

PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN THE POLICE AND COMMUNITY POLICING ON ENHANCING SECURITY IN KWALE COUNTY, KENYA

Khamisi Stephen Ngereso

Master of Arts in Public Policy and Administration, Kenyatta University, Kenya

Dr. Daniel Mange

Department of Educational Management, Policy and Curriculum Studies, Kenyatta University, Kenya

©2020

International Academic Journal of Law and Society (IAJLS) | ISSN 2519-772X

Received: 4th March 2020

Published: 15th March 2020

Full Length Research

Available Online at: http://www.iajournals.org/articles/iajls_v1_i3_46_67.pdf

Citation: Khamisi, S. N. & Mange, D. (2020). Partnership between the police and community policing on enhancing security in Kwale County, Kenya. *International Academic Journal of Law and Society*, 1(2), 46-67

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to find out whether partnership between the police and community policing can enhance security in Kwale County. The police service is one of the public service institutions in Kenya, which is among the most controversial. The police in Kenya as well as anywhere else in the world have been riddled with a lot of complaints which range from malpractices, excessive use of force to corruption. This has caused lack of trust from the members of the public who institutions which is mandated to protect and safeguard their interest and as a result it widen the gap between the police and community, which leads to insecurity. This has led to mushrooming of a lot of illegal grouping in Kenya, namely *Chingororo* in Kisii, *Baghdad Boys* in Kisumu, *Msumbiji* in Kakamega, *Mungiki* in Nairobi, *Saboat Land Defence Forces* in Mount Elgon and *Mombasa Republican Council* in Kwale and many more. To this end, this study intended to address the disconnect that affects the partnership between the police and community policing in addressing insecurity. It was thus guided by three objectives: to determine the effectiveness of the partnership in policing between the police and the community in Msambweni Sub-County; to establish the modalities of building partnerships between the police and the community in Msambweni Sub-County; and to identify the challenges that hinder partnerships between the police and the community in Msambweni Sub-County. The data was collected using questionnaires and interview guide documents from the police officers based in Diani, the general public; the community policing committee members;

and the members of the Sub-County Security Intelligence Committee. Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods were utilized so as to provide answers to the research objectives. Accordingly, the study revealed that the partnership between the police and the community policing programme is effective. Research participants strongly disagreed that the partnership is a waste of time and that it is not real police work. They were unanimous that the partnership has helped to reduce insecurity in their neighbourhoods, albeit not completely. The study also found that citizen mobilization, situational prevention and neighbourhood watch programmes were some of the modalities that were popularly applied by the security stakeholders to enhance the partnership between the police and the community policing. Lastly, the study revealed that a negative attitude of some junior police officers who are still stuck in the past is curtailing community policing partnership. They are yet to embrace the change from the police force to the police service, which emphasizes building partnerships with civilians to provide security. Issues of trust also emerged as a challenge to the partnership building, where the police were accused by the community of betraying them to the criminals once they have furnished them with the intelligence needed. Community policing members also decried their lack of compensation for the work they perform, something that has made it difficult to recruit more members. It was therefore recommended that the short courses be offered to the police officers to underscore the importance of community policing. It was also recommended that a further research be

done using the same variables but with a large sample size so as to evaluate this study's replicability.

Key Words: *police and community policing, enhancing security, Kwale County, Kenya*

INTRODUCTION

According to the Commission for Human Security, human security is defined as the protection of the important cost of human lives in order to enhance human freedoms and human fulfillment (CHS, 2003). This means striving to protect people from all kinds of threats and situations in addition to creating political, social, environmental, economic, military and cultural systems that essential for survival, livelihood and dignity (CHS, 2003). Without these essential structures, there could be no reason to talk of sufficient security of a people. Crime has been identified as the major contributor to insecurity globally (CHS, 2003). Therefore, a concerted effort is needed to root it out in the society so that people can experience security in their day-to-day activities in a community. Pursuant to the provision of security, the police play a critical role together with the community to safeguard the said building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity.

