ASSESSING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN CRIME CONTROL IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY OF THE UPPER WEST REGION OF GHANA

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ASSESSING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN CRIME CONTROL IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY OF THE UPPER WEST REGION OF GHANA

BY

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DISSERTATION/THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL STUDIES, FACULTY OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

NOVEMBER, 2019
DECLARATION

Student

I, Stephen Opoku Kwame, hereby declare that this thesis is as a result of my own original work except for the references to other people’s work which have been duly acknowledged. This work has not been presented in part or whole to this University or elsewhere for any degree.

Candidate’s Signature: ........................................... ............................

STEPHEN OPOKU KWAME  DATE

Supervisor

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University for Development Studies.

Supervisor’s Signature: ........................................... .............................

DR. SAMUEL MARFO  DATE
ABSTRACT

Crime remains a major challenge confronting societies, especially, urban communities which continue to experience influx of people with various criminal orientations. In maintaining safety in communities through crime control, the approaches hitherto in Ghana had been focusing on formal state institutions notably the Ghana Police Service to the neglect of community crime control actors. Apparently, there is a growing concern as to the need for community to participate in crime control to complement that of the institutional level efforts due to the growth of human population, increased in crime levels, inadequate logistics and manpower challenges facing the law enforcement agencies. Against this background, this thesis examined how communities contribute to crime control as well as the various challenges hindering their activities using Wa Municipality in the Upper West Region of Ghana as a case study. Using a case study design, the thesis purposely selected 48 community crime control actors together with four key informants from whom primary data were gathered through interviews and focus group discussions. The study revealed that community actors participate in crime control in the study locality in diverse ways through: supply of information on crime and offenders and provision of financial and logistics support to the police, direct arrest of suspected criminals, education on responsible citizenship, and paid security guards (Watchman engagement) which complements the work of the police and improves community sense of safety. Despite the reported contributions, this thesis found that the activities of the local crime control actors were fraught with challenges including: the philosophy of ‘Tijaa-bunyini’ (‘we are
all one’), lack of basic working tools, insider trade and breach of trust. On the basis of the findings, it is recommended that the public should support especially the neighbourhood watchdog committee with a token of money and other basic tools such as torchlights, batteries, uniforms and boots. More so, Police officers who divulge information confided in them to unauthorized persons by the community actors should be sanctioned appropriately.
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my departed wife Sarah Nkrumah and my son, Lord Osei Opoku who for now represents the departed mother. Her advise and prayers in the middle of this research work guided me to the completion stage when faith became faithless. Though, she did not live to witness the entire work but her words remains fresh in my life.
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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ASP........................................... Assistant Superintendent of Police

CPCC........................................ Community Participation in Crime Control

DCID........................................... District Criminal Investigation Department

DOVVSU ......................... Domestic Violence and Victim Supporting Unit

FGD................................................ Focus Group Discussion

GPRTU.......................................... Ghana Private Road Transport Union

GPS................................................ Ghana Police Service

GSS ................................................ Ghana Statistical Service

HND............................................... Higher National Diploma

JHS.................................................. Junior High School

JSS................................................... Junior Secondary School

L.I ................................................ Legislative Instrument

MSLC............................................. Middle School Leaving Certificate

NPD.................................................. National Patrol Department

NFE................................................ Non Formal Education

NSA.............................................. National Sheriffs Association

PAD................................................ Public Affair Directorate
PROTOA………………………………….. Progressive Transport Owners Association

RDF …………………………………………………….. Rapid Deployment Force

SHS………………………………………………………… Senior High School

HPU ……………………………………………………… Highway Patrol Unit

ICPC………………………………….. International Centre for Prevention of Crime

ICT…………………………………. Information Communication Technology

CCTV………………………………………………………… Closed Circuit Television

TRC………………………………………………. Truth and Reconciliation Commission

UWR………………………………………………. Upper West Region

WASSA………………………. West African Security Services Association

MTTD……………………………………………… Motor Traffic and Transport Department

UNODC…………………………. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

SHS………………………………………………………… Senior High School

SSS…………………………………………………… Senior Secondary School

UK……………………………………………………… United Kingdom

UN ………………………………………………….. United Nations

UNDP …………………………… United Nations Development Program

UNHSP ………………………. United Nation Human Settlement Programme

US……………………………………………………… United States
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND PERSPECTIVE OF THE STUDY

1.1 Background of the Study

Brown, Halle, Moreno and Winkler (2007), noted that common risk threaten the security of individuals, regardless of their nationality. Brown et al. (2007) argue that old notions of national security predicated on the defence of state borders make little sense when the threats posed by violence and conflicts, international networks of terrorists and criminals, pandemics and natural disasters require a new approach to protecting people. In congruence, United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UNHSP, 2007) indicates that crime is pervasive in both developed and developing countries. In the view of Cawthra (2003), crime remains one of the greatest threat to individual and communities’ peace and security. Brown et al. (2007) opine that peace and security are critical as they are essentially preconditions for sustainable development. Clinard and Abbott (1973) assert that increased crime in developing countries is an unavoidable consequence of rapid industrialisation and urbanisation. Clinard and Abbott (1973) see crime in developing countries as the price for change, an index of progress, an inevitable developmental stage and a by-product that cannot altogether be prevented but can be ameliorated. Clinard and Abbott (1973) further predict that property crimes, such as robbery, will increase in relationship to the level of social change.
According to Appiahene-Gyamfi (2003), before the advent of Western civilization and penal system to Africa, traditional African societies had means of social control, reformation and moral cleanser which were the various traditional societal channels of controlling crime. Appiahene-Gyamfi (2003) noted these means of social control included the council of elders, chiefs and village heads whose functions among others was the interpretation of the code of conduct and behaviour of the subsisting community as passed down from generations to generation. Appiahene-Gyamfi (2003) asserted though traditional societies lack written laws, they had well-established institutions for controlling crime and maintaining social order. These institutional arrangements served as instruments to correct and provide justice, just as law enforcement agencies within countries in modern times address crime issues in communities (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2003).

Marfo (2016) indicates that, with the advent of modern political system of governance and its security arrangements and apparatus, more formal crime control mechanisms have been created. Thus, in an attempt to ensuring a sound security through control of crime, Ghana has over the years through its legislative, executive and judicial functions instituted a number of interrelated bodies/institutions including the Judiciary, the Police Service, the Prison Service, the Armed Forces and the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice (Marfo, 2016). As indicated by Twumasi (1985), every community aspires to live in peace. In view of this, societies, either primitive or civilised, have at some stage or other of their development, formulated policies designed to reduce,
if not eradicate criminal tendencies (Twumasi, 1985). Marfo (2016) however, is of the view that though the fight against crime cannot be the sole mandate of one institution, and as such needs a multi-institutional or multi-sectorial approach, the police service can actually be deemed as the state institution that is primarily promulgated to spearhead the fight against crime in Ghana (Marfo, 2016). The activities of the Ghana Police Service (GPS) are guaranteed by the 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana (Constitution of the Republic of Ghana, 1992).

Karn (2013) argues that one noticeable thing is that the police, through the traditional reacting policing mechanisms have always been visible in communities wherever they control crime which involves random patrol and response, stop and search, investigation and detection, and intensive enforcement (Karn, 2013). The hither-to existing policing mechanism is thus, incident-driven with less community involvement (Karn, 2013). Traditional policing approach to security therefore keeps the police and the community apart and often fails to meet the security needs of the community (Sadd and Grinc (1994). According to Sadd and Grinc (1994), the growing security needs of the society and the embedded deficiency in traditional policing approach has led to community policing concept.

Skolnick and Bayley (1988) have pointed out that crime control has therefore become a major pre-occupation of both developed and developing countries. Skolnick and Bayley (1988) have noted that increased levels of contact between
Police officers, individual community, residents, and existing community organizations is seen as a key to a meaningful crime control. Skolnick and Bayley (1988) expressed the idea of collaboration between the police and the citizens, features in most definition of community policing. The police and community residents are ultimately supposed to become collaborators in crime prevention (Skolnick and Bayley, 1988). This suggests that the police alone as an official agency primarily responsible for crime control are not enough to provide the needed security for the masses. As a result, the contribution of informal mechanisms of social control based on traditional practices is critical in complementing formal reactive enforcement-based policing mechanisms (UNHSP, 2007; Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2003).

In congruence, Sadd and Grinc (1994) have pointed out that every explanation of community policing stresses on the idea that the police and the community should work together to define and develop solutions to problems. Skogan (1989) indicates it is obvious that the police alone can neither create nor maintain safe communities without the support from the citizens. Skogan (1989) expresses communities can help by putting in place voluntary local efforts to prevent crime. In this regard, citizens complement the efforts of law enforcement agencies through programmes such as neighbourhood watch, target hardening, and youth and economic development programs (Skogan, 1989). Skogan (1989) argues by opening themselves to citizen input, the police will be more knowledgeable about, and responsive to the varying security concerns of the masses. In the view of
Skogan (1990), the police have narrowed their mission and strategies, and as a result systematically, they have overlooked many pressing community concerns which they construe as falling outside their mandate. Skogan (1990) claims by broaden their scope of operation; the police will be more proactive and effective to pursue their most fundamental task of maintaining law and order.

Community policing could therefore be conceptualized as a security arrangement that promotes strong partnership between communities and state agencies in pursuit of crime and safety policies. It is viewed as a proactive problem-solving strategy which engages members of the community in various crime control programmes. Thus, community sense of security becomes the highest concern. In this regard, policing becomes a shared enterprise. In simple terms, the community becomes a stakeholder in crime control policies.

Regardless of its intended objectives, community policing is beset with challenges as various evaluation studies have shown (Grinc, 1994; Sadd and Grinc, 1994). Grinc (1994) and Sadd and Grinc 1994) studies revealed that hostilities, distrust, and fear were common problems identified in many of the neighbourhoods where community policing was instituted. Murphy (2000) argues that the Canadian approach to community policing for instance, has been particularly conservative in that the community is viewed as a secondary agent, rather than as a critical participant in daily crime control.
In a similar view, Mastrofski (2006) asserted that community policing is the most popular policing reform in the United States, and is very popular abroad, but little attention has been paid to just how challenging it has been to implement. Mastrofski (2006) concluded that the efficacy of the community policing concept is undermined by traditional impediments to organizational change, scarce resources and a resistant police culture.

In responding to the changing security needs of society, across the globe including Ghana, the Police Service continuously employ a number of strategies in dealing with the menace of crime and public safety in general which is a key enabler for development (Marfo, 2016). One of such new strategies has been the institution of the police visibility. Police visibility aims at increasing police-citizen contact, more personalized policing, more opportunity for community input, and more information sharing between the police and the public, with the over-all view of controlling crime through deterrence (Marfo, 2016). What makes visibility policing a ‘new concept’ especially in the context of policing in Ghana is perhaps, it is more problem-oriented and proactive rather than reactive approach to policing in response to emerging security threats and challenges confronting modernity which seeks to reduce public fear of crime by announcing the frequent presence of the police in communities, whether by foot patrol, car patrol or by static patrol or sentry guard, as stated by Assistant Superintendent of Police, (ASP) AffiaTenge – the Greater Accra Regional Police Public Relation Officer (Daily Guide, March, 2014).
According to Marfo (2016), police visibility is deemed to have a suppressive effect on crime and besides, boosts public sense of safety. Even though there are no randomized experimental studies on a large scale concerning the actual effects of visibility policing on crime reduction, yet, as noted by Koper and Mayo-Wilson (2012), studies conducted in US and Colombia suggested that directed patrols in high gun crime areas can lead to reduction in gun carrying and gun related violence. Telep and Weisburd (2011:37-8) have pointed out that studies conducted by Police Foundation (1981) and Ratcliffe et al. (2011) respectively suggested that directed patrols or increase patrol time especially at micro geographic area or crime hot spots help reduce fear of crime and violent crime. Jones and Tilley (2004) and Ratcliffe et al. (2011) (cited in Karn, 2013: 12) have equally pointed out that in the United Kingdom, foot patrols have helped reduce personal robberies, and in Philadelphia, targeted foot patrols were found to have significantly reduced violent crimes respectively. Results from the studies conducted in different social settings, especially in UK and US (known countries with literature works on visibility policing) on the actual effects of visibility policing vary (Karn, 2013). Nonetheless, the information available as discussed above may suggest that increase police patrol time or frequent physical presence of the police in a given crime spot or community, has the capacity to reduce crime and besides, boost the public sense of safety, a foundation for any sustainable development (Marfo, 2016).
Arguably, according to Atuguba (2007), the Ghana Police Service has often come under the attack of the general public. In the view of Atuguba (2007), most Ghanaians are dissatisfied with the institution called the Ghana Police Service and perceive the police as among the most corrupt institutions. The police visibility programme has been received with a mixed reaction from Ghanaians as to its actual effects on crime control and public safety in the country (Marfo, 2016). As reported by the Ghana News Agency (2014), some stakeholders in the Wa Municipality criticised the police visibility as not beneficial to the people and described it as a ‘police sleeping’ concept.

The reality is that crime is too a complex social phenomenon to be controlled solely by the police, notwithstanding the various strategies they adopt from time to time (Tankebe, 2008). In light of this, the Ghana Police Service (GPS) is also seen as a clear case of an institution that needs a shift and orientation as it continues to adopt the traditional policing strategy which involves mainly on increasing police size, unceasing raids at perceived and actual crime hotspots and other reactive modes of policing (Tankebe, 2008). Such policing strategies have produced limited opportunities for making use of conventional institutions outside the police as well as limited engagement with the community as a whole (Tankebe, 2008). It is very crucial at this time, as put forward by Tankebe (2008) that, the traditional policing strategies of the GPS, which has served to protect the interest of the ruling class since independence and also been reactive rather than proactive in dealing with public safety and security, has led to a situation where there is
general loss of confidence and legitimacy in such institution. Thus, a policing strategy that re-establishes confidence and incorporates the various communities will be recognized as a much more useful approach. In view of this, there is an urgent call for local communities to institute mechanisms that will aid the Ghana Police Service to provide an effective means of controlling crime at the community level (Tankebe, 2008).

Kaufman and Dilla (1997) have indicated in recent times, community participation strategy has become a commonplace for the effective utilization of citizen to address varying social problems. The concept of community participation and community development dates back in 1950s, when both intertwined with each other and perceived to be having the same meaning after it has taken a complete shape with the situations that occurred in the era (The World Bank, 1996). Participation is a rich concept that varies with its application and the manner in which it is defined (The World Bank, 1996). For instance, some see participation as a matter of principle, a practice, and yet, for others, it is an end in itself (The World Bank, 1996).

Mastrofski (2006) noted there is merit in all the interpretations of participation. Mastrofski (2006) suggested the police have to work effectively with the public and communities to prevent and control crime through community-oriented policing, and other similar security approaches that encourage collaboration between the police and citizens. In this regard, participation program simply imply
the involvement of a significant number of persons in situations or actions that enhances their well-being in the area of income, security, or self-esteem (The World Bank, 1996).

From the forgoing discussions the ideal conditions contributing towards meaningful participation can be discussed from three aspects:

1. What form of participation is under consideration?–This answers the topic ‘assessing how communities participate in crime control in the Wa Municipality’.
2. Who participates in it? – The people or residents of Wa Municipality
3. What influence participation? – When there is strong relationship between law enforcement agents and the public.

Consequently, community participation has emerged as a guiding philosophy in controlling crime (Lersch, 2007). Community participation in policing is an ultimate method in combating crime in our contemporary society (Lersch, 2007). This method brings people to their toes and each individual will serve as a watchdog to their neighbour through collaborative problem-solving approach to meet the current demand of enhancing public and individual safety and security (Lersch, 2007). Hence, collective involvement in community participation is imperative in solving community crime problems (Manaliyo, 2016). Craig, Swatt, Shellie and Sean (2014) opine that the police play an important role in keeping
neighbourhoods safe from criminal operation. These authorities however, are of the view that the involvement of the community in crime control essentially improves communities’ sense of safety. Buttressing this point, Craig et al. (2014) cited evidence from field experiments in Houston, Newark, Flint, Michigan, and Baltimore which has shown that closer collaboration between the police and the community has reduced the people’s levels of fear of crime. Community-oriented policing thus improves relationships between the police and the public, and besides, reduces public fear of crime.

