and establish new communication channels with other public service organizations.

Timing is an important factor in the implementation process. Implementation that moves too slowly may dampen enthusiasm and reduce momentum, while implementation that moves too quickly may create confusion and resentment and may threaten the success of the project through the use of hurried and ill-conceived methods. Community policing requires major changes in operations including: decentralization of activities and facilities, role changes for most personnel, new training, revised schedules, and an altered call-response system. All of these changes require careful consideration and coordination.
According to Wycoff and Timothy (1994), the order of some changes will have an inherent logic; it simply won’t make sense to undertake some before making others. However, the ordering of some of the objectives may be optional. When this is the case, it may make sense to postpone the more difficult until later in the change timetable. Easy “wins” may make the best openers. These would be changes for which it should be possible to build the broadest base of support. Meeting some of the easier goals may help prepare the organization for the more difficult ones. Correct timing is often a matter of making the most of available opportunities.

Police management should be ready to take advantage of any opportunity that could champion the cause of community policing.

According to Sherman et al (1991), those opportunities can be defined as events that throw the spotlight on police policy and provide a ‘case in point’ justification for a reform proposal. Ironically, opportunities often come disguised as crises, and managers must resist the instinctive impulse to think first of damage control. Managers interested in reform will embrace crises and make the most of them.

Community policing necessitates the introduction of fundamental and comprehensive change to the police agency. Organizational efforts must support the evolving responsibilities of patrol officers. For example, information systems should move beyond the efficient processing of criminal offense reports to the delivery of timely and accurate information to officers. Training will govern the pace of change and should affect more than just the new recruits. Performance evaluation should no longer be a mere feedback mechanism, but instead should be a tool to
facilitate the change process. Successful implementation of community policing entails careful examination of the following organizational issues.

Permanent or long-term shifts and beat assignments must be instituted if patrol officers are to form lasting and productive partnerships with the community. Community policing depends on this stability. In addition, community boundaries should be carefully drawn to preserve the integrity of existing neighborhoods and to encourage cooperation within the community. A comprehensive analysis of workloads across shifts and areas is essential to guide the deployment of personnel. This analysis should include data for each community covering the following areas:

a. The frequency and nature of calls for service.

b. The frequency and nature of criminal activity.

c. The expectations for response time.

d. The estimated time needed for community partnership and problem-solving activities.

Some agencies will need to increase the number of officers who are assigned to patrol operations and to readjust existing patrol assignments. Criminal investigation units may need to be surveyed to determine if efforts are being duplicated, which could allow some officers to return to patrol. Civilians could also be hired for support positions not requiring policing skills, in order to reassign police personnel to community patrols.

Consistent supervision is necessary for effective community policing. Supervision will suffer if sergeants or lieutenants have schedules that only partially overlap those of the patrol officers.
Close collaboration between patrol officers and their supervisors is as critical to successful community policing as the partnership between the officer and the community members.

According to Oettmeier and Bieck (1988), the attitude that police officers must be guided and directed at every turn must be discarded. While patrol officers need consistent supervision, Supervisors should function as mentors, motivators, and facilitators. Community policing broad approach to problem solving can enhance communication and interaction between departmental levels. If middle managers are made an integral part of the problem-solving process, they will become another resource for patrol officers, rather than just another level of supervision (Sparrow, 1988). By acting as liaisons, running interference, and suggesting appropriate auxiliary support, supervisors can help patrol officers respond to a wide variety of service demands.

Among the community policing responsibilities for first-line supervisors and mid-level managers are the following:

i. Maintaining beat integrity.

ii. Overseeing the creation of beat profiles.

iii. Working with officers and community residents to create a system for the allocation and utilization of resources.

iv. Working with officers and community members to develop, implement, and manage problem-solving systems.

v. Assessing results and providing feedback on accomplishments and progress made in addressing problems of crime and disorder.
Supervisors should also bring patrol officers into the management process, facilitate group cohesiveness, and assist personnel in reaching their maximum potential.

Mid-level managers should eliminate impediments to the process of problem solving and to the attainment of results. They must learn to manage multi-functional teams and to assume more responsibility for strategic planning, as well as become actively involved in mobilizing the community in crime-prevention activities.

Mid-level managers should conduct regular meetings with their staff to discuss plans, activities, and results. They should evaluate the progress or failure of strategies, programs, or responses based on performance indicators supplied by officers, supervisors, and community members. Managers have a responsibility to enrich the jobs of their personnel by delegating authority, acting as mentors, and overseeing training and education. They also must meet frequently with their superiors to provide updates, seek direction and guidance, and help expand strategies to address crime and disorder within communities.

Training is key to the effective implementation of community policing. Training should communicate and reinforce the changes taking place in organizational values and policies, and should help build consensus, resolve, and unity both inside and outside the police organization.

Community policing skills should be integrated into the training curricula, not treated as a separate component of the training program. Training in community policing should supplement law enforcement techniques with communication and leadership skills that will encourage
participation from the community. All personnel must become skilled in the techniques of problem solving, motivating, and team-building. Training should involve the entire agency and should include civilian personnel who can enlist participation in community meetings, help the police organization sharpen its marketing message, and incorporate sophisticated technology into the organization’s service-oriented operations.

According to Oettmeier and Bieck (1988), initial training efforts should be directed at managers and supervisors, who may feel their authority is being eroded by the modified priorities of the organization. More important, they must be relied on to transmit and translate the new concepts to those they supervise.

According to Eck and William (1987), the training of mid-level managers should emphasize their role in facilitating the problem-solving process by coaching, coordinating, and evaluating the efforts of patrol officers. To prepare mid-level managers for their community policing responsibilities, one agency chief required all personnel with the rank of sergeant and above to attend training sessions that had three goals: to show supervisors how to manage officers’ time so that problems could be addressed without diminishing police capability for handling calls, to describe how problems should be analyzed, and to ensure that all trainees knew what was expected of them and their officers.

Patrol officers must also receive extensive training that encourages and develops both initiative and discretionary ability—a dramatic departure from traditional thinking. They must develop
planning, organization, problem solving, communication, and leadership skills through ongoing, thorough training. Eventually, these officers will be able to assist in the training of others.

Performance evaluation can be a valuable management tool for facilitating change and can help communicate agency priorities to employees. Systems for evaluating personnel performance should reflect the goals of community policing. According to Brann, Joseph E., and Suzanne W. 1992, “Emphasizing quality over quantity represents a major difference between traditional policing and community-oriented policing.” Patrol officers could be evaluated on how well they know their beats—a prerequisite for identification of problems—and how effectively they and their supervisors have adopted problem-solving techniques. Other relevant performance measures include the extent to which personnel have formed partnerships with the community and the nature of their contributions to this team effort. Since officers are working as part of a team, they should not be evaluated as if they were operating alone.

The occasional mistake made by an officer seeking to solve community issues in a proactive manner would be an inappropriate measure of performance. According to Kelling et al (1988), managers cannot have it both ways. They cannot ask officers to be risk-takers and then discipline them when occasional mistakes occur.” The insight, initiative, and creativity shown by personnel should be considered in the performance appraisal; the motivation behind the action also must be considered. Mistakes made in an honest attempt to solve a problem should not be evaluated in the same manner as mistakes made through carelessness, lack of commitment, or deliberate disregard for policing policies.
Retaining the services of personnel who are skilled in community policing depends, in large part, on appropriate rewards for solid performance. Rewards must be consistent with the values and methods associated with community policing. Patrol officers and supervisors should be evaluated and rewarded for exceptional skills in problem solving or community mobilization efforts, rather than on the number of calls handled or parking tickets issued.

Rewards also include the establishment of well-defined and suitable career paths for all personnel. Specific career development opportunities should reward past effort and allow room for growth, especially for patrol officers. The backbone of community policing is the patrol officer and the status, pay, and working conditions of this position should encourage people to spend an entire career in patrol. According to Moore and Stephens (1991), in effect, what is needed is a system that rewards advancement through skill levels in the same job as much or more than it rewards advancement through the ranks.

Management should also consider expanding the criteria for the existing award program and placing more emphasis on community partnership and problem-solving skills. Some departments have invited community members to help select police award recipients. Others have added awards for community members who participate in police efforts. These awards will help to solidify commitments and encourage continued cooperation among community policing participants.

According to Eck, John E., and William S. 1989, the efficient management of service calls is essential for officers to have sufficient time to interact and work with community members to
solve problems of crime and disorder. Most agencies control 911 calls for service by determining which calls demand an immediate response and which can be handled with alternate responses or through a referral to another agency. Nonemergency calls can be handled by delayed officer response, by telephone, by mail, or by having the caller come to the station. Research shows that the public will not insist on an immediate response to a nonemergency service request if the alternative response is both appropriate and performed as described.

According to Sparrow (1993), the problem-solving orientation of community policing requires a greater emphasis on analytic skills and expert systems management to obtain the most valuable information support. Information support will have to be provided for problems that have not been previously studied and for the incorporation of data from outside the department. Analysis must go beyond identifying and forecasting crime patterns; tactical analysis should be supplemented with strategic analysis.

According to Oettmeier and Bieck (1988), strategic analysis seeks to identify factors that contribute to crime and non-crime problems. Strategic analysis is a natural by-product of the problem-oriented approach. Strategic analysts should attempt to identify why problems exist in neighborhoods as well as identify the conditions that contribute to and perpetuate crime. This information will certainly prove useful in the planning and implementation of tactical responses and crime prevention strategies.

Strategic analysis will require that information be collected by a number of unconventional methods, e.g., conducting neighborhood victimization surveys, canvassing rehabilitation centers
and hospitals, interacting with school officials, and assessing the impact of environmental changes on criminal activity.

Technology tends to heighten the isolation of the police from the public; therefore, management must ensure that technological innovations are integrated into community policing activities in a way that fosters meaningful cooperation and aids in the process of problem solving. Modern CAD (computer-aided dispatch) systems can assist in prioritizing police response to service requests. Cellular telephones, pagers, fax machines, and voice mail can also relieve the overburdened 911 systems and provide vital communication links between communities and the police. In addition, geo-coding and mapping technology can prove invaluable to the problem-solving process.

According to Rosenbaum, Dennis P., Eusevio H, and Sylvester D, Jr. 1991, advancements in technology now allow computerized maps of neighborhood activity. [In a test] using personal computers with specially designed software, community groups were able to map data provided by daily police reports. This strategy holds considerable promise for mapping less-serious incivilities (not only the dramatic incidents) that lower the quality of neighborhood life. Research suggests that releasing local crime statistics to the public will not increase the public’s fear of crime so long as the statistics are accompanied by specific, feasible crime prevention recommendations.

All data should be made available through an integrated management information system that can be conveniently accessed by patrol officers, supervisors, command staff, and support
personnel. This might entail the use of laptop computers and other mobile communications equipment. Wide dissemination and information sharing are essential components of community policing. Pertinent and appropriate information should be made available to members of the community whenever possible. For example, statistics showing an increase in burglaries or rapes in a specific section of town should be shared with the community to further the problem-solving process.