However, insecurity has not been totally eradicated and all too often those who are hardest hit have little opportunity to engage constructively with the police. In most cases, the incidences of insecurity arise from the mistrust between the police and the community, whereupon the police is willing to serve but the community hide the information that could lead to solving the security problem. There are instances where the police have also been accused of collusion to cause insecurity (Omeje & Githigaro, 2010). The mistrust between the two key stakeholders of security provision notwithstanding, the nature of communities is quickly changing together with nature of crime and violence that impact on communities making policing strategies of yesteryears ineffective today. Consequently, the police must seek more effective methods of dealing with these changes to successfully deal with insecurity. This brings about the need to develop a strategy that encourages efficient use of resources and shared responsibility to fight crime which is an absolute necessity. Traditionally, the responsibility to fight crime resided with police agencies. Today, however, the success in the fight against crime depends on the cooperation between the police, the community and other stakeholders. This arrangement has been described as community policing (Omeje & Githigaro, 2010).

According to Oloo, Wafula and Ikelegbe (2010), community policing is both a strategy and a philosophy that provides a framework for the police and the community to work cordially in order to solve security problems such as crime, physical and social disorder as well as neighborhood decay. For community policing to succeed there should be a police service that is professional, representative, responsive, and accountable so as to win public trust. The police force has gone beyond simply fighting crime, but rather embraced all aspects of the society that are critical to holistic provision of security. This role is captured in the Kenya Police motto: '*Utumishi Kwa Wote*' which translates to 'Service to all'.

Before the advent of formal policing, communities policed themselves for they had norms to reinforce. For example, during the formative stages of development in England as well as in the Colonial America, it was the responsibility of the citizens to enforce laws in their communities (Demsey & Forst 2009). This was called 'kin police' where people were responsible for watching over their kinfolk. In the Colonial America, however, there was an established watch system comprising of male citizen volunteers. These volunteers provided social services which included street lighting, recovery of lost children, capturing marauding animals, et cetera. However, these primitive policing activities were largely insignificant due to their disorganizations. The responsibility of law enforcement was then handed over to groups of men residing within a particular community from the previously known individual citizen volunteers, a system referred to as the 'frankpledge system' (Palmiotto, 2000). This system therefore became responsible for law enforcement. Men residing within a locality would organize themselves in groups of *ten* known as 'tythings' who then could be organized into groups of *hundreds*, and then hundreds would form what is called 'shires' (Palmiotto 2000). One person was chosen to head each shire; he was referred to as 'shire reeve' (sheriff). When this also failed to stop crime, Sir Robert Peel, the then Home Secretary for England, introduced the Bill on Improving the Police in and Near the Metropolis to the British Parliament in 1829 with an objective of organizing a police force capable of controlling the social conflict caused by the exponential rate of urbanization and industrialization in London at the time (Berg, 1999). On the 29th day of September 1829, the London Metropolitan Police was created thus making Peel the father of modern policing.

The police, he said, were civilians drawn from the public and compensated to dedicate their time to duties belonging to every citizen in the interests of community welfare and existence. Consequently, the historic legacy of the police force requires the adoption of a policing philosophy detached from government support and party politics, embodying a clear distinction of duties from that of the military. Thus, this philosophy should focus on the needs of communities and the public and endeavour to provide an accountable policing service.

Recognizing that communities are best position to identify their own security issues and safety needs and how best they can be addressed. Therefore, communities must be actively involved in the implementation of the home-grown solutions to their security problems. Community members, moreover, play an important role in monitoring progress and providing feedback. Developing a national policy in Kenya, was identified as a key priority as early as 2002, but only took off with the creation of the National Task Force on Police Reforms, which was appointed by President Mwai Kibaki in 2003. The aim of a sub-committee charged with the development of the community policing policy appointed by the president, was to develop a draft policy and standard operating procedures for Community-Based Policing (CBP) implementation. This process gained momentum at a time when the governance, justice, law and order program was embracing a sector-wide approach to support policy and legislative reform.