Craig et al. (2014) have pointed out that community participation in crime control is critical to community safety. Craig et al. (2014) however, have stated that many community policing efforts either underestimate the role that residents play in crime control, or simply play a lip service to community involvement. Craig et al. (2014) opine the police as legitimate institution play an important role in crime, yet, the vast majority of crime control actually results from the everyday activities of citizens. Craig et al. (2014) contend, an effective crime control strategy is one that acknowledges and embraces the importance of regular citizens in preventing crime and also seeks to enhance their ability to do so. Karn (2013) noted, we cannot think of effective control of crime without the participation of the community in contemporary societies where the sheer growth of population and inadequate logistics continue to undermine the efficient operation of the police and other law enforcement agencies. United States Department of Justice (2009) has indicated that maintaining public safety is one of the fundamental obligations
of states to their citizens. It noted that the safety of individuals and their property are essential to community’s overall quality of life. U.S. Department of Justice (2009) has stated that governments can achieve this obligation through the work of the police especially, in collaboration with the citizens. It stressed that the police require the support and assistance of others to fairly and effectively control and prevent crime and disorder. It stated that citizens should collaborate with the police because ‘the number of police officers on duty at any time is far less than the citizens, and it is impossible for the police to establish a physical presence in all places at all times’ (U.S. Department of Justice, 2009:17). Community participation is thus seen as a critical underpin of the success of the police in controlling crime in communities.

1.2 Problem Statement

Like other countries, Ghana is much concern with criminal threats. According to the Wa Regional Police Crime Report (2016) records for instance, between 2011 and 2014, the Upper West Region of Ghana alone recorded total crime cases of 4,950 ranging from murder, armed robbery, stealing, assault, human trafficking, causing harm, defilement and rape among others. The Wa Regional Police Crime Report (2016) further showed that the incidence of crime committed in the Wa Municipality increased from 298 in 2013 to 659 in 2014. However, in 2015, the total crime committed in the Municipality rose to 852, an indication of a marked upward change (Wa Regional Police Crime Report, 2016). By the first quarter of
2016 the total number of cases reported was 495 with stealing topping the list (Wa Regional Police Crime Report (2016).

Shockingly, this is coming at a time when there are continuing reports of police involvement in crime. For instance, the Wa Police Command arrested a former general constable of the Ghana Police Service while two of his accomplices were on the run (myjoyonline.com August 25, 2016). The suspect Ernest Koranteng, 30, was arrested for allegedly attempting to rob an officer of the Ghana Prisons Service, Sergeant Isaac Adams of his Loujia motorbike.

Also, with increased visibility of police on the highways, between January 2015 and March 2016, 14 highway robberies were recorded in Wa Municipality, with three fatalities and many being injured (Graphiconline.com, May 18, 2015). These and other related crime cases often occur in the presence of the police and calls for re-thinking of the approaches to crime control in contemporary Ghana.

In similar vein, some stakeholders in the Wa Municipality have criticised the police visibility; a new strategy adopted by the Ghana Police Service in controlling crime, as not beneficial to the people and described it as a ‘police sleeping’ concept (GNA, 2014). Evidently, a woman was forced to deliver her baby after she was attacked by robbers in Wa (Joy FM News, 2016). Also, robbers attacked an ambulance leading to the death of a ten (10) day old baby (Daily Graphic, October 25 2016). Additionally, robbers attacked and killed a police
officer whiles on duty in Wa, (Classfmonline.com, General News, December, 25 2016). These heinous crime incidences may suggest that the efforts of the police have to be complemented by the general public in order to ensure a sound public safety.

There had been a growing demand for community participation in crime control to complement the efforts of law enforcement agencies (Manaliyo, 2016). In the opinion of Manaliyo (2016), community participation in crime prevention is advocated by security experts as one useful way of dealing with crime in societies. This underscores the need for community participation in crime control, especially in the growing Municipalities which continue to experience influx of people. In making a case for effective community participation in crime control, Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (2000) asserted that, community policing is a proactive crime control strategy which embraces community watchdog activities, divulging sensitive information to the police and forming a close security network. Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (2000) further argues that with the involvement of communities in crime control programmes, many crimes will be dealt with by the public without necessarily police presence or intervention.

Ironically, in the Wa Municipality of Ghana, the community seems to be blaming the police, the main agent of crime control for their ineffectiveness apparently without necessarily providing them with the needed support. The police thus, have become a scapegoat. The police equally blame their deficiency in controlling
crime on low community participation. The question is, why in spite of the emphasis on the need for effective participation in crime control, and the frequent calls by the police for community support, there seem to be low community participation in crime control in the Wa Municipality? There should be an explanation to the Wa situation using empirical evidence from the people.

1.3 Research Questions

1.3.1 Main Research Question

How do communities participate in crime control?

1.3.2 Specific Research Questions

1. What are the forms of participation that exist among the various community crime control actors in the Wa Municipality?

2. What challenges do community members encounter in crime control in the Wa Municipality?

3. How can the challenges confronting stakeholders in community crime control in the Wa Municipality be resolved?

1.4. Research Objectives

1.4.1 Main Research Objective

To examine the various ways in which communities participate in crime control.
1.4.2 Specific Research Objectives:

1. To examine the forms of participation that exists among the various community crime control actors.

2. To assess the challenges that community members encounter in controlling crime in the Wa Municipality.

3. To examine the strategies that can be adopted to address the challenges facing community members in their involvement in crime control.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This thesis among others, seeks to examine how communities participate in crime control in the Wa Municipality. Community participation in crime control is a key to the safety, especially in evolving communities. Ironically, scholarly works on crime control over the years had been focusing primarily on institutional or formal mechanisms notably the police and other statutory institutions responsible for crime control to the exclusion of the participation of the individual citizens. For instance, Marfo’s (2016) work on crime control and its implications on development in the Wa Municipality focused on the institutional mechanism notably the police. Similarly, Dumenya’s (2017) work on crime control in the Wa Municipality arguably targeted the police and the need to re-consider the police visibility concept as introduced in the country. This thesis has looked intently at crime control from the perspective of the community level has done, which has
which become critical due to the growth of human population, anticipated increase in crime incidence, coupled with inadequate logistics and police personnel. This thesis seeks to fill such a gap.

It is expected that, the findings will help identify the barriers to effective community participation in crime control. This will enable the government to fashion out a more pragmatic policy which will help improve the work of communities in crime control to complement that of institutional approaches. This will help reduce the work load of the police. The police would therefore become more focused on their core functions.

The findings will be beneficial to the people in the Wa community in that, they will be enlightened as to what crime control actually involves. This will help boost the people’s sense of safety and the need for them to partnership with the police in crime control.

Moreover, the findings of this study concerning the evolution of community participation in crime control (CPCC) in the Wa Municipality would indicate that, CPCC is an emerging strategy adopted by the researcher and recommends for Ghana Police Service especially the study area to be proactive in fighting crime.
1.6 Scope of the Study

The study focuses on the role played by communities in crime control in the Wa Municipality. Specifically, it covers Mangu, Fongu, Kpaguri, Dankpalihe and Gamuni. These communities within the Wa Municipality were purposively selected because, according to the Wa Municipal Assembly (2016) and the Ghana Police Service, Wa Regional Police Crime Report (2016), crime incidences are high in recent times in these areas.

1.6.1 Profile of the Study Locality

Wa Municipal Assembly together with 10 District Assemblies makeup the Upper West Region (UWR) of Ghana. Wa doubles as the capital of the of Upper West Region. The Wa Municipal Assembly shares administrative boundaries with Nadowli District to the North, Wa East District to the East and South and the Wa West District to the West and South (Wa Municipal Assembly Report, 2016). The 2010 Population and Housing Census (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012) put the population of Wa at 107,124. Economically, Wa is strategically positioned. The 2010 Population and Housing Census (GSS, 2012) showed the service sector employs the largest labour force of about 51.3 percent.

According to Ghana Statistical Service (2012), there are three main religions in the region namely; Christianity (35.5%), Islam (32.2%) and African traditional (29.3%). There exists a wide variation among the districts in relation to religious
affiliations. Christians constitute the largest religious group in some districts including; Nadowli - 58.5 per cent and Lawra - 56.4 per cent with a very good presence in Jirapa-Lambussie - 42.5 per cent and Wa - 24.7 per cent. Islam dominates in Sissala land with 70.1 per cent and Wa 44.4 per cent. African traditional religion is preponderance in Jirapa-Lambussie (44.8%), Lawra (43.1%), Wa (27.1%) and Nadowli (25.0%) (GSS, 2012).

The illiteracy rate is high of about 75.5% among the regional population of age 15 years and beyond. This is higher than the national average of 42.1 per cent (GSS, 2012). This notwithstanding, there are a few highly educated individuals across the Upper West Region. This can be attributed to the missionary work especially the Roman Catholic Church that provide and continue to provide quality education both at the primary and secondary level in locations, which accepted the missionaries in the early 1930s (Awedoba, 2009). This confirms that education in the region cannot be separated from religion, as it is the trailblazers in education even before government intervention just as in other regions in Ghana (Awuah-Nyamekye, 2015).

The available vast arable land, educational facilities; tertiary education institutions such as; University for Development Studies (UDS), Wa Polytechnic Institute, Jahan Teacher Training College, University of Education, Wa Center and University of Cape Coast distance campuses in addition to the vocational and technical training institutions; Community Development Vocational and Technical
Institute and the Wa Senior High Technical, as well as Wa Technical Institutes and Wa Senior High School coupled and accompanied by other educational institutions have led to the influx of persons from other districts within the region in pursuit of improved academic knowledge. This in practice has led to the influx in the community complicating security issues in the locality.

The influx of people and the vibrant economic activities make the Wa Municipality a prospective target of criminal (Marfo, 2016). This in effect calls for a strong security apparatus and institutional collaboration (Marfo, 2016). Besides, the improved social amenities, averagely improved housing conditions, communication and transport systems, have also served as pull factors leading to congestion and expansion of the Municipality towards the outskirts. The implication for this is that only small part of the community witness the presence of the police leaving a large portion unattended. This in effective urgently calls for community participation in ensuring safety and also catering for the gap created by the absence of the police due to shortfall of manpower. While so much has been said about institutional level collaboration in terms of crime control, there is little information on community level participation which is critical in contemporary security approach especially in the growing towns and cities (Cragg et al., 2014). This underscores the need for critical assessment of the contribution of the various local actors in crime control in the Wa Municipality. Figure 3.1 (Map of Wa Municipal Assembly) below depicts pictorial view of the features as described below.
Figure 1.1 Map of Wa Municipal Assembly Report (2016). Inset Map of Ghana
1.7 Definition of Terms

The key terms used in this thesis have been briefly but concisely explained and arranged alphabetically for the effective understanding of the readers.

**Chiefs/Chieftaincy:** Refers to the traditional or indigenous political arrangements by which leaders with good moral standings are selected and installed in line with the provisions of their native customs and laws.

**Community Participation:** In this thesis, it implies the active engagement of a section of the public in the formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of security policies with the view of controlling crime in order to improve the safety of communities.

**Crime:** Any act which violates the law in which some level of legal sanction is applied to the offender.

**Crime control:** All the policies and mechanisms employed by stakeholders with the view to reduce crime commission to the barest minimum so as to give the public a sense of security and confidence in the course of their daily activities.

**Neighbourhood watch committee:** A voluntary group of male citizen which undertakes patrol duties both day and night with the view to complement the work of the police, and also to ensure that communities are safe from criminal threats.
**Police:** A formal state institution charged for the control of crime, and the maintenance of law and order in communities.

**Stakeholders:** Refers to persons, groups or organizations that have much interest or concern about the critical issues affecting society. In this case, the stakeholders of crime control involve all those whose contributions are considered critical to the management of crime in the Wa Municipality.

**Suntaa Nontaa Pagita Olo:** Literally meaning, ‘Let us help ourselves to do away with disgrace’. A local woman’s association targeting the welfare of its members who meet on Saturdays and make a monthly contribution to help one another.

**1.8 Structure of the Study**

The thesis is structured into five broad chapters. Chapter one deals with the background of the study, problem statement, research questions, and objectives of the research, significance of the study, the scope of the study area, and definition of key terms.

Chapter two is devoted to the review of relevant literature on conceptual issues on community participation in crime control. The chapter captures issues including crime and crime control, community and community participation, theoretical and conceptual framework on community participation in crime control, while chapter three looks at the methodological consideration which includes the research design and sampling techniques.
Chapter four focuses on data presentation and analysis. Primary information that was gathered from the field is discussed here with the support of secondary data. Chapter five looks at the summary of key findings, conclusion, recommendations, references and appendix.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the various literature on related concepts of the topic under consideration. The review focuses on previous studies on crime control strategies, participation and safety. The chapter therefore, reviews issues pertaining to policing, crime, crime control, community and community participation, theories on community participation and crime, as well as conceptualization of community participation in crime control.

2.2 Overview of the Ghana Police Service

Twumasi (1985) writes that, every society regardless of time and space has a mechanism for maintaining law, order and security. This explanation suggests that various societies throughout ages have had their own traditional forms of policing which aimed at controlling crime and maintaining law and order. Notwithstanding, according to the literature, professional policing was introduced by the British Colonial Authorities to the Gold Coast, now the Republic of Ghana in 1821 (Gillespie, 1955). The Ghana Police Squad Lesson Notes (Ghana) and Gillespie (1955) maintain that prior to 1821; traditional authorities employed and paid individuals to maintain peace and security in their communities.
In 1894, the institution of police was formalised with the passing of the Police Ordinance which gave legal authority for the formation of a civil police force. In 1902, the force was split into General, Escort, Mines and Railway Police which was legalised by the Police Ordinance of 1904. The Marine Police was formed in 1916 but disbanded in 1942 and replaced by Customs Excise and Preventive Service (Gillespie, 1955). The Criminal Investigation Department (CID) was formed in 1921 with the fingerprint section fully operational in 1922. In 1948, the Police Reserves Unit was formed to combat riotous mobs following the 1948 riots in the country. The Wireless and Communications Unit was formed in 1950 with the formal opening of the Police Information Room in Accra by the then Governor of the Gold Coast, Sir Charles Noble Arden Clarke in June 1950. By 1952, a large number of Africans were enlisted into the Police Force as junior officers. The women branch of the service was then established to be responsible for juvenile crimes and offences committed by women. In 1958, the first Ghanaian police commissioner, Mr. E.R.T. Madjitey was appointed to head the service (Ghana Police Squad Lesson Notes; Gillespie, 1955).

The preceding discussions show that the Ghana Police Service has witnessed various levels of transformation and fragmentation in an attempt to meet the security needs of Ghanaians. The operation of the Ghana Police covers the entire country. To ensure efficient and effective policing, the GPS has sub-divisions that deal with specific offences within the mandate of the service. The operation of the GPS covers twelve divisions (Ghana Police Service Instruction). Ten of the
Divisions cover the ten regions of Ghana. The Ghana Police Service Instruction explains that two of the twelve divisions are assigned to Tema and the Railway and Harbour Unit respectively. The Marine Police Unit handles oil issues. The advent of oil exploration in Ghana has made the role of the Marine Police Unit much more critical. Each Police Regional Command is sub-divided into Divisional Police Commands (the Ghana Police Service Instruction). The various Divisional Police Commands as espoused by the Ghana Police Service Instruction, are headed by Divisional Commanders. These Divisional Commanders superintendent the District Police Commands under them: (Ghana Police Service Instruction). The District Commanders play supervisory roles and are responsible for all police stations and posts under their jurisdiction (Ghana Police Service Instruction). According the Ghana Police Squad Lesson Notes and Ghana Police Service Instructions, there are other specialised units in all the regional divisions. The Regional Commanders have oversight responsibility over these units which include: Motor Transport and Traffic Department (MTTD), Highway Patrol Unit (HPU), Public Affairs Directorate (PAD), Courts and Prosecution, Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit (DOVVSU), Rapid Deployment Force (RDF), National Protection Unit (NPU), Arms and Ammunition, Finance Offices, Audit Offices, Crime Offices and Research, Planning and ICT Offices (Ghana Police Squad Lesson Notes; Ghana Police Service Instructions).

The fragmentation of the Ghana Police Service as discussed could be attributed to the growth and dynamics of society and the changing crime situation and security
needs of the country. What this suggests is that as and when it becomes necessary, a department or a unit is created by the police in response to a given security condition of the country. Maintaining security through the control of crime could be seen as a dynamic activity rather than being a static enterprise. In the view of Theresa May, MP Home Secretary of United States (2016), the fact that crime is changing means we all need to update the way we think about crime prevention, building on the successes of the past whilst making the most of new research, techniques and tools to protect the public. Even though various state agencies contribute to crime control in Ghana, the Constitution of Ghana (1992) placed internal security of the country principally within the ambit of the Police Service.