Effective community collaboration and interaction will require patrol officers to be more accessible to community members. “Storefront” police offices or “mini-stations” within neighborhoods can be established quite inexpensively, particularly with assistance from the community. The duties of staffing store-front facilities can be shared among officers, civilian employees, and community residents. These sites provide officers and citizens with the opportunity to discuss problems and plan activities. One police jurisdiction operated a storefront station at a shopping mall, while another used a closed-down roadhouse in a rural area to provide residents with easier access to police services. Some deputies in sparsely populated rural areas are allowed to report in by phone, instead of driving many miles to attend roll call, so that contact with community residents can be maximized. In a sense, the deputies’ homes become satellite stations, allowing them greater access to the community.

Astute chief executives will realize that leadership ability can be found at many levels, both inside and outside the police organization. They should enlist the help of people whose ideas, drive, and ability will help spur the progress of community policing. However, police executives must take responsibility for directing implementation efforts and outlining the parameters for
addressing the various facets of community policing. Strong and continued leadership from the top of the organization will reduce confusion and disagreement at lower levels.

Police chiefs will not be able to manage the entire implementation process; therefore, a team or committee, one or more internal coordinators, and outside sources such as consultants should be designated by the chief. Members of an implementation team, task force, or committee will also have other responsibilities; therefore, an internal coordinator may be needed to provide daily support for team efforts. For greater effectiveness, internal coordinators should be recruited from the command level of the organization to avoid communication problems.

Outside consultants can also facilitate implementation because they are frequently able to gain access to all levels of the organization more easily than an internal coordinator. Consultants can bring a wealth of experience to the implementation process, including knowledge about the implementation of community policing strategies and suggestions for gathering relevant information. Occasionally consultants may encounter resistance within agencies that are not accustomed to external assistance. Executives loaned from private sector companies also may be useful to police organizations. The private sector uses such programs to allow one or more employees to work, with pay, for a not-for-profit or community organization for as long as a year at a time. According to Williams, (1991), to ensure a smooth transition to community policing, top management should consider creating a broad-based implementation team. An agency-wide team, which could be divided into a number of committees, should adequately represent all levels of the agency in experience and function.
An even broader team might include representatives from local government, police unions, other agencies, and members of the community whose assistance would be instrumental to the success of a community policing strategy.

According to Wadman et al (1990), officers on the implementation team must be allowed to participate outside the traditional lines of authority. This means that while a chairperson will direct and coordinate each committee’s activities, there should be no rank within committees. The police chief must have frequent contact with all committees. In addition, the efforts of committees should be coordinated by one or more facilitators who share the chief’s thinking and understand the ultimate goals of community policing.

The successful implementation of community policing requires trust by both the police and the public and a commitment to effect change. It is also a complex process that requires action to be taken at multiple levels and the requisite planning to translate the strategy into practice, both within the Kenya Police and among the public. It is critical that communities set realistic and achievable objectives in this venture.

The Kenya Police shall be required to conduct the necessary training in the contents and the modalities of community policing, specifically targeting the middle and lower rank officers, who will be charged with implementing this strategy.

The greatest problem in community policing is transcending the shift in paradigm necessary for transformation from the current status of mistrust and training gaps to one of partnership and cooperation. The common goal and objective is to defeat criminals through police-community trust and commitment.
Joint community-police patrols and vigilante groups are among the measures that are still in use in Kenya and in particular Kirinyaga County.

2.5 Analyzing the Problem of Community Policing

A critical aspect of implementation is the analysis of community policing efforts, both in terms of achieving necessary change within the organization itself and accomplishing external goals (such as, establishing working relationships with the community and reducing levels of crime, fear, and disorder). Ongoing analysis meets a number of fundamental needs.

Every government and public agency, including the police, should be able to give an accurate account of its current activities to policymakers and taxpayers. Thus, ongoing analysis of policy and performance should be a primary function of any policing organization. Analysis becomes even more vital when an organization is undergoing the comprehensive changes that a shift to community policing will entail. Constant analysis of the process of change is needed for managers to determine how to keep the implementation process on track. The most effective strategies also need to be identified so managers can make informed choices about where to allocate limited resources.

Ongoing analysis helps give the organization a clear sense of direction and allows management to focus efforts on the most productive and efficient practices. Therefore, analysis is indispensable in determining which elements of community policing should be maintained, altered, or eliminated, and offers key decision makers in the jurisdiction a way to gauge the impact and cost-effectiveness of community policing efforts.
Analysis will help determine whether necessary changes in the support systems are taking place and whether appropriate efforts are being made to accomplish the stated goals. Analysis also can help communicate agency expectations to employees.

Giving community members a way to measure the success of community policing efforts is critical to maintaining strong ties, ensuring continued participation, and documenting the progress made. Conversely, evaluations of the community policing strategy from government and community leaders will affect how future cooperative efforts are constructed. Thorough analysis helps make police more responsive to the community’s needs, which should strengthen the trust and partnership on which community policing is based.

Developing a sound analysis program should begin with a strategic plan that outlines the goals, methods, objectives, and timetables, and assigns personnel for internal and external changes. These goals and responsibilities will form the basis of performance analysis and will allow police leadership to detect failures and roadblocks, as well as to chart progress and document accomplishments.

2.5.1 Analyzing Internal Changes

Large gaps can exist between policy and actions, therefore, management must take nothing for granted in the implementation of community policing policies and procedures. The chief executive should constantly ask, “How is the implementation going? Is it on track? What problems are occurring? What help is needed?”
In smaller organizations, these questions can be answered through a process called management by walking around in which the chief visits key managers and implementation groups to get on-the-spot reports on implementation efforts. The chief should also consult patrol officers to obtain their views on the implementation process. In every organization, the chief executive should hold regular meetings with the personnel responsible for overseeing community policing implementation and should ask for reports on efforts with the goal of both reinforcing accountability and allowing for immediate discussion of problems. Regular reports on progress and problems relating to specific community policing objectives and timetables should be supplied by members of the implementation team.

Analysis of the more intangible internal changes, for example, the decentralization of management, can be complex. The chief executive and the head of the implementation team could meet regularly with groups of managers and supervisors to discuss changes in decision making authority. Periodic personnel surveys can also help determine what modifications have occurred in management style, which obstacles stand in the way of change, and how agency leadership can facilitate the necessary adjustments in the roles of managers, supervisors, and patrol officers.

2.5.2 Three Criteria for Analysis

Evaluating the impact of community policing is critical for many reasons. Key decision makers must be able to judge the strategy’s impact and cost- effectiveness, and the police organization must be able to measure the success or failure of its policies and activities. As with
implementation methods, analysis measures will vary depending on the size of the organization and the nature of its current policies. Ongoing monitoring will expedite the implementation process, attract support, aid problem solving, and reveal new opportunities for productive partnerships with the community. In the past, police efforts usually have been evaluated on a traditional and narrow set of criteria (e.g., crime statistics, the number of 911 calls, the length of police response, the number of arrests and citations, among others). These analyses were often taken only at times of serious crime increases.

Many of the traditional methods of analysis remain valid, but can measure only the effectiveness of crime-fighting tactics and cannot gauge the effect of crime-prevention efforts. Changes in the scope of policing necessitate a revised system for evaluating the performance of individuals, as well as agencies. As police take a proactive role in deterring crime, a broader set of analysis criteria, which incorporate traditional measures of crime-fighting activities with those that encompass community partnership and problem-solving activities, will be needed.

Traditional crime-control activities should become only one of the ways in which the community policing strategy and individual officers are assessed. Many indications of the success of community policing efforts are intangible (e.g., absence of fear, quality of interaction with community members, among others); therefore, assessing a community policing strategy is a qualitative as well as a quantitative process. The values that the department promotes will form the basis of sound qualitative measures of effectiveness. Analysis should reward organizational and individual behavior that assists in deterring crime and solving other neighborhood problems. Creativity, initiative, and ingenuity should be emphasized in the evaluation of individual officers.
Three major criteria—effectiveness, efficiency, and equity—can be used to provide the quantitative and qualitative measures needed to assess the success of a community policing strategy.

2.5.3 Effectiveness of community policing

An effective community policing strategy will reduce neighborhood crime, decrease citizens’ fear of crime, and enhance the quality of life in the community. An important goal of community policing is to provide higher quality service to neighborhoods; therefore, customer satisfaction becomes an important measure of effectiveness. The perception of progress among community members and ongoing feedback from all elements of the community are essential parts of the analysis process. Randomly and routinely conducted surveys will inform the agency of the public view of police performance, the level of fear and concern, and will make the agency aware of the extent to which community members feel as if they are participants in the community policing effort.

One of the core components of community policing is community partnership. Therefore, an early measure of effectiveness will be the number and type of community partnerships that have been formed. The cooperation and participation of community members is necessary to deter crime and reduce the fear of crime in the neighborhood. Assessing the effectiveness of community policing efforts includes determining whether problems have been solved and judging how well the managers and patrol officers have applied the community partnership and problem-solving components of community policing.
Analysis should measure whether a problem was solved and how this was accomplished. As stated earlier, the number of arrests made is only one possible measure of effective problem solving; solving problems often does not involve arrest and, in many cases, does not guarantee that a problem will disappear completely. Satisfactory analysis measures for community policing must give proper credit to officers like this who successfully abate a problem through means other than arrest. The officer’s contribution to solving the problem and his consultations with members of the community showed the concern and effectiveness of police officers and created the goodwill for the department that is crucial to the success of community policing.

The number and type of problems solved and the creativity and scope of the solutions will provide a way to measure community policing effectiveness. Not all of the problems will involve criminal activity, and many will not even be considered a priority by the police agency. However, where serious crime is not involved, the concerns and fears of community members should order the priorities of the agency.

In community policing, officers may act as facilitators to mobilize community support. They may also function as mediators in disputes between individuals or organizations, or take responsibility for referring a problem to the appropriate social or government agency. The effective use of government and community agencies in problem solving is an indication that community policing policies are working. Thus, the mobilization and intelligent use of community resources in solving problems and the sensitive handling of dissension become important factors in assessing the performance of officers and the success of the program.
Increased levels of community participation in crime reduction and prevention efforts are another indication of program success. Community members will not act if they are afraid or suspicious. Community members should become more willing to work with the police in a variety of ways, ranging from converting abandoned buildings to community assets to involving police actively in neighborhood watch groups. They might also be more comfortable providing information on criminal activity in the area.

In fact, calls to report crime may increase considerably during the early phases of community policing implementation, as community confidence in police capability rises and community trust increases. However, the number of 911 calls will likely decrease over time, which will provide a quantitative measure of the strategy’s effect. For instance, emergency calls in the pioneering Flint, Michigan, foot patrol district dropped 43 percent over the course of the experiment (Robert, 1983)

A concrete indication of community policing success is the commitment of an increased level of community resources devoted to crime reduction efforts. Active consultation and financial participation by public and private agencies, schools, and the business community will demonstrate that community partnership efforts are working. Communities also should begin to initiate and conduct projects with minimal guidance from the police.