Different conception is held about the term police. Adler, Mueller and Laufer (1995) write that the police are a multi-function service agency equipped to respond to civic problems and to fight crime. Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe (2008:5) explains that the police as ‘a statutory service body charged with the maintenance of public order and safety’. In the view of OSCE (2008), the police protect the fundamental human rights and freedoms of the individuals. The police prevent and detect crime and provide assistance and services to the public (OSCE, 2008).

According to Marfo (2016), the police is an official agency or body responsible for crime control and the maintenance of public order which are essential elements underpinning safety and development. The importance of the police cannot be
overemphasized. Adler et al. (1995) for instance, have asserted that no country or city is capable of ensuring an orderly secure life for its citizens unless it polices itself. Effective policing is critical for the maintenance of public safety and promotion of development. Adler et al. (1995) summarize the function of the police into three main thematic areas namely: the service function - which involves dealing with social outcasts, drug addicts, homeless and orphans among others; order maintenance function – involves the suppression of tension between individuals and groups in societies through what the paper terms preventive patrolling which has been reviewed as a component of police visibility; and the law enforcement function. The Law enforcement has been one of the core functions of the police. This aspect of police work is probably the best known and most widely publicized, although not necessarily the task to which most police time is devoted. The primary objective of law enforcement agencies is the apprehension of law breakers and the collection of evidence that will lead to conviction in a court proceeding.

Section 12 of the Ghana Police Service Act, 1970 (Act 350) and the Ghana Police Squad Lesson Notes (p.3) for instance, outline five broad functions of the Ghana Police Service namely; (1) Protection of life and property, (2) Prevention and detection of crime, (3) Apprehension and prosecution of offenders, (4) Preservation of Peace and good order and (5) the due enforcement of all Laws and Regulations with which it is directly charged. In an attempt to achieve their stated objectives, various strategies including car and foot patrols and fixed or static
duties are carried out by the police globally (Ghana Police Squard Lesson Notes; Karn, 2013). In practice, it could be seen that the maintenance of public safety in any given country, is tied primarily to the work of the police even though they are not the sole providers of security (Marfo, 2016).

2.3 Crime

In the view of Marfo (2016), crime over the years has had the attention of theorists, scholars, sociologists, psychologists and academicians as it undermines the safety and development of countries. Cawthra (2003) expresses that crime remains one of the greatest threats to individual and communities’ peace and security. Adler et al., (1995) have pointed out that crime is a subject on which the public holds stronger views. Perhaps it is because crime concerns the entire community. Regardless of it notoriety, crime has no universal accepted definition and generally is seen as a legal construct (Twumasi, 1985). Twumasi (1985) defines crime as a legal term for any act or omission which is in contravention of the rule of conduct approved by the community, and which the community, as a party on the one side, seeks through its appropriate legal means to suppress by imposing a suitable punishment on the offender or dealing with him/her in any legally recognised manner.

Schaefer (2005) similarly construes crime as any act which violates the criminal law for which some form of punishment is applied. Schaefer (2005) indicates crimes are divided into various types on the basis of the severity of the offense, the
age of the offender, the potential punishment, and the court that holds jurisdiction over the case.

In congruence, Bohm and Keith (2007) defined crime as an intentional violation of the criminal law or penal code, committed without defense or excuse and penalised by the state. Scott and Marshall (2009) similarly view crime as an offence, which goes beyond the personal and into the public sphere, breaking prohibitory rules or laws, to which legitimate punishments or sanctions are attached, and which requires the intervention of a public authority. According to the Criminal Code of Ghana, 1960 (Act 29), crime is any act punishable by death, or imprisonment or fine. In the view of UNHSP (2007:50-51), crime is defined as ‘an antisocial act that violates a law and for which a punishment can be imposed by the state or in the state’s name’. UNHSP (2007:51) therefore noted that crime prevention approaches over the years have been targeting offenders, punishment, policing, corrections, and on victims.

The discussions above may suggest that what constitutes a crime differs from country to country, and within a given country, an act which constitutes a crime could be changed whenever there is a change or modification of the criminal code. However, one thing which is common in all definitions of crime is that it is an act which undermines public safety, development and progress, and is unacceptable and punishable by law. Crime may exact fear, anger, distrust and lack of
confidence. This probably could explain why the police are critical about the maintenance of law and order (Marfo, 2016).

International Centre for Prevention Crime (2016) has asserted that urban crime and violence are among the most important challenges and concerns in contemporary cities throughout the world. ICPC (2016:1) noted ‘all countries, regions and cities across the globe are affected by trends in crime, violence and insecurity’. ICPC (2016) further indicates crime has a major effect on victims and their surroundings and it is more difficult to eliminate. ICPC (2016) noted on daily basis, crime of all types impact on the quality of life of individuals and communities, as well as their chances of development. Crime affects individual human rights, stability, social cohesion, relations, and sustainable economic development (ICPC, 2016). In support of ICPC (2016) assertion, Gomez, Jr (2017) writes that deprivations of physical needs and corresponding human wants are increasingly becoming part of daily life in the growing, crowded cities of Asia. Such juxtaposition highlights both the insecurities of daily living and the sometimes heroic coping mechanisms that individuals employ to survive (Gomez, Jr, 2017).

UNHSP (2007) reported between 1980 and 2000, total recorded crimes increased from 2300 to 3000 crimes per every 100,000 people. This trend as noted by UNHSP (2007:12-13), was not evenly recorded in all regions in the world. It noted, in North America and Western Europe, total crime rates fell significantly
over the two decades. The report however, indicated that in the same period, total crime rates increased in Latin America and the Caribbean, Eastern Europe and Africa (UNHSP, 2007). UNHSP (2007: XXVII) further indicated that there were differences in violent acts committed in the various Regions. The report indicated that Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean recorded more homicide cases, while significantly lower rates were reported in Southeast Asia, Europe, the Eastern Mediterranean and the West Pacific region (UNHSP 2007: XXVII). At the national level, Colombia, South Africa, Jamaica, Guatemala and Venezuela were found to have recorded high homicide rates, while Japan, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Spain, Cyprus and Norway had considerably low rates (UNHSP, 2007:XXVII). Crime and violence were found to be more severe in urban areas and were compounded by rapid population growth (UNHSP, 2007). The report further noted in Latin America, where 80 per cent of the population is urban, the rapidly expanding metropolitan areas of Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Mexico City and Caracas accounted for over half of the violent crimes in their respective countries. The homicide rate in Rio de Janeiro has tripled since the 1970s, while the rate in São Paulo has quadrupled. In the Caribbean, Kingston, Jamaica’s capital, consistently accounts for the vast majority of the nation’s murders (UNHSP, 2007).

In Africa, as noted by UNHSP (2007:53), Lagos, Johannesburg, Cape Town, Durban and Nairobi were among the cities with the highest crime rate. The report also identified burglary as a major crime in urban areas in Africa. UNHSP
also identified robbery as a major threat to urban areas in many developing countries. Regionally, UNHSP (2007) found robbery to be much higher in Latin America and Africa than in other regions of the world. In Nairobi for instance, UNHSP (2007) found more than half of the citizens to be worried about crime at all time or very often. In Lagos, Nigeria, 70 per cent of respondents in a survey expressed fear of being victims of crime (UNHSP, 2007).

UNHSP (2007), reports that, terrorists attack was another evolving crime that has plagued some cities across the globe. The report cited the attack on the World Trade Center in New York (2001), the bombings of Madrid (2004), London (2005), and Mumbai (2006) as cities that have suffered the attack of terrorists in contemporary times. UNHSP (2007:66) stated that between February 2004 and May 2005, US recorded 13 terrorist incidents. UNHSP (2007: XXVIII) indicated that about 3500 people lost their lives in the terrorist attack on the World Trade Center alone besides damage to property.

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2010) has indicated that all countries experience crime, violence and victimization. UNODC, 2010:1) expresses this leads to some of the following situations:

‘Countries with high proportions of young men who are killed before they become adults, societies with families who lose a parent or have members in prison who are living in poverty and without access to support or legitimate sources of income, neighbourhoods experiencing gang wars or where there seems to be little

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public protection and security, women who are subjected to violence in their homes, or who are at risk of sexual assault in public spaces, neighbourhoods where levels of crime and insecurity have led businesses and families to cut themselves off from other citizens and public life behind gates and using private security, and migrants and minority groups living in dilapidated and isolated areas or informal settlements and subject to racial harassment and victimization’ (UNODC, 2010: 1).

In view of this, UNODC (2010; 1) indicates the preoccupation of nations is to provide security for their citizens. Crime is seen as a major threat to nations’ peace and security. Aning (2010) for instance, expresses that there is little information on the impact of firearms-related violence on tourism. He however asserted that an estimated 21,000 tourists were refrained from visiting Ghana in 2003 with the general perception of the country as being insecure. Insecurity in this sense was construed as criminal threat.

2.4 Crime Control

For the safety of communities and the maintenance of law, crime should be controlled using both formal and institutionalised mechanisms. It is in this light that Twumasi (1985) argues that regardless of time and space, every given society in its development has its own mechanisms of ensuring law and order. Crime control demands a holistic approach and has its key component being crime prevention. UNODC (2010) stresses that well-planned crime prevention strategies
prevent crime and victimization, promote community safety, and contribute to the sustainable development of countries. UNODC (2010:3) indicates that ‘a well-tailored crime prevention strategy improves the quality of life of all citizens. Crime prevention could be seen as a more cost-effective approach to communities’ safety needs. Murphy (2000), states that crime prevention targets the causes of offences, and in the long term, does so in the most cost-effective way.

In congruence, Shiner, Thom and MacGregor (2004) asserted that prevention of crime involves all activities that aim to reduce, discourage or prevent the occurrence of certain criminalities; first, by changing specific circumstances, second, by altering the situations perceived to have caused them, and third, by introducing a powerful discouragement by means of a strong system of criminal justice. Crime prevention in this regard could be seen as an aspect of the broader crime control strategies. Crime first needs to be prevented so as to make communities safe through various preventive measures. However, given the fact that crime is a social problem, regardless of the mechanisms that may be put in place to prevent the commission of crime, societies may still continue to witness various levels of criminal activities (Brown et al., 2007; Cawthra, 2003).

UNODC (2010:9) defines crime prevention as ‘all the 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’. The Ministry of Interior of the Czech Republic (2011:1) defines crime prevention ‘as an offensive strategy to combat crime’. It further stated that crime prevention strategy is a security policy which targets crime reduction, protection and assistance to victims of crime. According to ICPC (2016), prevention strategies target the elimination or reduction of violence. ICPC (2016) explains crime prevention strategies are employed far in advance of any violence and include interventions such as; social integration, education, sensitization and cooperation, among others. What this means is that, crime control strategies go beyond crime prevention mechanisms to include techniques in crime detection, arrest and prosecution of offenders. In this vein, all forms of mechanisms and strategies including: patrol duties at sensitive areas/zones and crime spots, and the use of Closed Circuit Television (CCTV) in monitoring the movement of people with suspicious behaviour; safety tip bits given to people on crime to make them less vulnerable; the gathering of intelligence/information, as well as the supply of relevant information leading to successful prosecution of offenders in the law court are part of crime control strategies (Manaliyo, 2016; Crag et al., 2014; UNODC, 2010; Shiner et al., 2004).

2.5 Community

Various conceptions are held about the concept ‘community’. Taylor (1982) has observed community is an open-textured concept. That is to say, there cannot be an exhaustive specification of the conditions for the correct use of the concept. Taylor (1982) however, argues that regardless of the conceptual complexity, three
attributes or characteristics possessed in some degree by all communities. The first and most basic of these ‘core’ characteristics is that a set of persons who compose a community have beliefs and values in common. The second characteristic is that relations between members should be direct and they should be many-sided. Relations are direct to the extent that they are unmediated by representatives, leaders, bureaucrats, institutions such as those of the state, or by codes, abstractions and reifications. The third and final characteristic of community is that of reciprocity. Community in an essence is underlined by the spirit of commonalities and mutuality or exchange among the members. According to Pelser (1999), Taylor’s (1982) definition is useful in that it places ‘community’ concretely as a form of association that may exist in varying degrees in and across different localities.

Burns, Heywood, Taylor, Wilde and Wilson (2004), have argued that the complexity of defining community stems from the fact that a given area may have several communities. In their view, too often we talk about ‘the community’ as if we are all the same. These authorities have pointed out that usually, many communities exist within an area. Shaeffer (1998) has argued that, some communities are homogeneous while others are heterogeneous; and some united while others conflictive. Some communities are governed and managed by leaders chosen democratically who act relatively autonomously from other levels of government, and some are governed by leaders imposed from above and represent central authorities. UNODC (2010:13) conceptualised community as ‘small
neighbourhoods, areas within a city, or small villages or towns, or in some cases groups of citizens with particular concerns’. According to World Bank Regional Office for Europe (2002), community is commonly used to refer to people grouped on the basis of geography and/or common interest, identity or interaction. In the view of OSCE (2008:5), community is defined as ‘a group of people with a common interest who live in the same area’.

Community may thus be conceived as a group of people who share common culture and aspiration. Community in this regard, raises a sense of bondness that exists among groups of people who share similar belief and live in a giving social setting. A group of people construed as community therefore share a common philosophy or orientation in a given geographical area. It is in this regard that Suffian, Hadi, Jamilah and Jeffrey (2012) view community as a group of people living in a specific geographical area and united by common beliefs and practices. What this means is that due to the common interest that binds various groups of people together, in the study locality being a heterogeneous society, several ‘communities’ otherwise ‘publics’ are likely to be found. In this regard, what is of interest in this thesis are or those ‘communities’ or ‘publics’ whose activities or contributions directly or indirectly help in controlling crime in the study locality.

2.6 Community Participation in Crime Control

Defining community participation raises a number of conceptual problems. Oakley (1999) has argued that in spite of the difficulty in defining community
participation, the different interpretations and inclinations cannot be divorced from the broader aim of encouraging the active participation of local people in the process as a whole. Fox and Meyer (1995) define community participation as the involvement of citizens or the public in a wide range of administrative policy-making activities including the determination of levels of service, budget priorities, and the acceptability of physical construction projects in order to orient government programmes toward community needs, build public support and encourage a sense of cohesiveness within society. Thus, community participation transcends the mere involvement of citizens/public as the beneficiaries of development but aims to involve them actively in the decision-making process. Autonomy, empowerment and voluntarism are therefore critical in community participation. In similar vein Zakus and Lysack (1998) conceptualized community participation as the collective involvement of local people in assessing their needs and organising strategies to meet those needs. Burns, Heywood, Taylor, Wilde and Wilson (2004) indicated that community participation concerns the engagement of individuals and communities in decisions about things that affect their lives. According to Lyndon et al. (2012), community participation usually have several elements such as planning and implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

Manaliyo (2016) writes that community participation in crime control activities allows ordinary citizens and the police to become co-producers of public safety. This as Pattavina et al. 2006) express, stimulates an environment in which both ordinary citizens and police share responsibilities of improving and maintaining
public order and safety. The US Department of Justice (Undated) views community crime prevention approaches as collaborative partnership arrangements between the law enforcement agency and the individuals to develop solutions to crime and increase trust in the police. ICPC (200 reiterates that crime prevention strategies comprise all the actions taken by individuals and law enforcement bodies to reduce the incidence of crimes and their potential harmful effects.

Community participation is essentially necessary in controlling crime through a calculated and a holistic approach. In the view of Aref and Ma’rof (2009), community security and development are at risk without community participation. And the lack of community participation in crime prevention program can lead to failure in the social security (Miranda, 2007).

For the purposes of this thesis, participation refers to community contributions to the maintenance of peace and security through the supply of information on crime and (potential) criminals to relevant law enforcement agencies, direct involvement in arrest and community patrols activities in the form of neighbourhood watchdog activities, and the supply of evidence leading to successful prosecution of offenders.

Community participation in crime control is crucial in meeting the overall teaming security needs of people especially, contemporary urban communities. How to
create a safer environment for people to live in remains a major challenge confronting (ICPC, 2016). ICPC (2016) stresses that, many rapidly expanding cities across the globe find it difficult to guarantee and provide safety for their inhabitants. Encouraging members of the community to participate in crime control initiatives is considered a laudable idea.

Managing security, especially urban security is a complex social task. Tankebe (2008) and Haining (2012) have hinted governments in developing countries especially, are unable to cope with the realities of today’s world. Tankebe (2008), and Haining (2012) argue that rapid urbanization of towns and cities largely challenge the pursuance of securing urban spaces particularly, in developing countries. Obeng-Odoom (2010) and Songsore et al. (2014) in their part claimed that the inability of city authorities to plan for increasing population growth has resulted in unplanned and poorly managed cities. Obeng-Odoom (2010) and Songsore et al. (2014) further argue that increasing development of slums and informal settlements has exposed a number of inhabitants to detrimental social vices such as crime.

In congruence, Adu-Mireku (2002) and Badong (2008) are of the view that the inability of state institutions to adequately provide for the safety of all citizens has heightened people’s sense of fear of crime. Consequently, as noted by Owusu et al.(2015), some individuals and households have employed various means and unconventional methods such as magic and superstition in dealing with peace,
security, and justice, while others also resort to the ‘fortification’ of their buildings. According to Alexander and Pain (2012), such tendencies raise questions about socio-economic inequality and the marginalization of the securitization of the urban built environment. Involving the citizens to complete crime control efforts of law enforcement agencies in order to meet the security needs of all in this regard is considered imperative. It is against this background that UNHSP (2007:50) has expressed that there is interplay between formal and informal institutions in controlling crime.

However, Manaliyo and Muzindutsi (2013) have indicated that the role of informal social controls which traditionally regulated the conduct of people and maintained order in societies have not been given the needed attention in the literature. As espoused by Pattavina et al. (2006:205), the interplay between formal and informal surveillance and control mechanisms is critical in ensuring the safety of communities and reintegrating offenders. These authors however, have indicated that there is inadequate information on how formal and informal surveillance and control mechanisms affect different types of offenders in different types of communities. In the view of Manaliyo and Muzindutsi (2013:122), formal crime control bodies such as the police and other law enforcement agencies are deliberately established by governments. On other hand, social informal controls are imposed and administered by ordinary citizens without external influences. Manaliyo and Muzindutsi (2013:122) further argued
that informal social controls emerge as products of role relationships and offenders are informally sanctioned based on shared values in the community.

Involvement of citizens in crime prevention could be seen as an ideal approach in meeting the security needs of communities (Manaliyo, 2016; May, 2016). According to Pattavina, Byrne and Garcia (2006), the idea that citizens have a role to play in maintaining the safety of their communities has a long-standing tradition in criminal justice theory and policy. These authorities argue that the major theoretical argument behind this claim is that people who live together in the same community possess a synergistic capacity to regulate the behaviour that occurs in that community. Pattavina et al (2006) further express that though the police play an important role in crime control, yet, the vast majority of crime control actually results from the everyday activities of citizens which makes community participation in crime control very essential. Against this background, Doyle (2006) and Lippert (2009) have pointed out that successful crime control techniques in urban communities’ demands active collaboration of actors including municipal planners and civic leaders. ICPC (2005) shares similar view when it indicated that effective implementation of crime prevention strategies depends on local involvement.

Ren et al. (2006) indicate that the involvement of civilians in the maintenance of peace and security in communities has a long history. These authors however, expressed that this active participation of civilians in crime prevention lost its
efficacy in the mid-nineteenth century after the introduction of formal policing mechanisms. As noted by the National Sheriffs’ Association (NSA) (2005), neighbourhood watch, a community crime control initiative is one of the oldest and best-known crime prevention concepts in North America. The realization that the police alone cannot control crime has seen the re-birth of communities’ active role in crime control in contemporary time. Writing about the Ghanaian situation, Badon (2009) argues that despite enjoying relative peace and stability in comparison to the West African average, the general Ghanaian population experiences an increasing level of crime and a feeling of insecurity. Badon (2009) further expresses state institutions for security and justice provision “have largely been unable to offer security to a large section of the population”, since the necessary services have historically been unequally distributed. Liebermann and Coulson (2004) have expressed that community participation in crime control is grounded on the tenet that the traditional law enforcement cannot fight crime effectively without support from local communities who know their areas.

Wanda (2008) intimates that, communities have an important role to play in preventing crime and fostering community safety. Wanda (2008) further indicates crime control policies in most Western democracies underscore the importance of community engagement or participation. In Wanda’s (2008) view, many crime and community safety issues emerge from local, specific contexts and thus make community participation in crime control very useful. Wanda (2008) expresses that community members experience crime problems first hand, and thus, have
valuable knowledge that may be critical to the success of any meaningful intervention. Wanda (2008) noted the long term success and sustainability of any crime control policy and strategy is intimately linked to the level of communities’ involvement and ownership of the strategy. Wanda (2008) further expresses that, historically, communities’ participation has always been an important element in crime prevention and social control.

2.7 Factors Influencing Effective Community Participation in Crime Control

Community participation in crime control thrives on trust and other socio-cultural and religious cross-cutting issues. Fagan and Meares (2008) write that various factors influence the willingness of community members in participating in crime prevention programmes. Fagan and Meares (2008) write that communities with homogeneous group of people with common values, interest and goals are more willing, and are in a better position to pursue the maintenance of public safety and order. In similar vein, Craig et al. (2014) have pointed out that neighbourhoods or communities with strong communal spirit or higher levels of social cohesion tend to experience less fear of crime as well as lower rates of violent crime. Craig et al. (2014) therefore suggest that one way to control crime is to encourage the development of strong sense of neighbourhood where residents will take responsibility for their neighbourhoods or communities and engage in crime control. May (2016) asserts where government, law enforcement, businesses and the public work together on prevention, it ensures significant delivery and sustained cuts in certain crimes. However, other scholars including McKernan and
McWhirter (2009) are of the view that personal gain may be a motivator for engaging in citizen involvement for community safety.

2.8 Benefit of Effective Participation in Community Crime Control

Zhao, Gibson, Lovrich, and Gaffney (2002) have pointed out that the engagement of local communities in controlling crime essentially, enables societies to overcome financial challenges as community participation is basically voluntary. Botterill and Fisher (2002) share similar view. These authors indicate that the involvement of local communities in crime control help in minimizing expenditure on crime control programmes. Botterill and Fisher (2002) however, express that to be able to sustain community participation in crime control, local communities need to be resourced with relevant skills.

Commenting on the relevance of communities’ initiatives, Burns et al (2004) wrote that active participation of local residents is essential as it improves democratic and service accountability. Active participation, according to Burns et al (2004), enhances social cohesion in that community members recognise the value of working in partnership with themselves and also with statutory agencies. Participation enhances effectiveness as various local knowledge and understanding relevant to the local situations are marshalled to bring about the needed outcome (Burns et al., 2004). Burns et al (2004) further argue that through the mobilisation of voluntary contributions and skill development, communities’
initiatives help in improving the opportunities for employment and community wealth. Communities’ initiatives give residents the opportunity to develop the skills and networks that are needed to address problems of social exclusion. They promote sustainability because community members have ownership of the initiatives and see to it that they survive and progress (Burns et al., 2004).

The foregoing discussions have pointed out clearly that when members of the community participate in crime control, policing becomes effective which eventually benefits the community in the form of low crime commission and high public sense of safety. More so, community participation reduces pressure of using scarce state resources as community participation is virtually voluntary. Government resource which otherwise would have been spent on recruiting more security personnel could be channelled into other beneficiary areas including health and education. Besides, the all-round presence of the ‘public’ compensates for the absence of law enforcement officials. This tends to strengthen the work of the police. However, as the discussion have revealed, conscious efforts have to be made by stake holders to empower local community crime control actors to sharpen and sustain their involvement in crime control policies. As noted by Burns et al., (2004), many community participation strategies have collapsed due to lack of sustained political leadership.
2.9 Forms of Community Participation

Taylor, Wilkinson and Cheers (2008) have identified four forms or approaches to participation in any social intervention namely the contributions approach, instrumental approach, community empowerment approach and the developmental approach. According to these authors, the contributions approach considers participation as voluntary as issues pertaining to resources or community-based knowledge come from the people. According to Taylor et al. (2008), in such approach, professional developers, usually external to the community, lead participation and make the decisions about how the contributions will be used. In the view of Taylor et al. (2008), the instrumental approach focuses on the end result, rather than the process. Such approach considers community participation as a support intervention rather than full community initiative. Taylor et al. (2008) writes that in the instrumental approach, participation is usually led by professionals and the important components of the interventions or programs are predetermined. The community empowerment approach on the other hand seeks to empower and support communities, individuals, and groups to take greater control over issues that affect their wellbeing. It focuses on personal development, consciousness-raising, and social action (Taylor et al., 2008). The developmental approach view social care development as an interactive, evolutionary process embedded in community interest. In this approach, local people, in partnership with professionals, have a role in decision-making and in achieving the outcomes they consider important and meeting the needs of the community (Taylor et al. 2008).
Burns et al. (2004) however classified community participation into active and passive. These authorities are of the view that active participation of locals enhances communities’ initiatives as they work hand in hand among themselves. In this regard, community members as implementers, develop the confidence and skills to ensure the success of the initiative (Burns et al., 2004). Burns et al. (2004) explanations of passive participation in line with Carry and Lee (1970) notion. Carry and Lee (1970) explain passive participation as a situation where people participate by being told what is going to happen or has already happened. It is a unilateral announcement by an administrator or project management without listening to people’s responses. The information being shared belongs only to external professionals. Passive community crime control could be seen as situation where members of community see crime control as the preserve of the police and only assist in maintaining safety when considered necessary. Similarly, passive community participation in crime control could be viewed as a situation where the police only consult the public when in their judgement they deem it fit in controlling crime. In this regard, there is little or no conscious efforts or policy made to enable the public to voluntarily participate in matters affecting their own safety.

Brager and Specht (1973) on the other hand, viewed community participation from two broad forms namely; high and low. According to Brager and Specht (1973), in high level participation, participants have control such as identifying the
problem and finding means of addressing the problem; have delegated authority
where the organization identifies and presents to the community the limits of the
problem and tasks the community to make any necessary input in addressing the
problem. They however, indicated that in a situation where participation is low,
members of community do virtually nothing and they are only consulted where the
organization deems it fit.

The discussions above suggest the complexity in defining community and
classifying participation into forms. As noted by Brager and Specht (1973),
community is a multidimensional concept involving a complex of horizontal and
vertical relationships between people and organisations. The forms of community
participation in crime control could be active where local residents are empowered
and constantly work on their own safety through community initiatives such as
neighbourhood watch among others in complementing the efforts of the law
enforcement. Crime control strategy could also be horizontal where communities
actively collaborate with the police with less collaboration among themselves, or
vertical, where there is close collaboration among the various interest groups in a
given community. As the discussions have revealed, in all circumstances, the
existing policy on community participation, as well as the interest and orientation
of the local residence to a large degree would determine how local actors would
participate in crime control activities. As Choi, Lee and Chun (2014) study
revealed, people who had some personal experiences with crime and disorder
issues are more likely to participate as a volunteer in community crime prevention activities compared to those who have never been victimized.

2.10 Challenges to Community Participation in Crime Control

The literature has identified a number of factors that challenge effective participation of communities in various initiatives including crime control. Dukeshire and Thurlow (2002) have stated government and policy makers are beginning to recognize the important role communities can play in policy development and efforts are being made to allow them to become more involved in the policy-making process. However, despite these efforts, there are still many barriers and challenges that can stand in the way of community involvement. As indicated by University of Ibadan (Undated), a combination of cultural and contextual factors tends to weaken community based crime control practices. Understanding and anticipating these barriers and challenges is important when a community is getting organized for or involved in policy activity. This understanding can help individuals and organizations more effectively impact the policy-making process (Dukeshire and Thurlow, 2002). University of Ibadan (Undated), noted that one major challenge confronting community based approach to crime control is the issue of ‘kin relation or settlement’. According to kin-based settlement, reporting a kin to the police or giving out intelligence information on him is seen as an offence to tradition and ancestral relationships. What this
suggests is that people sharing similar kin relation are more likely to protect or shield a member after committing a crime.

Manaliyo (2016) indicates that community members help the police considerably as they feed the police with relevant information on potential criminals. Manaliyo (2016) however, indicates that the fear of victimization and lack of trust prevent some local residents and crime victims to report crimes to the police. OSCE (2008) equally has pointed out that the fear of reprisal from criminals prevents people to support crime control initiatives. Some community members equally do not participate in crime control simple because ‘they see no immediate personal gain from their voluntary participation’ (OSCE, (2008:49).

Writing about the factors that restrain community members to participate in crime control, Carry and Lee (1970) and Kane (2005) asserted that perception is a major influence of people’s decision. These authorities noted that the perception held by the community members about the local police and other government institutions influence community members’ decisions to volunteer in crime control initiatives. Carry and Lee (1970) and Kane (2005) have stated that unprofessional conduct exhibited by the police such as poor working relationship negatively influence community participation in crime control. Enshassi et al. (2016) have stated that lack of trust and respect is one significant challenge which kills the desire of community members to share and corporate in the Gaza Strip Municipalities in Palestine. Trust building enables diverse group of people to pursue a common
interest. Cowan (1995) writes that, trust builds self-esteem, and its absence in any social enterprise results in negative personal, social and performance outcome. Scheider et al. (2003) write that there is a strong relationship between perception and participation in crime control. Scheider et al. (2003) conclude that where community members have positive perception about the police, crime prevention initiatives by community members also increase.

Writing about barriers related to community participation, Faull (2011) has indicated that corruption and ineffectiveness involving the South Africa Police Service was a major challenging factor to community crime control policies. The Ghana Police Service equally has often come under the attack of the general public. According to Atuguba (2007), most Ghanaians are dissatisfied with the institution called the Ghana Police Service and perceive the police as among the most corrupt institutions. In the view of Wekesa and Muturi (2016:1151), the Police in Kenya have been characterized as ‘being corrupt, inefficient and cruel’. This has asserted by Muturi (2016) has result in mistrust and low public confidence in the police. As noted by Nukunya (2003), bribery like corruption affects the whole fabric of society and involves the totality of our national life. Allegation against the police for accepting bribes and releasing suspects without charges, and lackadaisical attitude of the police to crime situations are widely documented in the literature (Faull, 2011). These acts tend to undermine any spirit of community participation in crime control.
OSCE (2008:23) has expressed that in order to encourage the public to support the police in crime control, ‘the police should develop a strong partnership with the public characterized by mutual responsiveness’. OSCE (2008) suggested the police should organize occasional forums such as joint police-community workshops, public meetings, and police open days where they could exchange views with the community on issues of mutual concern. OSCE (2008) maintains in order to reach as many community members as possible; these public forums should be open to all segments of the community including groups such as ethnic minorities, women and young people. Such public forums according to OSCE (2008) would help permit mutual and frank discussions including the sharing of personal experiences. This OSCE (2008) noted would empower the population to engage actively in issues related to their safety and security. It would also be an opportunity for community members to give input on their concerns and priorities and on how they think their neighbourhood should be policed for example, where and when police patrols might be necessary. Communities should be allowed to participate in this decision-making process unless the law specifically grants that authority to the police alone.

OSCE (2008) further noted in order to build public confidence in the police, there is the need for the police to relate more humanely to community members. Besides, the police have to effectively communicate the reasons for introducing a new policing style and its benefits to the people (OSCE, 2008).
The discussions suggest that there is a close relationship between the conduct of
the police and the willingness of the public to engage in voluntary crime control
activities. The literature however, points out clearly about the need for effective
community participation in crime control. In the view of Choi et al. (2014), the
contemporary police cannot improve community safety effectively without the
support from community and community residents, which makes citizen
engagement in community safety activities a significant issue in criminal justice.
What this means is that all efforts have to be made to address the challenges that
militate against effective community participation in crime control, especially, in
contemporary societies with complex criminal activities where safety has become
a major preoccupation of nations.