Renewed activity within the community also will demonstrate the effectiveness of community policing efforts, particularly in areas where citizens have been afraid to leave their homes. Reduction in fear can also result in the perception among residents that crime is on the wane,
whether or not this is statistically accurate. An increased willingness of citizens to walk to schools and parks, patronize stores, and go to restaurants and movies will signal a general decrease in fear of crime. In turn, the very fact that community members are reclaiming their streets will help deter future criminal activity and create more vigorous neighborhoods.

Improved quality of life is difficult to measure but is an important goal of community policing and will be reflected in comments from community members. Ridding the streets of gangs, drunks, panhandlers, and prostitutes—perhaps with the help of public and private social agencies—will enhance the quality of life. Removing signs of neglect (e.g., abandoned cars, derelict buildings, and garbage and debris) will offer tangible evidence that community policing efforts are working to bring about increased order in the community.

In community policing, the police function includes the provision of services that in the recent past have been regarded as outside policing purview. These services include aiding accident and crime victims, arbitrating neighborhood and domestic disputes, and providing emergency medical and social services. An analysis of the nature of calls for police service (e.g., a lower percentage of calls reporting criminal activity in proportion to calls requesting social assistance) will provide a measure of how well the strategy is working.

2.5.4 Efficiency
Efficiency means getting the most results with available resources. To measure the efficiency of community policing, the resources of the police agency, local government and private agencies, citizen groups, the business community, and the neighborhood must first be defined. The
analysis must then determine whether these resources are being used to their fullest to solve any given problem. Agencies that can successfully enhance and realign their resources by forming community partnerships will be able to make community policing more efficient and cost-effective.

According to Moore and Stephens (1991), two major shifts must occur within the police organization if community policing is to work efficiently. Staunch partnerships and collaborative efforts must first be established with the community. The command structure of the police organization must then be decentralized so that problem solving, decision making, and accountability are spread to all levels of the organization. Such decentralization challenges personnel to be more creative and more effective because the decisions they make are more timely and influenced by firsthand knowledge of the facts. Decentralization also gives higher level managers more time to formulate strategies that will improve the organization’s performance.

In a decentralized policing organization, neighborhood patrol officers are responsible for the daily policing needs of the community, with guidance and backing from supervisors. Their long-term shifts and neighborhood patrol assignments give them the opportunity to function more efficiently and successfully. Patrol officers who handle daily police functions can form stronger bonds with the community. This “pride of ownership” motivates both parties to solve the problems that affect the security and harmony of the neighborhood.
Patrol officers will experience greater job satisfaction as they accept higher levels of responsibility and accountability. Officers are often able to resolve issues quickly, allowing them to see the immediate results of their efforts.

With high morale and greater job satisfaction, patrol officers will more effectively mobilize the community. If they are highly motivated, given the necessary support, and appropriately rewarded for their efforts, the job satisfaction they experience will help make the community policing strategy a success. The roles and responsibilities of all personnel in the police organization are altered so that the leadership and ingenuity officers’ display will become important factors in determining the efficiency of the program. Analysis and reward procedures must therefore be revised accordingly.

According to Prinslow (1993), community help will increase the efficiency of the program and relieve some of the strain of tight police budgets. Partnerships in the community can bring fresh resources to problems, even those traditionally considered “police-only” business. According to one sheriff, “There is virtually no limitation on how much more effective and efficient a sheriff’s office can become, working collectively as a partner with community members while, at the same time, saving resources, dollars, and frustration on the part of constituents.”

Decentralized decision making and community partnership engenders new organizational and resource issues that must be addressed to operate the system efficiently. Budgets must reflect the goals of community policing by allocating money and resources in proportion to the results achieved. With decentralization police officers who have the greatest responsibility for the daily
policing operations will have more direct input into budgetary decisions and greater accountability for financial decisions, actions taken, and results achieved.

Efficiency must be built into each aspect of the community policing strategy—from the creation of community boundaries that cultivate productive alliances to the adoption of technologies that increase communication. Expanded and thorough training is paramount in an efficient shift to community policing. Intensive training, although initially costly in terms of dollars and time, will eventually make the process more efficient, as well-trained and experienced personnel share practical knowledge with colleagues.

Efficiency in larger agencies may be increased by redefining job functions at all management levels. For example, one large jurisdiction implementing community policing required sergeants to coordinate officer decision making across beats as necessary and to confer with their lieutenants on decisions that involved a large or long-term commitment of resources. Lieutenants in turn apprised their respective captains about happenings on beats across their districts. Such amended roles for midlevel managers may promote efficiency through fewer levels of supervision. While an important supervisory role is to help maximize the amount of time neighborhood officers can spend in their communities, community policing will require supervisors to coordinate problem-solving activities within and across communities, help secure resources, evaluate activities and decisions, and provide guidance and support to neighborhood officers.
According to Goldstein (1990), central to achieving efficiency in time and dollars is controlling calls for service. Sophisticated technological advances can help prioritize calls and facilitate communication among community policing partners. Alternative response strategies for nonemergency calls include a delayed-officer response and officer response by appointment. Low-priority situations can be handled by telephone, walk-in, and mail-in reporting. “All indications are that these systems save an enormous amount of time, reduce officer frustration, and are equally satisfactory to the callers. Effectiveness and efficiency are important yardsticks by which to measure community policing achievements, but equity, the third major criterion for judging progress, has the greatest impact on the success of community policing.

2.5.5 Equity

Equity is grounded firmly in the Constitution of the United States, which all police officers are sworn to uphold. A foremost tenet of community policing is equity; that is, all citizens should have a say in how they are governed. Officers may relate better to citizens as individuals because they cooperate closely with and are recognized as an integral part of the community. Community policing can thus become a force for enhancing democratic principles. Community policing provides an opportunity to emphasize uncompromising integrity, unyielding standards of fairness, and unwavering equality because officers have to work closely with the community and will be increasingly confronted with ethical dilemmas.

Equity, as understood in community policing activities, has three dimensions: equal access to police services by all citizens, equal treatment of all individuals under the U.S. Constitution, and equal distribution of police services and resources among communities.
2.5.6 Equal access to police services

All citizens, regardless of race, religion, personal characteristics, or group affiliation, must have equal access to police services for a full and productive partnership with a community. The paramount commitment of community policing should be respect for all citizens and sensitivity to their needs. Neighborhood officers must not discriminate against any community members. Supervisors should help ensure that police services are readily available throughout the community.

In addition, lines of communication must be kept open with all partners in the community policing effort. Favoritism of one group over another will severely hamper future cooperative efforts. Groups who are more vocal than others cannot be permitted to use community policing to serve their own purposes. Police must prevent such behavior before it adversely affects the trust that has been established within and among communities.

2.5.7 Equal treatment under the constitution

Police must treat all individuals according to the constitutional rights that officers are sworn to protect and enforce. Careful attention to the constitutional rights of citizens, victims, or perpetrators will help to engender bonds of trust between the police and community. Police must treat all persons with respect and impartiality— including the homeless, the poor, and the mentally or physically handicapped. They must reject stereotypes, ignore skin color, and use reason and persuasion rather than coercion wherever possible because inequitable or harsh
treatment can lead to frustration, hostility, and even violence within a community. Such unethical behavior will imperil the trust so necessary to community policing.

Some contemporary community activists and leaders have experienced past confrontations with the police which may present serious challenges to implementing community policing and involving the community in policing efforts.

2.5.8 Equal distribution of police services and resources among communities.

Because community policing customizes policing services to the needs of each community, services should be distributed equitably among poor and minority communities. Care must be taken, however, to ensure that this is the case. For equitable distribution of resources among communities, each community must articulate its needs and be willing to work with the police to ensure its share of police services. Each neighborhood officer must listen to the community members, and be willing to work with the community members to meet those needs. Poor and minority neighborhoods can present particular challenges for some patrol officers, who may have to bridge differences of race and class before a level of trust and cooperation can be established.

According to Sparrow et al. (1990), some neighborhoods may appear unwilling to help police in their efforts to improve life in the community. Officers must realize that sometimes “the community seems so helpless because it feels abandoned and would discover new strengths if only the police could make an effective alliance with important community elements. Departments that have taken early steps [into community policing] are full of stories of apparently lost neighborhoods that flowered under new police attention.
One community must not be given preference over another; all communities must have equal access to police services. Equity, however, may not always mean equal distribution of police services and resources. Wealthier communities are often able to contribute more resources to the problem-solving process than can poorer communities. Crime rates will also be higher in some communities, requiring more police intervention and a larger share of police resources to decrease crime and transform neighborhoods from places of fear into city or county assets.

2.5.9 Refining the Analysis Process
Analysis of community policing is an ongoing process that should include a reevaluation of the analysis measures themselves. With more experience in community policing, a police agency will be able to develop measures that accurately chart successes and failures and indicate where changes need to be made.

The values of the policing organization must guide the move to community policing, and shape every decision made and every action taken. Above all, police organizations must be responsive to community priorities and demands for service from the beginning of the community policing effort.

Community Policing is an approach to policing that recognizes the independence and shared responsibility of the Police and the Community in ensuring a safe and secure environment for all citizens. It aims at establishing an active and equal partnership between the Police and the public through which crime and community safety issues can jointly be discussed and solutions determined and implemented.
This creates a partnership and understanding between the police and the community about their roles in crime prevention. Supplementing police patrols through private guards and neighborhoods watch groups. This process can be achieved through education, capacity building, enhancing Kenya Police personnel and members of the community to enable constructive participation in addressing the problems of crime.

The success of community policing can be evaluated and analyzed by looking at how effective and the level of its acceptance by the concerned communities. The main objectives of community policing is resolving conflict between and within community groupings in a manner which enhances peace and stability. To start Community Policing, one has to start a Community Policing Forum (CPF). This is a group of people from the Police and different committees (local leaders, residents, and community based organizations) who meet to identify and solve problems in their areas. This forum ensures that community policing informs, guides and improves policing activities by consulting constantly and allows participation of all willing persons in the community and keeps a crime trend data for use of the police.

Community policing is collaboration between the police and the community that identifies and solves community problems. With the police no longer the sole guardians of law and order, all members of the community become active allies in the effort to enhance the safety and quality of neighborhoods. Community policing has far-reaching implications.
The expanded outlook on crime control and prevention, the new emphasis on making community members active participants in the process of problem solving, and the patrol officers’ pivotal role in community policing require profound changes within the police organization. The neighborhood patrol officer, backed by the police organization, helps community members to mobilize support and resources to solve problems and enhance their quality of life. Community members voice their concerns, contribute advice, and take action to address these concerns. Creating a constructive partnership required the energy, creativity, understanding, and patience of all involved.