2.11 Theoretical framework

To be able to understand why certain phenomena occur and the environment in
which they exist, social scientists use tools such as theories and concepts. Several
theoretical pursuits and models exist in the field of community participation in
crime control. According to Deutsch and Krauss (cited in Zanden, 1977:5), a
theory is the net we weave to catch the world of observation so that we can
explain, predict, and influence it. McLeod (2001) similarly defines a theory as a
set of ideas or concepts that are used to make sense of some dimension of reality.
Theories thus, help us to make our observation more meaningful.
2.11.1 Systems Theory

In examining the critical role of community participation in crime control in the Wa municipality, this thesis made use of Bertalanffy Systems Theory (1968) as supported by Teater (2010) and Schuttlesworth and Ambrosino (2001) among others as a complementary theory. The Systems Theory stresses that individuals and their environment are separate systems that are interconnected and interdependent. That a change or movement in one of the systems results in a change or movement in the other (Teater, 2010). In congruence, Schuttlesworth and Ambrosino (2001) view the System Theory as a set of elements or units that work and interact to ensure the effective functioning of the whole system. Thus, the different units depend and interact with each other in a continuous basis to ensure effective functioning of the whole. What the Systems Theory suggests is that collaboration from various elements is required to ensure the collective functioning of the whole system. Thus, the Theory emphasis on collaboration between entities and discourages selfishness which undermines the collective good of the whole (Teater, 2010).

The relevance of the Systems Theory to this thesis cannot be quantified. For the collective good of society as systems, effective control of crime requires inputs from various actors who continuously interact and react. The reality is that crime is too complex to be controlled using only one body or agent for the collective safety of the populace and society as a whole. In effect, the contributory role played by the various institutional and community crime control actors
complementary and cumulatively result in the effective execution of crime control policies and strategies. In effect, the defect in the role of any of the crime actors will certainly affect the overall safety of the society as the Systems Theory suggests. Likewise, understanding and enhancing the role of these local crime control actors would help promote the maintenance of peace and safety in communities and at the same time promote coexistence, trust, tolerance and mutual respect between and among both law enforcement agents and community members.

The safety of society as a whole will be in a peril without the critical participation and complementary role of the community in crime control (Aref and Ma’rof, 2009). The dynamics of society in terms of the growth of human population, varieties of criminal activities, and the technological advancement of the criminal modus of operation requires a change in the traditional system of policing where the police is seen mainly as the sole actor in crime control. This orientation should be transformed to involve active participation of the community whereby all levels of community actors contribute to crime control and the maintenance of safety in localities. Thus, the Systems Theory helps us to understand how citizens and groups within the community could work with the police in controlling crime for the collective interest of public safety.
2.11.2 Routine Activities Theory

Proponents of the Routine Activities Theory (RAT) include Cohen and Felson (1979). Routine Activities Theory is a more recent interactionist explanation of deviant behaviour. Interactionist perspective emerged as a reaction to functionalist approach to deviance. Interactionist theorists were of the view that functionalist thought explains why rule violations continue to happen despite pressure to conform and obey, yet, fail to explain how a given person comes to commit a deviant act or why on some occasions, crimes do not occur (Schaefer, 2005). The preoccupation of interactionist perspective is on everyday behaviour. On the basis of this, interactionist perspective offers two explanations of crime- (1) cultural transmission and (2) routine activities theory. The routine activities aspect of interactionist perspective of deviant and criminality is of what is important to this thesis.

The Routine Activities Theory postulates that for a deviant or criminal act to occur, three fundamental things have to be present at the same time and place namely (1) perpetrator, (2) a victim and/or (3) object of property. Stated differently, crime is likely to be committed when there is an intersection in time and space of a motivated offender and a suitable target in the absence of a capable guardian (Cohen and Felson, 1979 cited in Samaha, 1994: 85-6). By implication, when crime is made a high risk enterprise through the frequent physical presence of the police and any other capable guardian, in this regard, community crime control actors, potential criminals may be prevented to commit crime. In other
dimension, where crime has been committed, through the assistance or information given by the community to the police, the offender may be detected and successfully prosecuted. The public is everywhere and at any time, but the police may not be present always. The limited number of the police implies that criminal acts are more likely to occur in places where police presence is not felt. This makes the theory quite suitable in this thesis, thereby justifying the need for community participation in crime control in complementing that of the police. As indicated elsewhere by Liebermann and Coulson (2004), community engagement in crime control is pivotal in supplementing the efforts of law enforcement who at all times may not be in communities.

What this thesis found to be a defect about the Routine Activities Theory notwithstanding its importance is that, regardless as to how society is policed, crime may occur (ICPC, 2016). This means that efforts underlying policing go beyond crime prevention. In this regard, the participation of community in crime control meets the two major approaches of crime controls namely, preventive and reactive approaches. Thus, communities’ active role may help prevent crime and at the same time, help in detecting crime, arresting and successfully prosecuting offenders. A Theory of community participation is therefore considered critical in this thesis.
2.11.3 Onion Theory of Participation

Justifying the need for communities to engage in crime control in order to sustain policies on community’s safety, this thesis is anchored in Cavaye’s (2010) Onion Theory of Participation. Cavaye Onion Theory of Participation (2010) links community participation to an onion with several rings. According to this theory, just as an onion has a center or a core, so also, with regard to community initiatives, there are small numbers of highly committed and motivated people who can be described as the core. According to Cavaye Onion Theory of Participation (2010), around this core are people known as participants who get involved in the activities organized by the core and provide support to the core’s initiatives. In the third ring are the observers. These are the people who normally watch and or critically monitor the progress of the activities and initiatives developed by the core and supported by the participants (Cavaye Onion Theory of Participation, 2010). The theory postulates that, although, observers might have interest, yet they are not actively involved in local initiatives. The theory further states that around the observers are the larger circle that consists of the people that are aware of the activities organized and taken place in the community, yet they do not have the interest to participate in such programs or activities. The last circle or ring according to Cavaye Onion Theory of Participation (2010), are members of the community who do not have any knowledge of the activities or programs happening in their environment.
What Cavaye Onion Theory of Participation suggests is that in any social setting, there may be several communities or publics. In this regard, while a number of the communities (local actors) may actively participate in projects and policies affecting their own interest, many others may infrequently or passively involve themselves in local initiatives. Besides, others may not involve themselves at all in local initiatives affecting the interest of communities. In the view of Wilcox (2001), the term community often makes a complex range of interests, many of whom will have different priorities. Some may wish to be closely involved in an initiative, others less so.

Effective crime control requires the efforts of local community actors to complement that of law enforcement agencies that may not always be present. The study locality being a heterogeneous society is likely to have various actors with different levels of commitment to crime control issues. In this regard, per Cavaye’s Onion Theory of Participation view point, what is of much interest to this thesis is the efforts of the ‘Core’ and the ‘Participants’- those members of the society who actually involve themselves in crime control in diverse ways in meeting communities’ security needs. Community participation thus fosters close working collaboration between the police and members of the community which in turn increases the public trust in the police. Community participation increases communities’ capacity to deal with issues and empowers them to identify and respond to concerns (Mastrofski, 2006; Segrave and Ratcliffe, 2004).
2.12 Conceptual Framework on Community Participation in Crime Control

On the basis the knowledge gained from the literature as discussed, the researcher has come out with a conceptual framework which seeks to explain how the intervention by the various community actors in policing regulates criminal activities and enhances public safety. The conceptual framework has three interconnected parts. The first part shows the various actors within the communities. These actors include the traditional political authorities, religious adherents, local authority officials, individual key informants, transport associations, women group association, businesses and local community volunteer watchdog committees. The frameworks indicates that when these actors participate effectively in ways such as; direct monitoring and mobile patrols, direct arrest of offenders, supply of relevant information about crime and criminals as well as provision of logistics (example; motorbikes and vehicles), it goes a long way to enhance policing resulting in low crime commission and at the same time boosting public sense of safety.
Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework on Community Participation in Crime Control

Source: Author’s Construct November, 2018
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methods that were employed in collecting and analysing data gathered from the field. The rationales for their choices are also explained here.

3.2 Research Design

Every given research type demands an appropriate research design with the view to arrive at a valid and reliable outcome (Sarantakos, 2005). Research design is the type of inquiry that provides specific direction for procedures in a research or study (Creswell, 2009). In congruence, Babbie and Mouton (2004) and Sarantakos (2005) write that research design is the logical sequence in which the study is to be carried out, as well as the elements of the study, its methods of data collection and analysis and all administrative procedures that need to be considered for the study to be carried out without problems or delay. The research design is thus construed as a plan for the research which captures various items including detailed methods of data collection and analysis. Several research designs have been outlined in the literature including case study and ethnographic study for qualitative study, and survey and experiment for quantitative study. Each design has its own approach and method of data collection. According to Babbie and Mouton (2004), quantitative research designs are broad category of social research
approach with the focus on the quantification of constructs and control for sources of error in the research process. Babbie and Murton (2004) however, indicate qualitative research designs on the other hand are research approaches in social research which are based on the knowledge, opinions, views, intentions and belief system of the research participants.

This study employed the case study design as opposed to other qualitative research designs. According to Robson (2002), a case study involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence. Babbie and Mouton (2004) asserted a case study may be conducted for the purpose of describing, exploring and explaining a phenomenon. Community participation in crime control demands in-depth understanding. Ironically, in many quarters, the concept of and forms of community participation is largely poorly understood. While there is plethora of information on the institutional level crime control, there is however, little knowledge and understanding about the essential role played by communities in crime control to improve public safety and reduction of the fear of crime especially in contemporary urbanised communities (Manaliyo (2016; Craig et al., 2014). An examination of how communities participate in crime control in maintaining safety other than through institutionalized approaches, and the challenges they face in the process requires much of descriptive and non-numeric data. In addition, the issue under investigation was complex and involved many local crime control actors who have different opinions and with varying degree of
influence. It therefore requires sufficient data including people’s intentions and opinions which transcend measurable indicators. Thus, there was the need for an interpretation of the social world from the perspectives of the people themselves as opposed to the mere explanation and prediction of behaviour as espoused by the positivist tradition (Schaefer, 2005). This explains why this thesis employed the qualitative case study design which enabled the researcher to gain much insight from the perspective of the research participants.

3.3 Selection of Study Location

The research location was Wa. Wa was selected because it is a cosmopolitan community which faces challenges of safety. As indicated by ICPC (2016), a major challenge confronting rapidly expanding cities across the globe is the issue of crime which has made most communities target of criminals due to inadequate protection. Finding a pragmatic way of complementing security arrangements in the study community which is an urbanised one and suffers from insecurity is considered a laudable idea. This thesis focused on five selected communities within Wa namely; Mangu, Fongu, Kpaguri, Dankpalihe and Gamuni. These communities as were purposely selected because they are among the crime hot spots in the Wa Municipality according to Police Report (2016). A study which intends to examine how communities participate in crime by focusing on such high crime spots were considered imperative. Given the urbanised nature of societies and the limited police population in controlling crime in general, the role
of these community level operatives in crime control has become much more relevant to compensate for the gap created by the absence of the police.

As noted by Findlay (2005), there is significant association between urbanisation and crime. Findlay (2005) argues that urban dwellers are more likely to become a victim of crime than people in rural settlements. Moser (2004) admitted that crime occurs in all human settings. He however, indicated that crime is particularly problematic in many urban areas. Moser (2004) has asserted crime and other violent acts have reached record levels in many cities in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Moser (2004) indicates that crime threatens the security of urban dwellers, productivity and development. Moser (2004) has recommended a broad-based crime prevention approaches including community-based approaches to deal with crime and other violent related acts which undermine the health, livelihood and economic prospects of people.

3.4 Target Population

As Cavaye Onion Theory of Participation (2010) espouses, not every individual in a given community participates in local initiatives. Bearing this in mind this study primarily targeted key community level actors in crime control namely; chiefs, transport operators, store operators, women economic group association, watchdog committee members, members of religious bodies, health officials, local council officials and market women executives within Wa in the Upper West Region of Ghana. Besides these categories of people, officials from the Police, the
main agent of crime control in Ghana, and an educator knowledgeable in participatory development were also targeted. In the estimation of the researcher, these actors contribute to crime control in diverse ways in the study community. The selected actors were therefore relevant in view of the objectives of the study. It was therefore appropriate to choose respondents across the various publics or actors from the study community to find out how these pockets of community level operatives help in crime control.

3.4.1 Selection of Research Participants

The study made use of 52 respondents drawn from different sectors of the community. Two officials each from the two Transport Unions in Wa – the Progressive Transport Owners Association (PROTOA) and Ghana Private Road Transport Union (GPRTU), four members, two each from two Neighbourhood Watchdog Committees, six chiefs (traditional political authorities), four members of religious bodies (two each from the Christian and Moslem fraternity)- the two dominant religious faith in Ghana (GSS, 2012), five local council officials (Assembly men/women), six Unit Committee Members, nine women from Suntaa Nuntaa Pagita Olo Women Association, two executives of Wa Central Market Women Association, four executives of store operators and three police informants. All these categories of respondents were intentionally selected because in the judgment of the researcher, they have important information to contribute to the success of the study.
Sarantakos (2005) opine that large samples do not, in general, necessarily guarantee higher levels of validity and success. Sarantakos (2005) suggests that a quality study is influenced by the methodology adopted, available resource allocated, and homogeneity of the target population as well as its purpose and sample size. These are factors influencing the degree of quality of every study. The purposive selection approach used in selecting the 47 respondents could be considered as appropriate. Besides, five key informants, four from the Ghana Police Service knowledgeable in crime control and security in general and an educator endowed in community participatory development from the University for Development Studies, Wa Campus were also purposely selected. This thesis thus made use of a combine selected sample of 52 comprising 37 males and 15 females. Table 3.1 below depicts the summary of the selected respondents.
Table 3.1: Summary of selected Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identity</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chiefs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian Council of Churches</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moslems/Office of the Chief Imam</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Council Officials</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit Committee Members</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suntaa Nuntaa Women Association</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROTOA Officials</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPRTU Officials</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighbourhood Watchdog Committee</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market Women Executives</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Store Operators Executives</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Officials</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana Police Service</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police informants</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>52</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Study, 2018

As noted by Maxwell (2005), purposive sampling is defined by as a type of sampling in which, particular setting, persons, or events are deliberately selected
for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices. The purposive technique which was used in the selection of the key traditional actors in crime control within Wa and officials from the Ghana Police Service and an educator was considered appropriate.

3.5 Sources of Data Collection

Flick (2002) in his view maintains generally, there are two sources of data collection in social research namely, primary and secondary sources. Twumasi (2001) indicates it is prudent to use more than one method to collect data. Twumasi (2001) further argues when various suitable methods are used in collecting data, they help a researcher to assess and detect inconsistent information or answers. In the light of this assertion, this thesis made use of both primary and secondary sources to gather information for further analysis.

3.6 Primary Data Collection Techniques

Data collection techniques involve the generation of data in the research cycle. According to Twumasi (2001) and Sarantakos (2005), qualitative research data collection techniques include interviews, observation, participation in the setting, focus group discussions, questionnaire and surveys and life histories, among others. The philosophical underpinning of the study however, will inform the data that ought to be collected (Babbie and Mouton, 2004). Primary data were gathered through interviews with the aid of audio recording device and interview guides as well as focus group discussion aided by check list. In order to arrive at the relevant
data, 38 separate face to face interviewing sessions were held at different times for the selected respondents excluding the Suntaa Nuntaa Pagita Olo Women Association and the Unit Committee Members, with each lasting averagely 25 minutes. The researcher personally contacted the available and accessible respondents and explained to them the objectives of the study. A date was arranged to meet the respondents at the agreed time and locality. To avoid any disappointment, a day or two prior to the interviews, the selected respondents were reminded of the appointment made. In consonance with the ethical issues upheld by social scientists, the consent of all the research participants was sought. An introductory letter from the University was made available to all the respondents explaining to them the goals of the thesis. More so, before any recording was made, the respondents were briefed about the purpose of such audio recording device. In compliance with the ethical issues of anonymity and confidentiality, the names of the research participants were divorced from the data.

On the other hand, focus group discussions were held among the Suntaa Nuntaa Pagita Olo Women Association and the Unit Committee Members aided by a check list at different times. According to Krueger (1988), Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) are purposeful deep examination of a problem of interest by a group of people of similar orientation, usually between 6 and 12 persons conducted by a researcher. Kumekpor (2002) in his view indicated that the FGDs are carried out with a group of any size. It is a group limited between a minimum of 4 people to a maximum of 12 to 15 people. In any case, this method does not
aim to analyze the group but rather to provide a forum that facilitates group
discussion, to brainstorm a variety of solutions and to establish a mechanism of
opinion formation (Sarantakos, 2003:195-196).

In this research, Focus Group Discussion (FGD) technique was used to solicit
views of the Suntaa Nuntaa Pagita Olo Women Association and the Unit
Committee Members as to the role they play as far as crime control and prevention
is concerned in the Wa and its environs. One focus group discussion each was
held among members of the two stated groups. The members of the Suntaa Nuntaa
Pagita Olo during the focus group were 9 whiles that of the Unit Committee
members were five. The focus group discussions enabled the researcher to obtain
in-depth information about the topic under consideration. The researcher gave the
two groups the opportunity to choose the environment that suits them. Every
member in each group was encouraged to contribute by ensuring that no single
respondent dominated the discussion to the disadvantage of others. The purpose
was to strengthen the tool from its weaknesses. Averagely, each focus group
discussion lasted about 30 minutes. The conduct of the discussion was guided by a
discussion guide. The study took place between October, 2018 and December,
2018

Twumasi (2001) opines that FGD is a frank deliberation by respondents facilitated
by a researcher with the view to solicit for in-depth information in a discussion
group. Besides, it is conducted to explore a specific object or a certain point of the
research topic in depth (Sarantakos, 2005). Lloyd- Evans (2006) added that FGDs are good methods of accessing group’s viewpoints and perceptions, highlighting differences between participants. Hence if it is done well the objectives for which the FGDs technique was selected would be achieved. Twumasi (2001) and Lloyd-Evans (2006) justify the intention for the use of this technique, since it allows the researcher to get insight into why people think or hold certain opinions and also to ensure detailed explanation, varied opinions and assessment of gender differences on any given variable of analysis. This technique allowed the researcher to gather validated data as arguments and counter arguments from the respondents from various gender lines.

3.7 Secondary Sources of Information

Secondary sources of information were also obtained by reviewing relevant published books like the: journals, newspapers, magazines, articles as well as the websites. Secondary information helped provide a broader view of the problem. These materials were consulted in order to augment the primary information so as to get a holistic picture of the problem which motivated the study. Sarantakos (2005) asserted secondary sources of information provide relevant information to complement that of primary information. This justified the use of the secondary information.
3.8 Data Analysis

Raw information have to be organized and categorized into themes to make them more meaningful to the people. Babbie and Mouton (2004) have pointed out that, we interpret collected data for the purpose of drawing conclusions that reflect on the interests, ideas, and theories that initiated the inquiry.

Yin (1993; 2003) writes that data analysis involves summarizing and organizing them in such a manner that they answer the research questions. It involves the searching of patterns of relationship that exist among data groups (Karma, 1999). Twumasi (2001) argues that data analysis involves critical examination of materials in order to understand their parts and their relationships and to discover their trends. In congruence, Ader (2008) writes that data analysis involves decision-making through critical examination of information with the view to find similarities and divergence that exist in the data. Given the nature and the objectives of this thesis, the qualitative approach of data analysis was adopted.

The raw data such as biographic information of the respondents contained in the field notes were typed, interviews recorded with audio device was transcribed and carefully edited where necessary to ensure that the original meanings given by the respondents were not distorted. Data were then arranged into coherent categories as per the research objectives. Where appropriate; tables and charts were used in presenting the findings.
3.9 Reliability and Validity

According to Marfo (2014), validity refers to the extent to which a measure adequately reflects the real meaning of a concept whilst reliability connotes whether a particular technique applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same results. It concerns mainly with the use of a particular tool or technique. For the purposes of reliability and validity, the items on the interview guide and check list were thoroughly examined by the supervisor to ensure matching between the items and the research questions and the research topic. For the purpose of validity, the researcher met the participants individually and as a group where appropriate at different times in January, 2019 and the draft report was read to them for confirmation, rejection or modification of any part deemed necessary. The credibility of the study was thus in no way compromised.

3.10 Ethical Consideration

Using human subjects in social research requires some amount of caution as the respondents are not abstract representatives. Against this line of thinking, the researcher was particular about the various ethical issues which guide researchers as emphasized by social scientists. Ethics generally is a moral philosophy and centers on matters of right and wrong. As noted by De Vos (2002), the use of human beings as research objects demands critical ethical consideration. In congruence, Babbie and Mouton (2004) asserted that the scientist has the right to the search for the truth and the right to collect data through interviewing people, but this must not be done at the expense of the rights of other individuals in the
society. These discussions point out that in as much as a research conduct any study for whatever reasons, the process and the outcome should not negatively impact on the research participants.

Social scientists generally do not agree as to what constitute these ethical issues as admitted by Walizer and Wienir (1978:153), who wrote that ‘the question of ethics in research involving human subjects is not merely a simple matter of identifying the guys with the white hats and the guys with the black hats. The considerations are many and the problem complex’. Regardless of the complexity of the matter, Marfo (2014) however, have indicated that social scientists generally share the idea that, the process, analysis and publication of a research in no way should cause harm to the respondents and also there is the need for informed consent, openness, anonymity and confidentiality among others. Harm in this sense can be physical, psychological or emotional. The revelation of information that would embarrass respondents or endanger their home life, friends, jobs and many other facet of life, is considered as a clear manifestation of harm (Babbie and Mouton: 2004; De Vos, 2002; Sarantakos, 2005). In view of this the researcher in this thesis ensured that any information obtained by the respondents was treated with the needed secrecy to avoid any danger that might have arisen upon the identification of the source of such information by any reader of this thesis.

De Vos (2002) and Sarantakos (2005) advocate that in conducting a research, the consent of respondents should be obtained regarding their willingness to
participate. Informed consent implies that, all possible or adequate information of the goal of the investigation, the procedure that will be followed during the investigation, the possible advantages or dangers of the research must be made known to the respondents. Against this background, the researcher sought first the consent of all the selected respondents. This was supported by an introductory letter from the University for Development Studies explaining the objective of the thesis. More so, the researcher orally explained to all the respondents the objective of the interview before any interview could be commenced. In the same line of thinking, the respondents who were not willing to be part of the study were not forced against their will. In this thesis only willing members of the local or community actors who matter in terms of the study were selected. To ensure anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents and the information given, the researcher did not request for their names and the communities where they represent were not disclosed in the study. Thus, the respondents and their views at all times remained anonymous and confidential respectively in this thesis.

### 3.11 Limitation

A major obstacle that confronted the research was how to meet some of the community crime control actors due to their operational schedules. Interview sessions in most of the time were cancelled. However, this was dealt with by rescheduling of the interview meetings with the affected key informants. This did therefore not affect the credibility of the findings. Both the student respondents and the key informants cooperated fully with the researcher.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to data presentation and analysis. Specifically, the analysis focused on data collected from the various local or community actors who are involved in crime control within the study locality. The analysis was conducted around the thematic areas of the studies namely; how communities contribute to crime control, forms of participation that exist among the various community crime control actors, the challenges that community members encounter in crime control and the strategies that can be adopted to address the challenges facing community members in their involvement in crime control in the Wa Municipality. The chapter begins with the analysis of the biographic characteristics of the respondents as they have an implication for the study. Primary data gathered with the aid of semi-structured interview guides were analysed descriptively. Themes were identified and these were then organised into coherent categories based on pre-set categories and emergent categories. As part of the analysis, where appropriate, tables and charts were used to illustrate the findings.
4.2 Biographic Characteristics of Respondents

4.2.1 Sex Distribution of Respondents

The sex distribution of the respondents was examined. The study sampled willing and available 47 local community actors from five zones in the study area from which interview guides were completed and each case was analysed. It was found that 32 (68.1%) of the community crime control actors were males and 15 (31.9%) females. This finding may suggest that more males engage in voluntary crime control activities as compared to females. This probably could be attributed to the fact that crime control is considered very risky and females who are considered as among the vulnerable ones in the society are less likely to engage in such hazardous venture. The 15 (31.9%) female local crime control actors is an indication that, crime control though, dominated by males, nonetheless is not solely the reserve of males. The finding from the study is not different from a secondary data from the Wa Regional Police Command Report (2018). According to the data, out of the entire population of 855 police force working within the Upper West Region, 646 representing 75.6% were males whilst that of the female population stood at 209 representing 24.4% . The picture of gender variation as present was not different in terms of the number of males and females working in the Wa Municipality, the study community. According to the same Wa Regional Police Command Report (2018), the study community has a work force of 629 with 452 (71.9%) being males whilst that of the female population stood at 177 representing about 28.1%.
4.2.2 Age distribution of Respondents

Adler et al. (1995) have pointed out that crime is a subject on which the public holds stronger views. Perhaps it is because crime concerns the entire community. Regardless of the fact the crime affects every member of the community, maturity is critical in the area of crime control. It is against this background that the study sought to know the ages of the respondents. The age distribution of the respondents as represented by Table 4.1 below shows that the prevalent age group in terms of local crime control is the age bracket of 40-49 recording 21 respondents (44.7%) followed by the age bracket of 50+ which recorded 11 respondents. The study revealed that none of the respondent was below the age of 20 years.

Table 4.1: Age distribution of Respondents (Local Crime Control Actors)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age bracket</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 – 29</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 – 39</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 49</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>44.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 years and above</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>47</td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Study, October 2018
In respect of the key informants, none of them was below 40 years. Four of them fall within the age bracket of 40-49 whilst only one was of and above 50 years. The findings show that both the community crime control respondents and the key respondents were matured or fairly matured and therefore constituted reliable source of data gathering for the study. The matured nature of the respondents also implied that the issues raised were within their understanding.

4.2.3 Educational backgrounds of the Respondents

The acquisition of knowledge through formal education is critical in human development. The level of education of respondents thus, affects their ability to analyse questions and hence their responses to questions which also has an implication for reliability of data generated from them. The study thus examined the educational status of the research participants. For purposes of simplicity, the educational statuses of the respondents were classified into the following; (1) No formal Education (NFE), (2) Primary, (3) JHS/Middle, (4) SHS/O’Level, (5) Diploma/HND and (6) University Degree/Post Graduate. It was established that in total, two (2) out of the 47 local crime control respondents representing 4.3% had University education, seven (7) had HND/Diploma education representing 14.9%, 16 respondents representing 34.0% had attained SHS/O’Level education. The respondents who had no formal education were seven (7) representing 14.9%. The respondents with Primary education were four (8.5 %.) whilst those with JSS/Middle school education were 11 representing 23.4%. The information showed that 40 of the community crime control respondents representing 85.1%
had attained certain level of formal education and could reflect in their understanding and response to the research questions. For the key informants, four respondents had attained university education representing 80% whilst only one had HND. The data as gathered suggested that no matter one’s educational attainment, it is possible to participate in several ways in ensuring effective crime control within communities. Table 4.2 below is a graphical representation of the respondents’ level of education.

**Table 4.2: Respondents level of education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Education</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No formal education</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS/Middle</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSS/O’level</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma/HND</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Degree/Post-Graduate</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>52</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field Study, 2018*
4.3 Ways in which Communities Participate in Crime Control

The broad objective of the study was to assess how communities participate in crime control in the Wa Municipality. Participation in crime control involves interplay between the police and the public in ensuring safety in communities (Manaliyo, 2016). This objective was considered critical because the hitherto traditional policing approach to security has been incident-driven with less community involvement and often fails to meet the expectations of communities (Karn, 2013). The researcher first and foremost asked the respondents about their understanding of the concept ‘community participation in crime control’. All the respondents virtually gave similar response indicating that community participation in crime control involves all the assistance given by the ordinary citizens to the police to help improve safety of communities and the sanctioning of criminals. Probing further, the study found that communities participate in crime control in six major ways in the study locality namely; direct community patrols, supply of information on crime and offenders, provision of financial and logistics support, direct arrest and education on responsible citizenship, and paid security popularly known as ‘watchman engagement’ as captured in Table 4.3 below.
Table 4.3 Ways in which communities participate in crime control (multiple response)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ways of participation in crime control</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct Community patrols</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply of information on crime and offenders</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of financial and logistics support</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct arrest of suspects</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education on responsible citizenship</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watchman engagement</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Study, 2018

4.3.1 Direct Community Patrols

Policing activities are basically couched on two main approaches namely Beat/Fixed duties and Patrol duties (Karn, 2013; Ghana Police Squad Notes). Whilst fixed duties involve the presence of the Police within a given specified and limited area such as the performance of a Bank guard, Patrol duties deal with the movement of law enforcement agents either in a mobile vehicle or on foot patrols often within an extended geographical area. In finding out as to how the respondents help in control crime, six respondents indicated that they control crime by making their presence felt within the communities through community
patrols often known as neighbourhood watch without the presence or the assistance of the police in the night. This is what a respondent said during a focus group discussion in November, 2018:

‘We have sacrificed to help the police in controlling crime through foot patrols in the night. Our presence in a given spot is enough to deter any one intended to commit any criminal act. Even though we are not armed with offensive implements such as guns as done by some local groups in southern part of Ghana, our activities have helped in promoting safety in the communities in which we operate’.

It emerged from the study that these local actors who engage in community patrols are not armed but are allowed to carry simple batons in their operation in the night even without the presence of the Police. A key informant corroborated the information given by the six respondents and this is what he said:

‘The issue of arming these local neighbourhood crime watch actors is a difficult one. We know it is risky to embark on foot patrols in the night without any weapon and the company of the police. The challenge is that, these are not professionals and also not well-trained in weapon handling. In this regard, it will be security unwise to allow them to carry guns especially in the environment in
which we find ourselves. I know in some communities in Ghana, these local actors carry simple guns as part of their operation. Not until a concrete policy is taken on this issue, I think it will be difficult for us to allow them to carry guns especially in contemporary times where people slightly resort to the use of weapons in causing mayhem.

The finding from this thesis is at variance with the work of Manaliyo (2016). According to Manaliyo the neighborhood watch members in his studies only patrol streets when they are with the police because they are untrained and also not armed, and could be attacked by armed criminals. In this thesis, the neigbourhood watch crime control actors were found to operate without the presence of the police. The finding suggests that in a more crime prone areas with hard core criminals, the lives of these local actors could be endangered when they operate without any effective protective weapon. In as much as these community members sacrifice to ensure the safety of communities, their lives should be equally be secured. This calls for a deliberate policy to make the activities of these community volunteers productive and secured. Neighbourhood watch initiatives could complement the efforts of the police and improves the safety of communities (OSCE, 2008).
4.3.2 Supply of information on crime and offenders

Crime control thrives on information sharing, especially information on crime and criminals. Effective participation and commitment among individuals and collective actors rest on shared and legitimate information. Anstey (1991) has indicated that lack of legitimate and shared information give rise to power struggle and issues revolve around principles based on guess-work. The study revealed that as many as 33 respondents indicated that they participate in crime control by given relevant information to the police leading to the arrest of offenders and detection of crime. This is what two of the respondents said respectively during an interview in 2018:

‘Last year, I suspected the movement of two young ones in an area where someone keeps his livestock (goats). From their gesture and their movement I knew they were planning to steal the livestock. Earlier the day I saw them at the same vicinity and around 9pm, I sighted them again. I quickly informed the police by given them the description of these young men and the location. The police in their own strategy laid in wait for them. Around 11 pm the boys were arrested by the police with a goat. If I had not informed the police, I don’t think these crooks would have been arrested. Till date no one knew as to how the police managed to arrest these guys. It was all due to the information I gave to them’.
‘Through the information I supply to the police some Indian hemp smokers have been arrested by the police. The information I give to the police has led to the arrest of some people who only specializing in cattle theft. As a matter of fact I deliver any information I receive to the police who I deem could help them in maintaining peace and security in our communities’.

Four of the key informants admitted that, some local community members have been helpful in controlling crime through the sharing of sensitive information. Reiterating on this point, this is what one key informant said in November, 2018 during an interview:

‘This study is quite interesting. We know how members of the community have been assisting us in controlling crime and improving security in Wa by sharing with us sensitive information. In 2017, with the information from one of these local actors, an armed robber who butchered a student from UDS was arrested, trialed and jailed for 25 years’.

This finding suggests that by providing information to the police, communities help expose the activities of criminals and equally make them amenable to arrest by the police. This is considered very important in that such collaboration help in improving the safety of communities. This finding supports May’s (2016)
assertion when she said that, where government, law enforcement, businesses and
the public work together on prevention, it ensures significant delivery and
sustained cuts in certain crimes.

### 4.3.3 Provision of financial and logistics support

The study revealed that members of the community participate in crime control
through the provision of finance and logistics such as motorbikes and bicycles to
support the operation of the police. These respondents indicated that periodically
they support the work of the police by providing them with motorbikes and fuel.