Reinvigorating communities is essential if we are to deter crime and create more vital neighborhoods. In some communities, it will take time to break down barriers of apathy and mistrust so that meaningful partnerships can be forged. Trust is the value that underlies and links the components of community partnership and problem solving. A foundation of trust will allow police to form close relationships with the community that will produce solid achievements. Without trust between police and citizens, effective policing is impossible.

In implementation of Community Policing, Kenya has currently adopted “Nyumba Kumi Initiative.” The concept Nyumba Kumi, though being a Kiswahili phrase for “ten households” is not “rigidly” an initiative to be based on a specific number of households. The number of households clustered should not be imposed, fixed or limited by external forces but determined by shared aspirations. Nyumba Kumi initiative is still at its formative stages and the study shall be analyzing its effectiveness in crime prevention and sustainability. Decision-makers public
servants and security practitioners has embraced innovative policies, institutional reforms and working practices based on reliable evidence and analysis to reduce impacts of crime in Kenya. Nyumba Kumi Community security initiatives is still being implemented and we shall be analyzing whether it will help communities to build on the resources and skills they already have to their advantage in addressing their security concerns. Community participatory initiatives are supposed to build durable links between the community, local government and police structures and enhance the resilience of communities to withstand pressures that could lead to criminal activities.

People’s experiences of safety and security in their own locality ought to be profoundly affected by national and international policies, programs, institutions and individuals. For this reason, it is important to ensure there are bridges between national and county authorities, security providers formal and informal, civil society, individuals and communities to minimize and address the real concerns and difficulties of local communities concerning crimes.

Mainstreaming development policy needs has been updated to focus on the factors that are hindering progress in conflict-prone areas in Kenya. This means ensuring people’s security, improving access to justice, and increasing participation in decision-making and putting in place fairer, more responsive and accountable governance. This involves empowering people at grassroots to participate in decision-making and in identifying and resolving security problems so that security agencies, especially police, become more responsive, accountable and community friendly.
This Community security initiative tackles a range of security problems from gender-based violence and crime to a lack of trust between communities and security providers, inter-ethnic tensions or weapons proliferation. But it is important to remember that people live integrated lives in which security concerns such as crime, violence, intimidation and disorder are often intimately linked to broader ‘human security’ issues related to people’s health, education and livelihoods. Community security initiatives work through local partners to help people identify and prioritize their safety and security needs and bring together communities, police, local authorities and other security and justice providers to address them.

2.6 Role of Community Police Patrols in Crime Prevention

Community patrols have had the potential to increase Indigenous community safety. They have assisted in prevention of crime rates, alcohol-related harm and empowering of the local community. The most successful community patrols tend to enjoy community involvement and ownership and strong collaboration with police and a network of community services.

Australian Aboriginal community night patrols emerged in the late 1980s in the Northern Territory community of Tennant Creek (Blagg, 2003; Langton, 1992). In Tennant Creek, community patrols were established by the Indigenous community because there was nothing else (Blagg 2003:15). Although the problem of over-policing in Indigenous communities has been widely documented, the converse problem of under-policing can also have negative impacts on Indigenous communities (Blagg and Valuri 2004; NTER Review Board 2008; Tangentyere Council Executive 2008). Similarly, in Yuendumu in the 1990s, community night patrols were instigated by Indigenous women to help protect the community in the absence of effective
intervention from mainstream justice systems’ (Lui and Blanchard, 2001:18). In other communities, patrols emerged to address over-policing and to divert Indigenous people from unnecessary contact with the criminal justice system’ (Blagg, 2003:7). Community patrols can now be found in urban and regional as well as remote areas, with funded Indigenous community patrols Australia-wide. However, while there are some community patrols in urban areas, they are especially common in small communities in rural and remote locations in the Northern Territory, Western Australia, South Australia and New South Wales. Community patrols may carry out a number of functions. A community patrol may be referred to as a night patrol, youth or women’s patrol, bare-foot patrol or street patrol. Community patrols vary in how they operate, with the character and functions of each patrol reflecting the needs of the community it serves and from which it arises (AIC, 2004). They tend to take an anticipatory approach, aiming to increase community safety through prevention and intervention (AIC, 2004). Community patrols help members of the community who may be at risk of either causing harm or becoming a victim of harm.

Community patrols are generally initiated by Indigenous community members and can empower the community. Patrons aim to contribute to crime prevention and are not a substitute for police, but rather complement the local police unit in achieving a safer community. Patrons operate on the basis of cultural authority rather than formal legal authority and their roles are distinct from that of the local police command (Blagg, 2006:3–4). Beacroft et al. (2011) describe the main purpose of community patrols as primary and secondary crime prevention rather than crisis intervention or de facto policing (Beacroft et al., 2011:3). A number of programs and initiatives potentially contribute to improved safety in a community, and the effectiveness of community
patrols needs to be considered in that context. Their specific purpose and their functions also need to be considered. Community patrols focus on increasing or maintaining security and wellbeing and ‘stopping things from occurring. It took me therefore to assess the efficiency of Community policing in Kirinyaga County.

2.7 Role of Vigilante in Crime Prevention

Vigilante groups must be structured in a standard manner for administration and management of the members to achieve community security goals. According to http://www.j4a-nigeria.org (Justice For All) the probable compilation of vigilante group should be the Community Accountability Forum (CAF) whose membership shall be the following;

1) Traditional rulers or elders
2) CDA chairman
3) Divisional Police Officer
4) Religious leaders
5) Women groups
6) Youth groups
7) Heads of ethnic groups
8) Traders association
9) Landlords

The Vigilante Chairman

a) The chairman serves as the leader of the group. He will give direction for the implementation of all its activities within the community
b) The chairman shall approve all decisions of the group. The chairman often works closely with the heads of Admin, finance and operations (the management team) to manage the affairs of the group.

c) The chairman shall brief the Community accountability forum (CAF) on periodic performance of the vigilante and plans for the future. The performance briefing should include but will not be limited to:

i. The number of reported crime and conflict incidences – burglary, armed robbery, theft, kidnapping, rape, etc.

ii. What time of the day, the weapons used, and how the crime or offence was committed.

iii. Number and nature of casualty or loss recorded – e.g. deaths, injuries, property loss etc.

iv. Number of threats that were resolved, arrests made and where they occurred.

v. The environmental improvements that assist prevention efforts.

vi. Other security activities carried out e.g. security education, community development etc.

vii. General security observations.

viii. Challenges of the vigilante.

ix. Recommendation of preventive actions going forward.

**The Head of Operations**

a) The head of operations will coordinate the security operations of the group and will make sure that all plans are implemented effectively.
b) The head of operation will work closely with the Police in providing operatives for joint patrol operations and providing background information about the community and crime suspects to Police.

c) The head of operation will work with other members of the operations unit (area coordinators, coordinators and street supervisors) to implement Operational guidelines for Voluntary Policing Groups agreed operations plan. This will also include holding regular weekly security meeting to update and revise actions for crime prevention.

d) The head of operations will assign responsibilities and patrol duty postings to members of the operations unit.

e) The operations unit will coordinate all community based crime consciousness and safety awareness program for the purpose of educating members of the community and making them alert to threats.

f) The head of operations will ensure that daily record of patrol activities are kept which will include among other things suspicious activities and actual crime incidences.

**Head of Finance**

The vigilante needs money to carry its work of crime prevention; it will need money to buy patrol tools such as torches, raincoat, baton, recharge card for making urgent/ distress calls, ID card printing, training of members on crime prevention, stationery, transport, etc. The vigilante depends on contribution from people who live in the community, organizations and sometimes government to raise money to support its work. The finance unit must maintain community trust.
by ensuring all its records of money it receives and what it spends is accurate all the time. In addition, the finance unit and the head of finance will carry out the following responsibility:

i. The finance unit handles all matters relating to money

ii. They will create, maintain and track proper record of every money spent by the group

iii. They will advise the chairman and inform the group on how much money the vigilante has in its purse and how to use the money so that the group can achieve more results in making the community peaceful and free of crime

iv. They will handle all requests for money that is approved by the management of the vigilante Operational guidelines for Voluntary Policing Groups

v. They will prepare budget for the group based on their agreed plans and strategies

vi. They will prepare report from the financial records and ensure that there is no fraud or nothing brings shame or lack of trust to the vigilante

**Administration**

This is the engine room of the vigilante; they make the vigilante work like an organization. They listen to every decision made and try to ensure everyone is doing their own share of the work that has been agreed to. Just as operation is to security patrol, so is the admin to the vigilante. Some of the functions of the Admin unit include:

a) The administration unit manages the secretariat function of the group

b) They are responsible for providing storage for records of documents and materials.

c) They manage the resources or materials the vigilante use for operations and they provide information and advice management on how the resources and materials are used; who they give it to, what is left and what they need
d) They are responsible for purchases of operational materials and tools on behalf of the vigilante.

e) The head of admin will work closely with the operations unit to make plans for hosting and organizing all external and internal activities such as:

i. Periodic meetings of the vigilante.

ii. Communication of the decisions made by the leadership to members.

iii. External meetings and discussions with the Community Accountability Forum (CAF), Police and government authorities.

iv. Training activities for the vigilante and members of the public meetings.

Vigilante groups as security outfits are mostly composed of volunteers, operating under the mandate of communal consensus to fight crime. As the waning capacity of the police could not curtail the rising trend of urban violence and crime, communal policing or vigilante were created to protect the neighborhoods. According to Baker (2003), vigilantism is a category of non-state or self-policing. It is characterized by reactive ad hoc and often violent methods of crime control. A vigilante is a group of committed people at the micro level of the community, set up to collate information on suspected criminals in its area, for use by the police in the detection and prevention of crime. It is often made up landlords, tenants, community associations and leaders of the neighborhood, who keep watch over their area and report suspicious people to the police (Albert and Omitoogun, 1995: 53). Vigilante groups are largely informal and composed of volunteers and are largely funded through communal contributions. Contributions are insignificant and often irregular compared to the risks vigilante are exposed.
The resurgence of modern vigilante groups in Kano metropolis has been closely associated with the disproportionate increase in the rise of urban crimes and conflicts. The inability of the police to tame the rising menace of the urban gangs has led to the proliferation of vigilante groups. In the early 1990s, vigilante groups were formed in almost all the local government within Kano metropolis.

In Kano, vigilante groups were offshoot of hunters. Vigilante groups were coordinated through the institution of the Settlement of Disputes Centre (Yaqub and Olaniyi, 2004: 11). Served as a security community and was composed of ward heads, community elders, religious leaders, wealthy individuals and heads of households. By 1983, the hunters groups transformed into vigilante groups to tackle the upsurge of criminal activities by complimenting the efforts of security agencies especially the police to protect lives and properties and prevent crimes. Vigilante groups were practiced in three main forms: traditional vigilante groups; neighborhood watch; and neighborhood security committee (Yaqub and Olaniyi, 2004:12).