This is what a respondent said during an interview in September, 2018:

> ‘We all know that the government is responsible for the safety of communities through the work of the police. However, the police from time to time call for the support of the public. I have personally been to the police station apparently to report an issue which needed and immediate attention. I was told there was no police vehicle. Ironically, a police vehicle was parked at a few distances from the station. When I drew their attention to the parked vehicle, I was told there was no fuel in the vehicle. From that time I have been supportive in providing the police with motorbikes when necessary’.

The views of the respondents were not different from what three key informants said. One of the informants indicated:
'The public has been supportive to us. They support us in diverse ways. Some help us with motorbikes to facilitate our operations. Some equally help us with their personal cars when we embark on arrest especially, in assault cases. This is the reason why we entreat the public to support us. Look, often we reduce certain types of duties only to beat duties due to lack of motorbikes and vehicles. Fuelling police vehicle at all times to meet the demands of the public has not been easy. I wish the general public can all be supportive to us to help build an all-inclusive peaceful and a secured communities'.

This finding shows that community participation in crime control activities could either be direct or indirect. In this thesis, as identified, some members indirectly supports the police who intend become effective in executing their functions. This nonetheless, is another effective way of helping in controlling crime and maintaining safety in communities.

4.3.4 Direct arrest of suspects

The study found that 15 of the respondents have ever personally arrested offenders and suspected criminals. According to these respondents, they have been informed by the police that where appropriate they can arrest any person of suspicious character and immediately hand him/her to the police. Section 3 of the Criminal
Procedure Code of Ghana Act 1960 (Act 30) construes arrest as the act of restraining the movement of a person or confining the body of a person. Two of the respondents had these to say in respect of arrest that they effected:

‘Early this year (2018), in the course of our patrols in the night, we intercepted a man with a goat. We became suspicious of his action because it was around 12 midnight. We approached and questioned him about the goat. He was not consistent with his explanation given to us. We immediately arrested him when we realized that he was making an attempt to escape. We handed him over to the police for further action’.

‘I in the company of some volunteers arrested three people this year (2018) when we suspected their action. We brought them to the police station together with the goods we retrieved from them. Together with the police we came to where we arrested the men and they confessed in our presence having stolen the goods. We do personally arrest criminals especially, in a situation where we think that it will be too late for the police to come in and act’.

Three key informants supported what the respondents said. This is what one of them said:
'Not quite long, a police informant with the assistance of some young men arrested three people who were suspected of selling stolen goods and handed them to us. Upon investigation, we found out that the goods were actually stolen. I cannot tell you in detail how the people have been assisting us. But in short, I can say that they help us in various ways'. (Key informant interview, 2018)

Justifying the action of those who have been arresting suspects and handing them over to the police, this is what the key informant further stated:

'As you are aware, Section 12 of the Ghana Criminal Procedure Code Act 1960 (Act 30), as amended by NRCD requires that a private person may arrest without a warrant any person who in his presence commits any offence involving the use of force or violence; any offence whereby bodily harm is caused to any person; any offense in the nature of stealing or fraud; and any offense involving injury to a person. The law is clear about the power of a private person to effect arrest. This is an indication that the public has a role to help the police in controlling crime and maintain safety in communities. What is important is that once a person is arrested by any person or group of people, the suspected offended should not be beating but rather should be immediately taken to the police station for further investigation'.
The finding from the study indicates that arrest is not only the prerogative of the police. As the police may not be there at all time and situation, given the power to the ordinary person to arrest suspected offenders could be seen as one way of promoting community participation in crime control. What needs to be done is to educate the public not to take the law into their hands by undertaking instance justice.

4.3.5 Education on responsible citizenship

Education which seeks to inculcate into the people the need to avoid criminal acts is generally viewed as a major preventive approach to crime control. In the view of ICPC (2016), community and social crime prevention, involves various actions or security arrangements which are rolled in advance before any crime is committed. Eighteen respondents mainly women (12) said their role in controlling crime takes in a form of education which seeks to impress upon their relatives about the danger of engaging in any criminal act and the need to be law abiding. In a focus group discussion, this is what one discussant indicated:

'I am a woman and a widow and don’t want to entangle myself with the police. I constantly educate my children not to engage in any bad act that will land them in the hands of the police and also to stay out of the company of bad boys. I am a wife and a husband at the same time. I struggle to feed my children ever since my husband passed away three years ago, and always remind my three
children to be responsible citizens by refraining from indulging in any criminal act. This is what I can tell you I do as a Ghanaian to help controlling crime in my family. If parents can help educating their children about the dangers of criminal activities, I think, this will lessen the number of crime being committed on daily basis especially by the youth. But you know nowadays children, when you are asleep; they manage to find themselves outside in company of friends. Some of these friends can influence them negative. This is why on daily basis I tell my children to stay out of the companies of bad groups’.

All the key informants admitted that, controlling crime through education is considered very important, as in the first instance, it helps prevent people from engaging in criminal acts and the attendant consequences on the society in general and the offenders in particular. Two key informants had this to say respectively:

‘Crime detection could be very expensive as harm might have already been caused. It consumes time and other financial resources. The harm on society due to crime requires that we must do all that we could to avoid it if possible. Educating the masses on regular basis about the dangers of crime and the need to stay out of criminal activities is a major technique of controlling crime. Parents, the police, teachers, religious leaders, the media, National
Commission on Civic Education (NCCE) and other stakeholders should all join in the education against crime. Education is a powerful tool and I know with this a number of people will develop the consciousness of the deadly nature of criminal acts and the need to live as responsible citizens’.

‘Education is very important as far as crime control is concern. We do not only educate the people so as not to engage in criminal activities but most importantly, what they could do to avoid becoming prey to criminals. Occasionally, we give the society what can be termed as crime tip bits through radio talk shows. We admonish the public not to engage in any criminal activities and also to stay away from bad companies. We encourage the public during such occasions to help the police by education their young ones especially to avoid coming headlong with the law through criminal acts. Honestly speaking if the general public will listen to our educational calls to make communities safe, I believe, our work would be reduced drastically. This will safe precious time and scarce resources in conducting criminal investigation and also to ensure that justice is done. Nonetheless, given the different orientations of people from different socio-cultural backgrounds, no matter the education that will be given, some people will still take the law into their own hands. This is why in controlling crime;
we do not limit our efforts solely to education. Crime control is a complex phenomenon and requires a holistic approach.

Educating people so as to prevent them from committing crime in the first instance as revealed in this thesis is productive, and in line with the maxim of the Ghana Police Squad Lesson Notes (p. 5) which states that, ‘the security of public property as well as private, the safety of a person, the public peace, and every other object of the police will be better effected by the prevention of crime than by the punishment of offenders after they have committed the crime’.

4.3.6 Watchman engagement

In the thesis it emerged that other section of the public participate in crime control through the engagement of the services of private security operatives popularly known as ‘watchmen’. This response was given by five of the respondents all store operators/market operators. The researcher was informed that watchmen are engaged and paid on monthly to take care of the property of those who hire their services. The researcher was informed that a monthly contribution is made and collected by the store/market executives and same paid to these hired watchmen. This is what one of the respondents said during an interview in November, 2018:

‘The police are there to protect us but you don’t expect them to be everywhere in the market. As sellers we have come together to form
an association. What we do is that we hire watchmen to protect our wares in the night and paid them from our contributions. These watchmen are helpful as their presence scares any person with criminal intent. I remember last year 2017 through the operation of these watchmen, a young man who had wanted to break into a shop containing used clothes known as second clothes was arrested and handed over to the police. This is how we help ourselves and the police in maintaining safety and controlling crime’.

A key informant confirmed what the respondent said and indicated that, indeed the young man was arrested by the paid watchmen in the market and handed him over to the police. The complementary role played by these paid watchmen through the initiative of the section of the community is laudable in controlling crime from the perspective of the community.

4.4 Forms of Participation

Brager and Specht (1973) have argued that community is a multidimensional concept involving a complex of horizontal and vertical relationships between people and organisations. These authorities assert that the forms of community participation in crime control could be vertical where communities actively collaborate with the police with less collaboration among themselves, or horizontal, where there is close collaboration among the various interest groups in
a given community. The study revealed that the forms of participation involving the local actors are virtually vertical. This was expressed by 39 respondents. Only six respondents affirmed that the relationship between the local actors is both horizontal and vertical. What this means is that there is strong working relationship between the local actors and the police but minimal relationship among the local actors. This is what two respondents said respectively during an interview in November, 2018:

‘I have been helpful to the police. I have closed working relationship with the police. My work is sacrificial and entails risk. As a police informant, I understand that if I become known to the members of the community, I could be attacked especially criminal elements in where I stay. My wife even does not know how I assist the police in controlling crime. I work independently and have no relationship with any other persons who assist the police in carrying out their duties’.

‘We work as a team in my community. As an official elected by the people, a matter of safety is among my priority. I therefore work hand in hand with the unit committee members as well as the police. I occasionally receive crime reports from the unite committee members and I in turn inform the police’.
Cavaye’s Onion Theory of Participation (2010) indicates that, there are various actors with different levels of participation in local initiatives that affect communities’ development. Probing further, 37 respondents indicated that they work directly with the police by engaging them face to face while 9 respondents stated that their role in controlling crime has been indirect. Explaining further, this is what one respondent stated in a focus group discussion:

‘I am a woman and do not want to meddling myself with the law. I try as much as possible to impress upon my relations to live a worthy life devoid of any criminal tendency. With this none of my relations have ever gone to the police station in connection with any crime. So as you see, our role in crime control generally has been in the form of advocacy and indirect’.

In finding out as to whether the respondents’ role in crime control participation is voluntary or mandatory by law, all the 47 respondents affirmed that they have not been forced as far as participation in crime control in their communities is concern. The respondents indicated that they are encouraged by the police to help them, yet the decision to assist in controlling crime is purely taken by them but not the police. A respondent remarked:

‘How can anyone force me to help in controlling crime in my community? My job is a sacrificial one. I don’t receive any income
from the government or the police. Even the voluntary contribution from the members of the community intended to support us in purchasing simple tools such as torchlights and boots is a problem. As we speak I don’t have a boot for night patrols. The only time when our efforts are rewarded is when the police have their annual get-together popularly known as ‘WASSA’ and we are invited to have a feast with them. If government were to introduce some element of force, that would help us to demand either salary or wages. For now our work is purely voluntary’.

In support of what the respondents said, a key informant stated:

‘The work of these local crime control actors is virtually vertical in terms of participation, voluntary and helpful. No one pays them. Their role has helped in minimising the vacuum created by our absence in communities. It has also helped in improving public sense of confidence and safety. Honestly speaking, the assistance giving to us by these local actors is overwhelming. Without these local actors I can tell you, the police cannot function effectively. Our shortfall in terms of manpower has greatly been improved with the complement given to us by the public. The public response has been good. Yet there is still room for improvement’ (Key informant Interview, 2018).
The findings from this thesis buttresses the work of Manaliyo (2016) whose studies revealed that the voluntary and complementary roles by communities help in minimizing the vacuum created by the absence of the police in controlling crime. As the Routine Activities Theory postulates, in the absence of any capable guardian such as the police and these local crime control actors, criminals may get the opportunity to operate. This makes the contribution of the public in crime control very critical. The voluntary nature of community participation in crime control as identified in this thesis suggests that in the absence of any deliberate policy by the government to encourage these local actors in crime control, the sustainability of their participation may be questionable. Pragmatic policies should be made to encourage local people to participate in crime control as it invariably affects their own safety and security.

4.5 Challenges confronting stakeholders in community crime control

To be able to encourage citizens (stakeholders) to actively assist law enforcement agencies in controlling crime in communities, there is the need to identify the challenges confronting such stakeholders. In this regard, a major objective of the thesis was to examine the various challenges which militate against effective community participation in crime control. Four broad challenges were recounted by the respondents namely; the problem of ‘Tijaa-bunyini’, lack of basic working tools such as torchlights and incentives, crime transaction and breach of trust and confidence (see table 4.4 below).
Table 4.4: Challenges militating against effective community participation in crime control

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of problem</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Issue of Tijaa-bunyini (We are all one)</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of basic working tools</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime transaction</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breach of trust</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Study, 2018

4.5.1 Issue of Tijaa-bunyini (We are all one)

Various communities in Africa have different world views or philosophical orientations which foster a sense of unity and peace among the people. One of such orientation held among some people in Southern Africa is ‘Ubuntu’. Ubuntu is a tacit principle which indicates that a person is a person through other persons (Ramose, 1999). During the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) process, Desmond Tutu, the chairman constantly referred to the principle of Ubuntu, which focuses on the ethics of love, empathy, sharing, caring, forgiveness, cooperation and restoration in dealing with common problems which underline the essence of humanity (Murithi, 2006) as opposed to the more retributive justice characterizing the Western conflict resolution mechanism. The
principle of Ubuntu largely contributed to the South African peace building process (Arthur, Issifu, and Marfo, 2015). This study revealed a similar philosophical view held by certain group of people in the study community. According to 13 respondents the issue or philosophy of ‘Tijaa-bunyini’ which is held among the Waales and Dagaabas meaning ‘we are all one’ in some dimension affects effective crime control in the study community. These respondents indicated that offenders who share similar Tijaa-bunyini philosophy are often protected by their tribesmen and kinfolks from being arrested by the police and their subsequent prosecution in the law court when found to have committed a criminal act. A respondent in a moody manner remarked:

‘This issue of Tijaa-bunyini (he/she is my tribal brother/sister) must stop. In the name of ‘we all one’, we shield criminals from been arrested by the police. Our chiefs especially must stop this practice. As for me any relevant information I get about any person engaging in any criminal act, I quickly notify the police’.

The views of four key informants corroborated what was said by the respondents. These key informants expressed that getting information and effecting arrest from the public are often thwarted by this philosophical view of ‘we are all one’ as held by most people in the study community. This is what one of the key informants said:
‘I remember not quite long the police went out to affect an arrest. Upon an enquiry, they were told by a group of people that the suspect had escaped. Apparently, the suspect was with them and unknown to the police, and as he shares similar view with the people, they misled the police by lying to them. Just as the police were returning, they saw one person running and upon a second enquiry from another person, they were informed that the suspect was the one running away. If people can continue to protect criminals because they think they are all one, then I am afraid it will be difficult for the police to control and maintain law and order as expected by the people. Our people must seriously be educated from refraining from protecting criminal and allowing them to escape justice. Honestly speaking, it is a problem to us here in Wa’.

This finding from the thesis is not different from the revelation in a study conducted by Ibadan University (Undated) among eight communities in Ibadan, Nigeria. The study showed that one major practice which affects community participation in crime control in the study locality was the issue of ‘kin relation or settlement’. According to kin-based settlement, reporting a kin to the police or giving out intelligence information on him is seen as an offence to tradition and ancestral relationships. What this finding suggests is that people who share similar ‘Tijaa-bunyini philosophy’ or other philosophical orientation in the study locality
are more likely not to report their kinsfolk in connection with criminal matters as they consider themselves as one and would not like to be seen as tractors. Another implication is that, the strong sense of oneness that exists among a given group of people can be both productive and destructive to community safety and peace building. Writing about the strong force of kinship, Nukunya (2003) has said that among the Ashanti’s for instance, those who share similar clanship do have much in common and behave towards one another with greater consideration than would have been the case if they were not so related. He argues this is particularly so with chiefs for whom common clanship can be the source of very close ties. Philosophical world views hold people strongly together to better or for worse. To be able to deal with the negative influence of kin relation in criminal matters, intensive education is required to orient the public about the dangers of shielding or protecting criminals.

4.5.2 Lack of basic working tools

Logistics in the form of uniforms, boots, torchlights and most especially, arms play a major role as far as policing is concerned, for that matter, the maintenance of law and order. Nation states need arms for instance, to defend themselves in case of external aggression (invasion) and also to quell internal insurrection example; coup d’état and armed robbery. Fisher (2002) argues that substantial part of most individual states’ budget goes into security budget indicating the sensitive nature and importance of safety. Effective crime control policy could therefore not be divorced from the provision of basic logistics such as uniforms, batons and
torchlights to community crime control volunteer actors. In response to the challenges that community crime control actors face in controlling crime, five respondents identified lack of basic working tools such as torchlights and incentives as one issue which challenge effective participation in crime control thereby reducing their strength. A respondent remarked in a focus group discussion:

‘We risk our lives by doing what is supposed to be carried out by the police. We embark on nigh patrols without any weapon. Yet, we don’t even have the basic working tools and motivation. We buy our own torchlights and boots. Even the voluntary contribution by the public to motivate us is not forthcoming. This has reduced our strength. Even though the police occasionally encourage us to continue in the work, we don’t receive anything from them. Our work as I have indicated is voluntary and the public should support us with their widows’ mite by honouring the voluntary monthly contribution’.

Given the fact that community participation in crime control, especially neigbourhood watch is purely voluntary as identified in this thesis, for such engagement to be sustainable, all the necessary motivation should be given to these local actors who risk their lives in protecting the masses especially in the night.
4.5.3 Crime transaction

The study also identified crime transaction as another challenge confronting the people in their quest to control crime voluntarily in the study community. This view was expressed by 15 respondents. According to the respondents in some instances criminals who have been reported to or arrested and handed over to the police are set free because the police negotiate with them, take various sums of monies or other benefits from them which discourages effective collaboration in crime control. A respondent remarked:

'I once informed the police about some young men who were dealing in Indian hemp. The people were arrested and later set free. Nothing happen to them again. Upon my own investigation, I learnt they took money from these drug peddlers. This system of crime transaction is not the best and should be discouraged through severe sanctioning'.

A key informant agreed with the respondents and stated:

'Last year two police officers who took money from some dealers and escorted contraband goods were arrested. They first had their ranks demoted and subsequently dismissed. It is true that some police officers team up with criminals but once such act comes to the notice of the authorities the affected officers are always
sanctioned. This phenomenon of crime transaction is not only limited to the law enforcement alone but equally occurs among the local actors. We must all be watchful to expose such act which undermines any effective control of crime in our communities.

The revelation is an indication that some law enforcement officers take advantage of crime situations to enrich themselves by accepting bribes. Section 244 of the Criminal Code of Ghana, Act 29 (1960), defines a bribe as any valuable consideration accepted before or after an act done by a public officer or juror. Receiving money and other benefits from criminals and setting them free without allowing them to face justice amounts to corruption. The finding is not different from what Faull (2011) had documented. Faull (2011) indicates there is series of allegations against the police for accepting bribes and releasing suspects without charges, and lackadaisical attitude of the police to crime situations. This finding is not different from the revelation in a study conducted by Atuguba (2007). According to Atuguba (2007), most Ghanaians are dissatisfied with the institution called the Ghana Police Service and perceive the police as among the most corrupt institutions. Negotiating with criminals and setting them free for material or economic benefits by law enforcement agents and local crime actors is a serious matter and demands a passionate but rigorous approach in its management and control.
4.5.4 Breach of trust

Trust is a building block of mutual relationship (Oluremi, Ashkansay and Karen, 2014). As earlier stated elsewhere in the study; Cowan (1995) writes that, trust builds self-esteem, and its absence in any social setting results in negative personal, social and performance outcome. Twenty-five (25) respondents were of the view that breach of trust in the part of the police is a major hindrance to any meaningful participation in crime control. These respondents expressed that often information will be given to the police leading to the arrest of an offender. However, some police officers for whatever reasons will disclose their source of information making these informants targets of criminal attack. One respondent remarked:

‘I was narrowly saved when a group of young men attempted assaulting me to the effect that I have reported them to the police as part of those who took part in a given violent act which occurred in my community. Indeed, I reported the people to the police and no one knew about it except the police, yet, these tugs got to know that I was the one who reported them. The police actually betrayed me. Even though I still assist the police in matters affecting the safety of my community but I am careful when dealing with them nowadays.

Effective collaboration between the public and the police is largely grounded in trust. The finding from this thesis is in line with OSCE (2008) report. OSCE
(2008) has pointed out that mobilizing communities in participating in crime control poses certain challenges. OSCE (2008) noted communities may be unwilling to assist the police due to fear of reprisal from criminals, or abuse of some community members by the police.

4.6 Strategies targeting challenges facing community members in their involvement in crime control

In finding out as to what could be done to improve communities’ participation in crime control, three broad suggestions were made namely; transfer, sanction and education and training.

4.6.1 Transfer

Asefah et al. (2015) asserted knowledge, especially experience based knowledge, is one of the key resources in any organization. Knowledge is often considered to be the most important capital of an organization. In view of this different approaches are adopted in handling the processes and employees of an organization. These authorities however, expressed that specialization increases the risk of losing knowledge and experience as a results of transferring or losing employees. This may imply that in organizational setting, transfers of workers should be done with much caution in order not to compromise with productivity. However, in this thesis, 18 respondents suggested that all police officers who have spent 8 to 10 years and above at a given police station should be transferred as
their long stay compromise their work. This is what one respondent said in an interview in September, 2018:

‘Staying in one place for a couple of years increases the knowledge of the police in terms of criminal modus of operation. The danger however, is that it breeds familiarity which affects effective discharge of duty. To me all police officers who have served 10 years and above in the Municipality should be transferred’.

A key informant supported the view expressed by the respondents and indicated that:

‘Arbitrary transfers do not help effective policing. You need to understand the environment in which you work very well. This means that you have to stay and work at a given place for a certain period of time. However, staying at a place for relatively a long period of time has its own challenges. An officer may be well known in a community and his/her strong relationship with the people may discourage him to embark on any meaningful crime control such as arrest and prosecution. As a police officer, one need to develop a strong relationship with the public but to be treated virtually as a brother or a sister by the community is disincentive to effective policing. At the moment, there is no policy
guideline on as to how long a police officer should stay at a given station. However, to me, transferring officers who have stayed in one place for ten years and above can help improve the operation of the police’.

The views of the respondents and the key informants indicated that transfer could be both beneficial and disincentive to effective policing. But as the study had revealed, transferring officers who at least have stayed in one place for eight years is considered productive to minimize the problem of familiarity which often make some police officers to shield criminals due to the benefits they gained from them.

4.6.2 Education and training

Educational plays a major role in the lives of people. Thirty-two (32) respondents suggested that to be able to deal with the issue of ‘crime transaction’ and ‘Tijabunyini’, massive educational campaign should be carried out by the police and the media to orient the public about the dangers of crime, and collaborators of criminal acts. These respondents were of the view that the lack of or inadequate information makes some people to behave in a way which conflicts with the laws of the country. This is what a respondent said:

‘I know it is not easy for people to change their world view and styles of living. I still have the strong believe that if the police and
the media fraternity continuously educate the public on the need for them to help the police in controlling crime, and also the implication for protecting criminals in the name of tijaa-bunyini will be reduced. It is good that we have to be one to ensure a peaceful coexistence, but such sense of unity should not translate into cooperate crime’.

A key informant agreed with the respondents and expressed that the police, the media and all religious bodies should join hands in educating the public about consequences of partnership with criminals.

Furthermore, 19 respondents also suggested that the police should hold periodic training and workshops on basic policing principles for them in order to sharpen their skills. A member in a focus group discussion remarked:

‘We are untrained civilians but have sacrificed to help the police in controlling crime. We need to be trained periodically on the basic principles of policing, most especially with the changing crime trend in this era of ICT’.

All the key informants shared similar view and expressed that the dynamics of society demands that the police intensifies workshops on techniques of crime detection and criminal modus of operation for certain categories of the local crime
control actors especially the neighbourhood watch committee and the transport operatives among others.

4.6.3 Sanctions

Sanctions, both formal and informal help in regulating the conduct of people. As argued by Twumasi (1985), every given society in its development has its own mechanisms of ensuring law and order. In this thesis, 14 respondents suggested sanction in the form of prosecution and reductions in rank in respect of any police officer who divulge any information confided in him to criminals and also engage in crime transaction. All the key informants agreed with the respondents that certain form of punitive action should be meted out to those police officers whose conduct leads to loss of public trust and confidence. A key informant indicated:

‘The police as an organization have its own way of dealing with wayward police officers. The police administration does not shield any police officer who misconducts himself/herself. Even though I don’t have the available statistics, but I can tell you that a number of police officers have had their ranks reduced, others have been prosecuted in law court while a number of them equally have been dismissed from the service for gross misconduct. The police administration is doing all that it could to salvage the sinking image of the police due to certain negative behaviour exhibited by few individuals in the service. We need to prove to the public that
the police can be trusted. As a human institution, occasionally we receive complaints from the general public about the conduct of some police officers. In all situations, we do a thorough investigation and those who are found guilty are sanctioned. The issue is that the public is generally not aware as to what happen to the officers who go against the law. In view of this most people think that the police administration shields its own personnel which is not true". 
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the discussion of major findings, conclusions and recommendations drawn on the topic ‘Assessing Community Participation in Crime Control in the Wa Municipality of the Upper West Region of Ghana’. The chapter’s contents reflect the representations gained from the data gathered in view of the study’s objectives as well as previous studies across the African continent.

5.2 Summary of Major Findings

This thesis revealed a number of issues. One of the key objectives of the thesis was to find out how communities participate in crime control. The study found that communities help in crime control in diverse ways with the dominant being the supply of relevant information about crime and criminals to the police, leading to crime detection, arrest and prosecution. This finding supports May’s (2016) assertion when she said that, where government, law enforcement, businesses and the public work together on prevention, it ensures significant delivery and sustained cuts in certain crimes.

The study found that the nature of participation in the study is voluntary and vertical in nature as there is effective interaction and strong working relationship
between the police and the local crime actors on one hand, however, there is minimal interaction and cooperation among these local crime control actors.

With respect to challenges militating against effective community participation in crime control, four broad challenges were identified with breach of trust on the part of the police as the dominant challenge which retrains community members to effectively participating in crime control activities. This attracted 25 responses. The finding was in consonance with OSCE (2008) report. OSCE (2008) indicates that there is difficulty in mobilising communities to participate in crime control due to certain negative practices and behaviour exhibited by the police including mistreatment of the public, and failure to provide communities with the necessary protection among others.

The study further revealed that three main measures could be employed to deal with the challenges confronting stakeholders in controlling crime in the study locality namely; transfer of all police officers who have served eight to 10 years and above in the study locality, education on the dangers of crime and collaborators or criminal acts, and workshops and training on basic policing principles to sharpen the skills of the local crime control actors as well as prosecution and reduction in rank of police officers found of gross misconduct.
5.3 Conclusion

Per the conceptual framework, Cavaye’s (2010) Onion Theory of Participation, and the System Theory of Teater (2010), this thesis has found that various actors in diverse ways help in controlling crime in the study community which complements the work of the police and improves community sense of safety. However, the presence of certain factors notably breach of trust serve as a demotivation for sincere voluntary participation in crime control in the study locality.

5.4 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. To improve both vertical and horizontal forms of participation among the various community actors in crime control, and to facilitate crime detection, reporting and arrest, the police should provide periodic training for the community actors to equip them with the basic necessary skills of policing. Besides annual gatherings and workshops, quarterly meeting with the community actors should be held to discuss challenges confronting them

2. Given the fact that crime affects everyone, the police as well as the media fraternity should hold periodic education for the public to impress upon them about the need to support the community actors especially the neighbourhood watchdog committees with a token of money and other basic tools such as torchlight’s, batteries, uniforms and boots as such work is purely voluntary.
3. Police officers who divulge information confided in them to unauthorized persons by the community actors and those who engage crime transaction should either have their ranks reduced, dismissed or prosecuted depending on the severity of the issue. The outcome of such punitive measures should be communicated to the public in order to boost their confidence.

4. In order to sustain and promote communities’ interest in crime control, the government through the police should occasionally award the local community crime control actors by given them a token of money and other forms of scholarships to their families without necessarily mentioning their name and where they operate. This invariably would motivate the community crime control actors to participate more meaningfully in crime control initiatives.

5.5 Contribution to Knowledge

This study has made a modest contribution to knowledge. This study is a novel one since there has not been any study that has examined more intently how local actors or communities participate in crime control and the challenges that they face from the perspective of community members and key informants as the current study has done.

The identification of critical challenges to successful community participation in crime control is also a modest contribution to knowledge. Most studies done on crime control has centered on the institutional approach but not on appraisal of the contribution and challenges confronting local crime control actors.
The identification of the ways in which communities participate in crime control is also a modest contribution to knowledge. These broad ways as identified in this study have not been highlighted in the various works done on crime control.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies

The suggestion is that further in-depth studies should be conducted on the role of the communities in crime control in the various municipalities and towns in Ghana which are having challenges with the issue of crime control. Such a research work will provide Ghana with a comprehensive data base for expeditious control of crime in the country in the long run.
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APPENDIX A

Interview guide for the local crime control actors (watchdog committees and transport operators)

I am a student of the above mentioned University, Wa Campus. I am currently writing my MPhil. Thesis on the topic; Assessing Community Participation in Crime Control in the Wa Municipality of the Upper West Region of Ghana. This study is purely for academic purposes and not inspired by any ulterior motive. I am much aware of the ethical issues regarding the conduct of social researches, and therefore assure that under no circumstance shall these ethics be breached in the course of the work. Your participation is however, voluntary and you are at liberty to discontinue with the process at any point in time. Your cooperation in this exercise by way of providing appropriate responses to questions posed would be very invaluable and appreciated. Thank you.

A. Biographic characteristics

Gender..................
Age....................
Status..................
Educational qualification.....
B. Community participation in crime control

1. What is your idea about crime control in this community?

2. What ways do you support police in the Wa Municipality to control crime?

3. What level of participation exists among the various stakeholders in crime control?

4. What are some of the challenges confront you in the performance of your role as a community crime control body. Briefly explain……

5. What could be done to promote community participation so as to control crime in this Municipality?
APPENDIX B

Interview guide for the Police

I am a student of the above mentioned University, Wa Campus. I am currently writing my MPhil. Thesis on the topic; **Assessing Community Participation in Crime Control in the Wa Municipality of the Upper West Region of Ghana.** This study is purely for academic purposes and not inspired by any ulterior motive. I am much aware of the ethical issues regarding the conduct of social researches, and therefore assure that under no circumstance shall these ethics be breached in the course of the work. Your participation is however, voluntary and you are at liberty to discontinue with the process at any point in time. Your cooperation in this exercise by way of providing appropriate responses to questions posed would be very invaluable and appreciated. Thank you.

A. Biographic characteristics

Gender………………

Age…………………

Status………………

Educational qualification…..
B. Community participation in crime control

1. What is your idea about crime control in Wa Municipality?

2. What ways do communities support in crime control in the Wa Municipality crime?

3. What level of participation exists among the various stakeholders in crime control?

4. What are some of the challenges confronting effective crime control approaches in the Wa Municipality?

5. What could be done to promote community participation so as to control crime in this Municipality?
APPENDIX C

Interview guide for the chiefs, market women association, store operators and local women group

I am a student of the above mentioned University, Wa Campus. I am currently writing my MPhil. Thesis on the topic; Assessing Community Participation in Crime Control in the Wa Municipality of the Upper West Region of Ghana.

This study is purely for academic purposes and not inspired by any ulterior motive. I am much aware of the ethical issues regarding the conduct of social researches, and therefore assure that under no circumstance shall these ethics be breached in the course of the work. Your participation is however, voluntary and you are at liberty to discontinue with the process at any point in time. Your cooperation in this exercise by way of providing appropriate responses to questions posed would be very invaluable and appreciated. Thank you.

A. Biographic characteristics

Gender................

Age...................

Status............... 

Educational qualification.....
B. Community participation in crime control

1. What is your idea about crime control in Wa Municipality?

2. What ways do communities support in crime control in the Wa Municipality crime?

3. What level of participation exists among the various stakeholders in crime control?

4. What are some of the challenges confronting effective crime control approaches in the Wa Municipality?

5. What could be done to promote community participation so as to control crime in this Municipality?
APPENDIX D

Interview guide for Religious leaders, local Council Authorities and a Development educator.

I am a student of the above mentioned University, Wa Campus. I am currently writing my MPhil. Thesis on the topic; Assessing Community Participation in Crime Control in the Wa Municipality of the Upper West Region of Ghana.

This study is purely for academic purposes and not inspired by any ulterior motive. I am much aware of the ethical issues regarding the conduct of social researches, and therefore assure that under no circumstance shall these ethics be breached in the course of the work. Your participation is however, voluntary and you are at liberty to discontinue with the process at any point in time. Your cooperation in this exercise by way of providing appropriate responses to questions posed would be very invaluable and appreciated. Thank you.

A. Biographic characteristics

Gender ..................

Age .....................

Status ................... 

Educational qualification.....
B. Community participation in crime control

1. What is your idea about crime control in Wa Municipality?

2. What ways do communities support in crime control in the Wa Municipality crime?

3. What level of participation exists among the various stakeholders in crime control?

4. What are some of the challenges confronting effective crime control approaches in the Wa Municipality?

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