Since 1985, community vigilante became more involved in confronting youth gangs that use drugs and commit crimes including abduction of young girls. Community vigilante groups assist the police in suppressing criminal activities of kidnapping young girls. Burglaries, duping, raping and kidnapping of children were on the increase and so vigilante groups were formed in all the old Kano city wards through security committees that involved ward heads. The ward heads mobilized volunteers to organize and register vigilante groups in their communities (Tofa 1994: 57; Yaqub and Olaniyi, 2004:12).
The sudden population increase with the scanty ratio of the community members and the police force made it impossible to cope with crime upsurge in the country. To fill the gap, people formed vigilante groups. These vigilante groups go by different names across the country. The primary reason for setting them up was to protect the people from incessant raids by armed robbers in their neighborhoods. Local communities across the country, as in many other countries in Africa and elsewhere, have created their own informal or sometimes formal structures to try to ensure the security of the population. These groups have usually been composed of individuals from the local community. They have derived their credibility, and unofficial authority, from the community in which they serve. One of the main purposes of these initiatives has been to complement the police in identifying and handing over criminal suspects to the appropriate judicial authorities. They have also sometimes tried to settle other conflicts between individuals in the community. Local leaders have on occasion abused their power and used these groups for other purposes. The vigilantes rose to the challenge of combating the spiraling crime waves across many towns in the country especially in the early years of democratic transition. Initially there was prevention in crime. However with time these vigilante groups in most cases deviated from the original purpose for which they were formed to engaging in other activities such settling civil matters, recovering debts, ejecting tenants for landlords and in some cases meddling in husband and wife matters, and serving as ready hands to unleash violence during elections.

In Kenya, Vigilante groups are illegal outfit that are not structured to serve the desired community policing. Vigilante groups like Mungiki, SunguSungu, and Fourty Brothers existed to
serve political interest and to use crime as a way of enriching some of the members and leaders. These are not the envisaged community policing vigilante groups. The Kenya situation may have to be informed by the examples of Nigeria and other countries.

In Kirinyaga county there are community policing vigilante groups that are accepted by the community but there are others like Mungiki that are still not trusted by the community to engage in matters of security.

2.8 Community Court System and Crime Prevention

Traditionally, courts have not been concerned with neighborhood conditions or solving community problems. In a typical centralized court, low-level crimes are treated as isolated incidents rather than an ongoing quality-of-life problem. In contrast, community courts promote constructive responses to low-level crime and provide service and feedback to the community (Feinblatt et al., 1998; Sviridoff et al., 1997; Feinblatt and Berman, 1997; Kelling and Coles, 1996; Anderson, 1996; Rottman, 1996).

Over the past five years, a growing number of urban jurisdictions have begun to rethink the roles that community-focused courts can play in responding to neighborhood problems. This stems largely from national interest in the experience of Community Court, launched in October 1993 by a coalition of civic and government leaders. Community Court arraigns misdemeanants arrested for quality-of-life crimes in the neighborhoods.

The Court’s problem solving agenda extends beyond the courtroom, transforming the courthouse into a place where both defendants and community members can get help for underlying
problems and community stakeholders can address pressing local issues. Community courts have become a central part of the Justice Department’s community justice agenda.

Community courts close the gap between courts and communities by bringing justice back to neighborhoods. They are much more than local branches of centralized court systems. Broadly conceived, they expand traditional notions about the role of courts and test their ability to serve as a catalyst for social change. As exemplified by the Community Courts, they are dedicated to: Community courts stem partly from the effort in the 1970's to create neighborhood justice centers to bring local dispute resolution capacity to communities, often as an alternative to formal case processing (McGillis, 1997). Community courts bring both formal court processing and informal dispute resolution mechanisms into urban neighborhoods. Housing a broad array of social services on-site, they also promote voluntary service participation among defendants and community members.

Community courts promote:

i. **Increase in Community Involvement**

   Community courts give neighborhood members a voice in the justice system through advisory boards, which offer input into programs and identify pressing community needs, and community conditions panels, which draw together local stakeholders to develop solutions to hot spots of crime and disorder.
ii. **Solving Community Problems**

Court-based mediators take advantage of the court setting to address individual and community-level disputes. By convening interested parties and facilitating discussions as an objective third party, many chronic, quality-of-life and interpersonal problems in a community never reach a courtroom.

In United States of America, Community courts are neighborhood-focused courts that attempt to harness the power of the justice system to address local problems. They strive to engage outside stakeholders such as residents, merchants, churches, and schools in new ways in an effort to bolster public trust in justice. And they test new approaches to reduce both crime and incarceration. The first community court in the country was the Midtown Community Court, launched in 1993 in New York City. Several dozen community courts, inspired by the Midtown model, are in operation or planning around the country. International interest in community courts includes programs in Canada, Australia, South Africa, and Singapore. In Kenya, most communities depending on their tradition and culture, they establish village courts entrusted to the most respected elders and their findings and decisions are abiding to conflicting parties.

iii. **Promoting Accountability**

Community courts use the tools of modern technology to provide urban Judges with information that would be readily accessible in a small town courthouse (e.g., whether or not a defendant completed community service or attended drug treatment).
2.9 Research gap
Crime continued to raise in Kirinyaga county making Kirinyaga the second county with the highest rate of crime in Kenya according to the Kenya police annual report 2014. The county has a good ratio of population to that of the police according to the same report but crime rate remains high. The community comprises of a high learned population and has a high income per capita according to the economic survey ministry of finance 2014. The gap that needs to be narrowed or addressed is the efficiency and effect of community policing in crime management and reduction.

2.10 Theoretical Framework: Social Bond Policing Theory

The Social Bond theory was first expounded by Hirschi in 1969. Social Bond theory, that later developed into the Social Control Theory, has historically been an interesting way of approaching social problems and how we in turn explain them. Before one can apply the Social Bond theory, they must first have a firm understanding of its definition, which can be accurately described by Hirschi (1969:16) as, “…elements of social bonding include attachment to families, commitment to social norms and institutions (school, employment), involvement in activities, and the belief that these things are important”. This theory is rooted and derived from the General Theory of Crime. The basic difference between the General Theory of Crime and Hirschi’s (1969) Social Bond Theory is the focus on peers and peer groups of individuals. The four basic elements of social bond theory are attachment, commitment, involvement in conventional versus deviant or criminal activities, and lastly the common value system within an individual’s society or subgroup. Attachment is described as the level of values and or norms that an individual holds in society. Attachment is especially important when it come to the person’s
According to Hirschi (1969) other attachments, such as school, play a tremendous role in conventional society. School has tended to be a middle to upper class involvement since it was first created. The middle class children tend to make fun of or demoralize the lower class children. This treatment also does not just come from the child it also comes directly from the institution, through the teacher. In combination with each other the person starts to resent school at the earliest point. This resentment also hinders the continuation of further education. This comes full circle to the lower class standard of living for generations to come (Hirschi, 1969). Next is commitment, this can be described as the level of commitment that an individual has to abide by legal behavior (Burton et al, 1995). The norms and values taught to us as an adolescent should be to obey how society works in normal terms. From very early in our lives we hopefully learn the difference between “right” and “wrong”. This understanding has an enormous effect on how we turn out and set our place in normal society. For example, if a child is raised in a home where drugs are bought, sold, and used regularly, then that child has a greater chance of having involvement with drugs in the future. Also, the “bond” between mother, father, and child in a normal nuclear family, is very strong, this in turn has made a blue print of an entire adult life on the child. Third, is a person’s choice to get involved in conventional versus deviant behavior. This choice is formed not far after basic rules of life are taught. If no “right and wrong” basis are formed or provided the adolescent will make the decision that tends to make the most sense. This also ties into family involvement in the person’s life. Lastly, this in many ways directly correlates many factors or aspects of the four main parts of Hirschi’s (1969) theory. Together they form the backbone of the everlasting “bond” theory. Social Bond Theory has long been a widely accepted among many sociologists for a variety of reasons. The fact that bonds exist in all aspects of society means that the relation of these bonds can be readily discussed.
Hirschi (1969) bases his theory on the means that social bonds do exist and when a bond is weakened or broken then unusual behavior for that individual may occur. This brings me to a profound quote by Durkheim (1969:17):

“The more weakened the groups to which [the individual] belongs, the less he depends on them, the more he consequently depends only on himself and recognizes no other rules of conduct than what are formed on his private interests”. Like I have previously discussed, there are many positive aspects of Hirschi’s (1969) bond theory. However, like many things there are weaknesses in it. One element of weakness of Hirschi’s (1969) bond theory is that he makes little or no distinction of importance of each of the elements of his social bond. Some recent research suggests that there may be differences between each of the elements that he names.

A number of adolescents that are involved in criminal activity report high levels of “involvement”, which according to Hirschi (1969) are supposed to reduce delinquency. When young adults are involved with criminal behaviors outside of the home it is possible that parental control weakens or that young adults just have more opportunity to commit crime. Following this are deviant peers and parents. Hirschi (1969) concludes that any type of social attachment is beneficial, event to deviant peers and parents. In contradiction to himself this in turn supports and nurtures antisocial behavior. Hindeland (1973) found that attachment to delinquent peers escalated rather than restricted criminality.

Many studies have even gone to prove that young adults with drug abusive parents have a greater chance of being abusers themselves (Burton, 1995). If an individual has peers, family members,
or associates that are deviant this may motivate youths to commit crimes and also facilitate an antisocial behavior. The simple fact that bonds change over time has been overlooked by Hirschi (1969) on many occasions. Weak bonds shared with parents lead to delinquency, while strong bonds to peers lead to also lead to delinquency (LaGrange and Raskin, 1985). Some other bonds that come to mind might be the family structure that America shares in contemporary society. We now see more and more single family households, and same sex households.

An indirect result of how certain households affects an individual have just began to been studied, there are conflicting views as to whether these certain households are beneficial or deleterious. This is a weakness because the ideas are skewed in both directions and a consensus has not been reached. It is a fact that many different races and ethnicities exist in America today and that there are many different ways to live life. When Hirschi (1969) conducted his research and recorded his findings he based it upon what he thought the typical family was which was white. Different cultures have different beliefs and what might be predictable or normal to one might not in another. Since bonds are stronger in certain kinds of lifestyles the affects will be different in all cases. The results of family ties will result in different “blueprints” of different people. A strong family could keep them going in the right direction but, too strong could also cause adverse affects. Like many studies these results have to be taken into a case by case basis. Another one of the major weaknesses of Social Bond Theory is the definitions that are used to describe the main concepts of the theory.

The empirical effects of a skewed definition or biased definition could alter all results that come directly from it. How one definition is represented and another definition is seen can make all the
difference in the world. To substances in these homeless people’s lives are a normative occurrence. As described above this is a study done entirely on the homeless in America and those of which who suffered from substance abuse. According to Burt (1992), it is estimated that 20 out of every 10,000 of the homeless in America have substance abuse problems with either drugs or alcohol, and 15 of those are lifelong. In recent findings, according to the Nation, the topic of journal selection is a study done by Hartwell (1999) of the University of Massachusetts.

The studies will focus on the characteristics of the homeless populations in America. Hartwell (2000) has estimated that between 20% and 80% of the homeless in America has a substance abuse problem. Throughout Hartwell’s (year) article she applies Hirschi’s (1969) Social Bond Theory in a qualititative study of a total of 31 homeless male substance users from New Haven. The participants were interviewed twice, once in 1992 and a second time in 1993. Basically the results showed a non-normative attachment to families, friends, and institutions where little or no commitment to conventional goals or norms.

The conclusion of the study found that the uses al Institute of Health (NIH 1988) and the Alcohol and Abuse and Alcoholism approximately 20 million Americans abuse drugs and or alcohol (Fisher, 1989; Fisher and Breakey, 1991; Institute of Medicine, 1988; Spinner and Leaf, 1992; Stahler and Cohen, 1995; Susser et al., 1989). The conclusion of this article stated that members of the homeless society have utilized elements of Hirschi’s (1969) social bond theory long past their adolescent years. Consistent evidence shows that attachments to the families are primary and shape the commitment to activities, social life, and social location (Hartwell, 1999). Basically, the homeless men could have chosen many paths in their younger years but, because
of a volatile family structure they choose the “wrong” path. The home was not considered a shelter for the young men and for this reason they spent more time on the streets. After growing for some time, the men began to participate less in leisurely activates but drug use. When the men were asked of friends they tend to always associate them with either drugs or alcohol experiences they have had not healthy social bonds with peers. In most of these men’s lives they were at one point or another failing as a father, brother, etc. relationship figure and because of the stresses this causes they revert back to the substance abuse. Based on the findings and the direct relation to Hirschi’s (1969) Social Bond Theory, one can make a decision that there is a supportive correlation between the two.

A few ideas can be proposed to either control or improve the current homeless agenda in America. The first would be to create more employment opportunities and employment options for the underprivileged. The society as a whole should make more of an effort to strengthen the family ties we share and therefore strengthening society as a whole. Next the schools need to encourage and engage children in all aspects. The government can do its part to focus on improvement of schools in poverty ridden areas (Hartwell, 2000). The earlier the children are approached in some fascists of life the stronger impact we can have on them. The resources given to the poorer schools can be considered an “investment” of sorts, you invest into the children while they are young then as adults you get a great return.

Adults that were predestined to continue a poor lifestyle have a much greater chance of breaking the forces pulling them down and keeping them down. The last improvement that can be implemented would be to offer lower costs and still decent housing. Hartwell (2000) proposes that we examine our current role of emergency shelters. Shelters provide great places for
educational forums and those that stay in shelters could benefit from health, job training, and money management programs. As good as Hartwell’s (1999) is it like most has some weak points, first would be the location of the study. The sample size is very small and not enough long term results were taken into account. A remedy to this might be to do small studies like this all around the U.S., you then can get a much greater census of the overall populous.
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was used to carry out this study and collect data. It shows the research design that was employed, the location where the study was conducted, target population, sample & sampling techniques, data collection method, data analysis techniques and ethical issues.

2.11 Research Design

Maykut, (2003), defines research design employed as a blue-print, dealt with at least four problems: questions studied, relevant data, data to collected, how the data was analyzed and the research design which was adopted. According to Robson, (1993), Quantitative design enabled the researcher to find out the answer to the inquiry through numerical evidence while qualitative research design enabled the researcher to provide a complete and detailed description of the research topic. Qualitative is usually more exploratory in the nature. The study employed quantitative design to establish opinions and knowledge about the government and community members and their contribution on the community policing. The qualitative design helped the researcher to investigate how the government security agency and the community in general could come together to reduce crime rates through community policing in Kirinyaga county.

2.12 Study Area

According to the annual police report 2014, Kirinyaga County (Appendix I) was rated second with the highest crime rate. Consequently, Kirinyaga County was among the best counties to
carry out crime prevention research methods and their efficacy in crime prevention. For that reason, the study was confined within Kirinyaga County in Central Kenya. In this area community policing initiative (Nyumba Kumi) is ongoing to curb crimes in most of the wards and locations. The choice of the location was also influenced by the fact that it was within a close proximity to the residence of the researcher and Mount Kenya University which minimizes transport cost during the research.

According to County Government of Kirinyaga report (http://www.kirinyaga.go.ke/About.html), Kirinyaga County borders Nyeri County, Murang’a County and Embu County. It covers an area of 1,478.1 square kilometers. The county lies between 1,158 meters and 5,380 meters above sea level in the South and at the Peak of Mt. Kenya respectively. Mt. Kenya which lies on the northern side greatly influences the landscape of the county as well as other topographical features.

The snow melting from the mountain forms the water tower for the rivers that drain in the county and other areas that lie south and west of the county. The county can be divided into three ecological zones; the lowland areas, the midland areas and the highlands. The county is well endowed with a thick, indigenous forest with unique types of trees covering Mt. Kenya. Mt. Kenya Forest covers 350.7 Km2 and is inhabited by a variety of wildlife including elephants, buffaloes, monkeys, bushbucks and colorful birds while the lower parts of the forest zone provides grazing land for livestock.

The rich flora and fauna within the forest coupled with mountain climbing are a great potential for tourist activities. The county has six major rivers namely; Sagana, Nyamindi, Rupingazi, Thiba, Rwamuthambi and Ragati, all of which drain into the Tana River. These rivers are the
principal source of water in the county. The water from these rivers has been harnessed through canals to support irrigation at the lower zones of the county.

The county has a tropical climate and an equatorial rainfall pattern. The climatic condition is influenced by the county position along the equator and its position on the windward side of Mt Kenya. The county has two rainy seasons, the long rains and the short rains. Administratively, the county is divided into five districts namely; Kirinyaga East, Kirinyaga West, Mwea East, Mwea West and Kirinyaga Central. The districts are subdivided further into 12 divisions, 30 locations and 81 sub-locations. The county has four constituencies namely Mwea, Ndia, Kirinyaga Central and Gichugu. Kirinyaga County has twenty (20) wards.

From the Kenya Population and Housing Census 2009 report, the population of the county stood at 528,054 persons with an annual growth rate of 1.5 percent. The population is projected to be 595,379 in 2017. Kerugoya, Sagana and Wang’uru are the only towns in the County while Kagio and Kagumo comprise the urban centers. The town with the highest population is Wang’uru with a population of 18,437; followed by Kerugoya with a population of 17,122; the least populated town is Sagana with a population of 10,344. The urban centre with the highest population is Kagio with a population of 3,512 followed closely by Kagumo with a population of 3,489. The population of Wang’uru is highest because it has a lot of economic activities, mainly rice farming while Kerugoya town had long been the District administrative headquarters.

The total road network of in the county is 1,109.11 Km, out of which 106.5 Km is bitumen, 462.05 Km is gravel and 540.5 Km is earth surfaced roads. The county has an established road network with 7 tarmac roads passing through it namely Makutano – Embu road, Kutus – Karatina road, Baricho road, Kiburu road, Kutus – Sagana road, Kutus – Kianyaga road and
Kabare – Kimunye road. There is only a 5km of railway line and one railway station in the county located in Ndia Constituency but currently not in use.

There is one airstrip located in Mwea constituency.

The mobile phone coverage stands at 99 percent while the number of fixed lines stands at 693 units. There are 5 sub-post offices and 14 cyber-cafes. There is also an increase in the usage of computers and internet in government offices, private businesses and homes due to availability portable modems and affordability of computers and laptops.

2.13 Target Population

According to Singh and Nath (2010), a population refers to an entire group of individuals, events or objects having a common observable characteristic. Research questions were designed to address issues of great relevance to groups of individuals known as a target population. In general, a target population is a well-defined group of individuals or objects seen to have similar behavioral characteristics (Mugenda 2004). The study targeted 10 wards in Kirinyaga County, each contributed 10 respondents resulting to a population of 100. The researcher samples were identified through simple random selection. Population is a complete set of individual, cases or objects with some common observable characteristics. (Mugenda, 2003). This included elders, religious/cultural leaders, local politicians, security officer’s women group representatives, teachers, college/university lecturers, and provincial administrators.

2.14 Sample Size

A sample is a portion of an entire population selected for observation (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2004). A sample of 200 respondents was required in this study. Simple Random Sampling was
used to select the respondents in this case. The researcher used simple random sampling to select ten community members from each ward making a total of 100 persons to be interviewed. Simple random sampling was used because of the population of interest is homogeneous sample of 50% as considered representative because it was at least more than 10% of the population of interest (Kothari 2004)

2.15 Sample Selection

The study used simple random sampling to identify 5 wards respondents (50%) of the study population of 10 wards which participated in focused group discussion. 12 participants, 6 female, 6 male, youth and elders from each ward. Key Informant Interviews (5 key informants from five wards: 2 Officers commanding station, 2 area chief, 2 opinion leaders, vigilante leader.

Random sampling was used because the population of interest was homogeneous. The study sampling was a probabilistic sampling technique which ensures each subject, object or respondent has equal chances of representation. (Mugenda, 2003). The researcher randomly select 10 respondents from each ward
Table 3.1. Target Population Sampling Frame

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wards</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kabare</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thiba</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Njukiine</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ngariama</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inoi</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karumandi</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mukure</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiine</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tebere</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kariti</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.16 Data Collection Methods

The Study used self-administering questionnaires in the collection of primary data. Schindler, (2006) recommends the use of questionnaires in descriptive studies because self-administered surveys typically cost less than personal interviews and sample accessibility was easy 100 questionnaires were circulated to the identified sample population. Questionnaires were used because they are convenient and require little supervision. (Warwick & Lininger (1975) stated that researchers should settle on instruments which provide utmost accuracy, generalisability & explanatory power with low cost, rapid speed and a minimum of management demands with high administrative convenience.

Questionnaires selected explain were selected through simple random sampling whereby several households were mapped and coded with numbers. The mapping was done on purposive sample
based on the level of crime rates in the various wards, (police data). The codes were then randomly sampled to get the households to be issued with questionnaire.

In addition, Focus Group discussion (FGD) was conducted where four wards (Inoi, Tebere, Kariti, and Thiba) were purposively sampled out of the targeted ten words which in the year 2013 and 2014 had the highest crime rates (Police Records). FGD constituted twelve members who a half was female and the other half were males. Out of the six females, three were youth while the other three were aged above 35 years and with variable educational back ground. The six females had a similar segregation where three were youths while the rest were aged above 35years with variable educational background. The discussion was done in Kiswahili as a national language and to ensure that all understand the discussion and participate fully.

Key informant interviews were done to the key four respondents from the respective sampled wards with the highest crime rates. The OCPD from Kerugoya police station Inio ward, the OCS from Naguru police station/ Tebere ward, chief from Kariti ward, and a youth from Thiba ward were the Key informants.

2.17 Data Analysis Techniques

Before processing the responses, the completed questionnaires were edited for completeness and consistency. The data was then coded to enable the responses to be grouped into various categories. Data collected was purely quantitative and qualitative and it was analyzed by descriptive analysis and content analysis.

Primary data was collected using questionnaires which were administered using drop and pick method. The data collected was examined and checked for completeness and comprehensibility.
Secondary data is data which was collected from previous researchers’ works and publications while primary data was collected to address a specific research experiment.

### 2.18 Ethical Issues

A problem or situation that requires a person or organization to choose between alternatives that must be evaluated as right (ethical) or wrong (unethical). The principle of *voluntary participation* requires that people not be coerced into participating in research. This is especially relevant where researchers had previously relied on 'captive audiences' for their subjects -- prisons, universities, and places like that. Closely related to the notion of voluntary participation is the requirement of *informed consent*. Essentially, this means that prospective research participants must be fully informed about the procedures and risks involved in research and must give their consent to participate. Ethical standards also require that researchers not put participants in a situation where they might be at *risk of harm* as a result of their participation. Harm can be defined as both physical and psychological. There are two standards that are applied in order to help protect the privacy of research participants. Almost all research guarantees the participants *confidentiality* they are assured that identifying information will not be made available to anyone who is not directly involved in the study. The stricter standard is the principle of *anonymity* which essentially means that the participant will remain anonymous throughout the study -- even to the researchers themselves. Clearly, the anonymity standard is a stronger guarantee of privacy, but it is sometimes difficult to accomplish, especially in situations where participants have to be measured at multiple time points (e.g., a pre-post study). Increasingly, researchers have had to deal with the ethical issue of a person's *right to service*. Good research practice often requires the use of a no-treatment control group -- a group of participants who do *not* get the treatment or
program that is being studied. But when that treatment or program may have beneficial effects, persons assigned to the no-treatment control may feel their rights to equal access to services are being curtailed.

Even when clear ethical standards and principles exist, there will be times when the need to do accurate research runs up against the rights of potential participants. No set of standards can possibly anticipate every ethical circumstance. Furthermore, there needs to be a procedure that assures that researchers will consider all relevant ethical issues in formulating research plans. To address such needs most institutions and organizations have formulated an Institutional Review Board (IRB), a panel of persons who reviews grant proposals with respect to ethical implications and decides whether additional actions need to be taken to assure the safety and rights of participants. By reviewing proposals for research, IRBs also help to protect both the organization and the researcher against potential legal implications of neglecting to address important ethical issues of participants.

According to Wallen (1993), ethical issues in research refer to those rules, guidelines and regulations that should be observed by an investigator so as to help reconcile conflicts when undertaking a study. The researcher obtained permission from the relevant authorities so as to carry out this study. Information collected from respondents was kept with a lot of confidentiality. To avoid plagiarism, all materials cited in the research work were acknowledged through referencing.
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

4.1 Introduction

The research objective sought to assess the role of community policing in crime prevention; a case of Kirinyaga County, Central Kenya. This chapter presents the analysis and findings with regard to the objectives and discussion of the same. Respondents were a mixture of the youths and women and men who are mostly affected by different types of crime in Kirinyaga County, Central Kenya. The findings are presented in %, frequency distributions, pie charts, graphs, mean and standard deviations.

4.2 Response Rate

Out of 200 questionnaires sent out to individual youths, there was a positive a response rate of 180 representing 90 %. This was a very good response rate which is more than two thirds of all the respondents.

4.3 Awareness of the Initiative

It critically analyze how dissemination of the Community Policing and how it plays role of curbing insecurity in the grass-root level.
4.3.1 Citizen Awareness on Community Policing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ward</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ngariama</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tembere Ward</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kabare</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiine</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mukure</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karumandi</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Inoi</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Njukiine</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thiba</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kariti</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>180</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall levels of awareness however slightly differ for the different wards. Tembere ward has the highest level of awareness followed by Ngariama and the least being Kiine ward. The studies also show that there was a difference in awareness of the Community policing specifically Nyumba Kumi Initiative in the different study regions.
4.3.2 Individual Awareness of Community Policing

Table 4.2 Individual Awareness about community policing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No. Of Person</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aware</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Aware</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table (Table 4.2), is an indication that individuals are aware of community policing with 76.1% (137) of the sampled population of 180 persons showing awareness and only 23.9% (43) showing an unawareness.

4.3.3 Demographic Information

Table 4.3 Gender of the respondent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study sought to determine on the gender of the respondent and therefore requested to indicate their gender. The study found that majority of the respondent as shown in the table above 60% were females and whereas 40% of the respondents were males. This is an indication
that both genders were involved in this study and thus the finding of the study did not suffer from gender inequality.

4.3.4 Distribution of Household by Occupation

Table 4.4 Distribution of household by Occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farmers</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>65.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil servants</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>180</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Majority of households who participated in the study were farmers 118 (65.6%), business men/women 30 (16.7%), unskilled 15 (8.3%), skilled 10 (5.5%), and civil servants 7 (3.9%) by occupation. This shows that most of the residents stay within the county undertaking farming thus are directly involved in the various aspects of community policing like youth vigilante, nyumba kumi initiative and community court systems.
4.3.5 Levels in Which Community Courts Helps Reduce Crime in Kirinyaga County

Table 4.5 Community courts and crime prevention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very great extent</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great extent</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate extent</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low extent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 4.5 above, 60% of the respondents consider to a very greater extent community courts have reduced the levels of crimes in Kirinyaga County, 25% considers it to a great extent, 12.8% to a moderate extent and 2.2% to a low extent. This implies that to a reasonable extent the respondents agree that the community court systems have influenced and reduced the rates of crime in Kirinyaga County. This is in agreement with Mwaura (2014) who also found out that community court systems enhance basic mutual trust between the community, the police and other stakeholders.

Community Court Systems can be interpreted therefore to influence the cause, spread and control of crimes. This is manifested in terms of participation whereby the community members have been empowerment and capacity built hence they could interrogate, seek for accountability and criticize bad behaviors in the community and the County as a whole according to Njiri (2014).
4.4 Community Policing in its Effectiveness in Crime Prevention

This section looks at community policing and its effectiveness on crime prevention which is one of the objectives of the study. This section is divided into 3 parts namely: the community partnership and crime, preventive-strategy, and problem-solving strategies and crime.

This section looks at community partnership and crime. The frequency of the involvement of the community in policing practices in the households ‘jurisdiction is given in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Frequency of the involvement of the community members in policing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practicing Involvement</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very often</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occasional</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 above indicates the frequency of community involvement in policing at 44.4% being very often. This confirms that the frequency of community policing by the community is high compared by only 2.3% whose response of community policing gave a verdict of rarely. This was in accordance to an analysis by Ngari (2014).
Table 4.7 Statement on community partnership and crime

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community partnership</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We work with the community towards a common interest.</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>68.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The community is interested in solving crime problems just as police are.</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community is aware of community policing and the community has enhanced crime prevention.</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>51.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence between community and police.</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community is familiar with common trends of crime acts due to frequent notices from the police.</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust between the community and police in crime prevention</td>
<td>81.9</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 4.8 indicate that, majority of the households (81.9%) strongly disagreed that trust between the police and the community has enhanced crime prevention, while a significant number of participants (31.1%) strongly disagreed that there is confidence between community and police makes reporting of crime easy, as statements regarding community partnership and crime. Table 4.8 also reveals that a large proportion of the respondents agreed with; the community is familiar with common trends of crime acts due to frequent notices and through
community policing regarding community partnership and crime. However, a large percentage of the respondents agreed that they work with the community towards a common interest (68.4%), the community is interested in solving crime problems. There is little trust and confidence the community has in police officers as 81.9% disagreed and only 8.8% agreed. This was in accordance to the findings by Maina (2014).

4.5 Youth Vigilante and Crime Prevention

Table 4.8: Extent that youth vigilante influence crime prevention in Kirinyaga County

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very great extent</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great extent</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate extent</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low extent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8 shows that 50% of the respondents consider youth vigilante to a very greater extent influence on crime prevention in Kirinyaga County, 35% considers it to a great extent, 12.8% to a moderate extent and 2.2% to a low extent. This implies that to a reasonable extent the respondents agree that the levels of crime in the County has been reduced through youth vigilantes who engage in night patrols to counter any form of insecurity and crime. Youth vigilante initiative as a means of community policing can be interpreted therefore to influence the rate of crime happenings in the County especially at night. This was agreeing to a report by Koki (2009) who observed that crime had reduced among residents of Kano due to the critical role played by the vigilante groups.
Table 4.9 Involvement of community in community policing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Involvement of the community in community policing</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.9 indicates that, majority of the households 150 (83.3%) agreed that involving the community in community policing has helped reduce or prevent crime levels in the area while 30(16.7%) disagreed. The study sought to find out some of the public and/or private agencies involved in community policing partnership to combat criminal activities in the area. The responses given include: chiefs; district officers; police; and county government. The most common techniques employed to facilitate community policing partnership to combat crime. This study was highlighted by The Kenya Police Service in their Annual Crime Report (2014).
4.7 Levels of Communication and Community Policing

Table 4.10: Extent that the levels of education influence community policing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very great extent</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great extent</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate extent</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low extent</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10 shows that 70 % of the respondents consider to a very greater extent their education influences community policing that is Nyumba kumi initiative, community court system and youth vigilante, 15.6 % considers it to a great extent, 8.3% to a moderate extent and 6.1% to a low extent. This implies that to a reasonable extent the respondents agree that the levels of education influenced community policing that are the levels of crime prevention in Kirinyaga County. The level of education can be interpreted therefore to influence crime management, planning and control. This is manifested in terms of participation whereby those with low education have low understanding on how to effectively and efficiently be vigilant and communicate on security issues. Unlike the community that has empowerment and capacity building, they will be always observant, vigilant and effectively communicate any form of anomalies in the community.
4.8 Attitude Factors Affecting Community Policing and Crime Prevention

Table 4.11: Attitude factors affect community policing and crime prevention.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>61.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.11 helped establish that the attitude of the community members on community policing was very significant for the participation of the respondents as majority (61.7%) strongly agreed that attitude highly affect the level of participation of community members in community policing. And they were followed by those who agreed at 32.8%. Those who cited that attitude did not affect community policing disagreed to an extent of 5.5%. This means that community regards the attitude as most factor to community policing. This is a positive attribute to the community as they are likely to benefit more if all the members of the community irrespective of age can initiate the community policing initiatives and embrace a positive attitude. This is in agreement with a thesis by Nwaeze (2010) who observed that community policing initiatives among the Igbo had dramatically reduced the rate of crime.

Information obtained from FGD and Key informant interviews corroborated data from the survey. From the FGD, it came out clearly that so many residents from Kirinyaga county take active part in community policing as they believe that if they work together they can achieve
crime prevention. Most of them have the knowledge of community policing and take active part in initiatives like Nyumba kumi initiative, community court system that is presided over by elders as well as youth vigilante groups through night patrols.

Through community policing crime rates have reduced in the county but there is still need for more education, empowerment and capacity building to the community members to better and encourage more involvement. Also through education the community members get to learn on how to be vigilant and effectively and efficiently communicate any form of anomalies that may be realized in the community.

From the FGD it was realized that though effective community policing is effective in crime prevention, there is need to fill the disparity gap in terms of gender equity in constituting the various community policing groups. It was noted that the groups should be all inclusive of men women and the youth with a major focus on women and the youth since they are heavily impacted on by crimes such as rape, robbery, drug abuse, petty thefts and domestic violence.

From the interviews with the key informants, it was clear that there is little trust between the community members and the police. The community believes that it is the police that facilitate most of the crimes as they protect the culprits. They have also been accused of taking bribes from the community as well as the criminals hence encouraging the rise in crime rates thus the community members decided on community policing as a means of crime prevention which so far has succeeded.
It was also noted that in areas with high crime rates like Inoi, Tebere, Kariti and Thiba still need more education, empowerment and capacity building so that they can embrace community policing at its best. This will change the attitude of the community towards community policing and encourage inclusive and active participation.

Among the community policing initiative, it was clear that Nyumba kumi initiative was most preferred to community court system and youth vigilante since it’s a smaller unit through which neighborhood can use to protect their territories from crimes.
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents summary, conclusion and recommendation of the research study and suggestion for further study.

5.2 Summary

The study analysed the data and found that community policing is highly effective though crime continues to raise calling for more interventions to address the emerging challenges which include but not limited to technological social and economic challenges with a bearing to the performance of the police in engaging the community in policing affairs

The vigilante groups comprised of young people most of who are not engaged in any economic activity but supports their parents either in business or in the farming activities. The group plays a major role in community policing.

According to Baker (2008) level of education, empowerment and capacity building by the community leaders and government social department is crucial in community policing. Knowledge and attitude change is essential in enhancing effective and efficient communication between the community and police officers who may be of different ethnic background. This resonates well with the finding that the wards with the highest crime are those with the poorer economic performance and with lower education level in the county. The education of police officers and the level of their training was not researched. Community traditional courts play a valuable role in dispute resolution helping to curb crimes of retaliations and is cost effective.
The study established that community members who live in gated community do not embrace community policing since they argue that they are able to engage their own private security guards and that they pay taxes to the government to provide security. Those who live in gated community do not allow those other citizens entry to their homes citing security reasons, they maintain gatemen and or electric fence. This leads to impediments in implementation of community policing initiatives as they view it as a system for the poor or the less advantaged persons. This collaborates with Maina (2014) findings.

The study established that the number of community members who are aware of community policing was higher than that of those who were not aware though, the level of participation in community policing was very low.

Community empowerment, awareness programs and capacity building is necessary to influence community participation to make community policing a success.

As identified and clearly stated out by the Beureau of Justice (1994), the trust between the police and the community remains low and may require further research.

5.3 Conclusion

As supported by Mwaura (2014) study on the factors that affect effective implementation of of community policing in Kajiado North and who established that community-police partnerships are critical in crime reduction, I conclude that the government should strengthen the adoption of community policing as a style of policing through budgetary allocations to cater for community
policing forum members and informers. Specifically, the findings support the need for strengthening the role of joint police-community patrols as well as the engagement of vigilante groups and community courts. Government should also ensure an enabling legislative and administrative environment, increase police resources such as personnel and equipment and provide training to foster sensitization on community policing for police and community policing forums members. An adequate level of deployment of police officers improves the level of security. Issues such as proper coordination between the police and the provincial administration, support of community policing by County government, streamlining appointment of community policing forums members and village elders and offering identification to community policing forums members should be considered. The disabled members of the society should also be incorporated into community policing forums while integration among inhabitants to address ethnicity and cultural differences should be actively fostered. Community policing forums should also enjoin more young people and female residents. Police should improve on the integrity levels by sensitizing junior officers on its benefits to community policing and to general crime reduction.

5.4 Recommendations

The recommendation of this report agrees with Njirii (2014) that community policing is a success and plays a major role in crime prevention. The community awareness on community policing is very high but the implementation leaves a gap that can be fully eliminated if the community and the police can bond and build trust, have police officers trained specifically on community policing and community leaders be inducted on how to work with the police through modern communication technology and on how to relate to prevent crime.
Vigilante groups and traditional courts though play a major role and community policing leaves a gap that require research regarding the mood of appointing those who participate and best way to reward those youths and elders who work tirelessly without any pay for the safety and comfort of others in crime prevention.

The study further recommends that to ensure proper communication, mechanisms should be put in place to train community leaders including vigilante groups on modern technological communication and avail modern facilities like smart phones and motorcycles.

To this end, this study therefore recommends more similar research to be conducted not only in Kirinyaga county but the whole country to assess the challenges faced during the implementation of Community policing Initiative by the Department of Internal Security as well as Government agencies.
REFERENCES CITED


Kibaki, Mwai (2006) Speech to mark the 1st anniversary of community policing program available online at http://www.statehousekenya.go.ke/ last accessed 11.11.2010


'Transitional Society', *Police Quarterly* 8(1): 64-98


APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: MAP OF KIRINYAGA COUNTY
APPENDIX II: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Joseph Muchira Mwaniki
Mount Kenya University,
Department of ISSJE
P.O Box 342,
Thika

To whom it may concern

RE: RESEARCH

I am a post graduate student pursuing Masters in Governance and Ethics at Mount Kenya University. I am conducting a research on the role of community policing on crime prevention in Kirinyaga County in Kenya. Kindly and honestly respond to all the items of the questionnaire. The questionnaire is basically for research purposes only and hence utmost confidentiality of identity will be observed. Please do not write your name and the name of your school anywhere on the questionnaire. Thank you in advance for your anticipated co-operation.

Yours faithfully,

Muchira Joseph
APPENDIX III: QUESTIONNAIRE
My name is Muchira Joseph Mwaniki, a student at Mount Kenya University. The purpose of this study is assessing the role of community policing Initiative in Kirinyaga County. The data collected and results computed will be strictly for academic purposes and all information given will be handled with utmost confidentiality. Please give frank answers for they will be of great contribution to this research.

1. Gender  Male   [ ] Female  [ ]

2. What are the causes of crime in Kirinyaga County? (Probe)
   …………………………………………………………………….
   …………………………………………………………………….

3. Identify any form of community policing that has been implemented in Kirinyaga County?
   …………………………………………………………………….
   …………………………………………………………………….

4. Community policing Initiative has helped in curbing crime in Kirinyaga County?
   
   Strongly agree   [ ]  Agree   [ ]  Disagree Strongly   [ ]  Disagree  [ ]
   Not Sure   [ ]
   
   Explain……………………………………………………………………….
   ………………………………………………………………………………….
   ………………………………………………………………………………….

5. Community-police patrols are effective in prevention crime in Kirinyaga County?
   
   Strongly agree   [ ]  Agree   [ ]  Disagree  [ ]  Strongly Disagree  [ ]
   Not Sure   [ ]
6. Is there an active youth vigilante in your ward? If yes, explain their work in crime prevention?

........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

7. What is the attitude of the people affected by community crimes towards the implementation of community policing?

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<tr>
<th>Very Good</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Bad</th>
<th>Very bad</th>
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<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
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8. What do you understand by the term “community court process”?

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9. Does attitude of the people affects the implementation of community policing?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>Not Sure</td>
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(Probe) ..............................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

10. What is the role of youth vigilante in crime prevention in Kirinyaga County?
(Probe) ..............................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
11. Does inter-personal relationship between the community members and government security agencies contribute to the efficient implementation of Community policing?

Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly Disagree [ ]

Not Sure [ ]

Explain…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

12. Are you a member of any community policing Initiative in the County?

Yes [ ]
No [ ]

If yes, how has the initiative helped reduce crime in the county?
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

13. What do you understand by the term joint patrols? (Probe)

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…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
14. Have you noticed any impact of joint patrol in prevention crimes in the County?

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<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not Sure</td>
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</table>

15. With reference to your ward, identify any community courts that you actively take part in and how helpful in crime prevention?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

16. What is the approximate number of active members in the community court?

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…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

17. Identify and elaborate on the successful cases that have been solved through community courts?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

18. What is your general view about crime prevention since the introduction of community policing?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
19. Use the scale below to rate the effectiveness of joint community-police patrols, vigilante groups and community courts

1. Strongly Effective
2. Effective
3. Ineffective
4. Strongly ineffective
5. Not sure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Means of Community policing</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joint community-police patrols</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Youth vigilante</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Community courts</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

20. Have the impacts of community participation in crime prevention a reality in Kirinyaga County?

Strongly agree [ ] Agree [ ] Disagree [ ] Strongly Disagree [ ] Not Sure [ ]
APPENDIX IV: KEY INFORMANT GUIDE

1. What do you understand by community policing? Give various initiative planned towards community policing in your ward? Which one seems to be more effective?

2. How would you describe the general awareness and knowledge of the community about community policing? What is your knowledge about community policing?

3. Give various initiative planned towards community policing in your ward? Which one seems to be more effective?

4. How would you describe the general awareness and knowledge of the community about community policing?

5. Elaborate on how education levels of community members affect participation and attitude of the people towards community policing initiative in Kirinyaga County?

6. Suggest any improvement measures that can be put in place to better community policing in Kirinyaga County?

7. What is your take on gender and community policing in Kirinyaga County. Do you any form of gender disparity and if Yes, suggest way in which it can be corrected?

8. Describe the community-policing relationship and partnership in crime prevention?

9. Have the impacts of community participation in crime prevention a reality in Kirinyaga County?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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<tr>
<td>Not Sure</td>
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</table>

10. What is the attitude of the people affected by community crimes towards the implementation of community policing?

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<th>Very Good</th>
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<th>Very bad</th>
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</table>
APPENDIX V: WORK SCHEDULE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20(^{th}) - 27(^{th}) May 2015</td>
<td>Problem Identification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3(^{rd}) - 27(^{th}) June 2015</td>
<td>Introduction and Submission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10(^{th}) - 26(^{th}) August 2015</td>
<td>Corrections, Literature Review, Research Methodology and Submission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3(^{rd}) - 14(^{th}) October 2015</td>
<td>Corrections of the Submission, References and Appendices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30(^{th}) – October 2015</td>
<td>Submission of the final proposal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4(^{th}) - 16(^{th}) November 2015</td>
<td>Collection of data, Data analysis, Interpretation and Presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18(^{th}) - 22(^{nd}) December 2015</td>
<td>Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10(^{th}) October 2016</td>
<td>Submission of the Research Project</td>
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</tbody>
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## APPENDIX VI: BUDGET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Amount</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Typing and printing of the Research project</td>
<td>25000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typing, printing and photocopying the research instrument</td>
<td>30000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100shs. per questionnaire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library services</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet services</td>
<td>10000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport to the field</td>
<td>25,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data collection and analysis</td>
<td>30000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refreshments and Lunch during fieldwork</td>
<td>15000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource mobilization person, translation facilities and security services</td>
<td>20000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other costs (stationery, pen &amp; pencils, note books, projector)</td>
<td>15,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>15000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>205000</strong></td>
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