By November 2004, a draft policy was completed and published as an annex to the Government's Police Reform Framework. However, subsequent delays in the development and ratification of the

national policy has hampered the process of implementing CBP in Kenya. A set of standard operating procedures for community policing was launched by the president in April 2005. With the passage of the current constitution in 2010, it has provided for the County Policing Authority (CPA) to be implemented by the 47 devolved units in the country to assist in solving security issues.

Kenya has in past played a role in promoting peace and security in the East African region. For instance, it played a critical role in the Somalia and Sudan peace processes. Nevertheless, Kenyan citizens have their own share of suffering as a result of high levels of insecurity. This is informed by resurgent of criminal and militia groups which has inflicted untold sufferings to Kenyans. These groups include the *Mungiki* in Central Kenya; the *Chinkororo* in Kisii; the *Musumbiji* in Western Kenya; the Sabaot Land Defense Forces (SLDF) in Mount Elgon; the Mombasa Republican Council (MRC); the *Munungunipa*, *Kayabombo* and *Shungwaya* in Coast region of Kenya; and sympathizers of the *Al Shabaab* in Kenya. Violent crime involving firearms is common and it is a significant cause of social and economic degeneration in poor communities (Oloo et al., 2010). The most common crimes include burglary, armed robbery, murder, substance abuse and others. The police alone have not been able to control these crimes because they have a vast area to police with inadequate resources.

The Kenyan government found it appropriate to use CBP as tool to address the level of insecurity across the country in the wake of this insecurity threat. However, this strategy did not succeed due to the lack of proper information into their whereabouts, their operations, means of financing and other intelligence facts have been hampered by poor and ineffective partnership between the police and community policing (GoK, 2003). To this end, this proposed study will endeavor to find out why the collaboration between the police and the community in Africa, and more especially in Kenya, has not been carried out as effectively as it should have been. This is evident in the way role of the police is still looked at from the traditional perspective, which has yielded little towards the provision of security. In places where there has been a paradigm shift to community policing, the shift has not been radical enough to guarantee the trust needed for concerted effort to root out crime in the society. The study argues that there are inefficiencies that need to be addressed in orders to successfully implement community policing strategies. As such, this proposed study abrogates the role of identifying and addressing these inefficiencies in order to bring about a robust partnership between the police and the community to decisively deal with matters of security.

The coastal region of Kenya has been plagued by insecurity issues for a long time (GoK, 2003). The perpetrators of this insecurity has been home-grown criminal groupings as well as terrorist groups, whose origin can be traced in Somalia. Although the criminal groups, also known as vigilantes are spread all over the country, the notorious one found along the coastal region going by the name MRC has had unprecedented impact on its demand from the national government. Their call for the coastal region to secede from Kenya, with their slogan: *Pwani sio Kenya* (the Coast in not part of Kenya), is tantamount to treason yet they do not care of the consequences of their actions and utterances.

The Msambweni Sub-County of Kwale County, has been a breeding ground for recruitment and training of young men and women into organized criminal groups which has brought a lot of insecurity. The MRC reside in Kwale County where they have unbridled access to good training grounds for terror such as *Zombo* Forest, *Kaya* Forest and some of mosques within the county. Moreover, most of the youths from the county are recruited to the Somali-based terrorist group, *Al Shabaab*, for military-like training and then sent back home to commit terrorist acts. Some recruits who come back and are not used for terrorist activities always find a soft landing in MRC membership and end up committing crime hence increasing insecurity within Msambweni Sub-County.

Since the community in Msambweni Sub-County is the hardest hit with this wave of insecurity, it is important to establish community policing in order to protect the residents of this region and at the same time broker peace with these vigilante and terrorist groups. With only the traditional policing, little impact can be achieved, as has already been proved by the rampant insecurity in the region even with the police doing patrols in the area (GoK, 2003). Community policing which involves both the locals and the police can have an impact on reducing this wave of insecurity in the regions by appealing to the perpetrators to lay down arms and start building peace in their society which will be beneficial to everybody in the long run.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Partnerships in policing appears to be an alternative method of combating insecurity since the traditional policing approach has not provided answers to crime problems in the area. Globally, community partnerships in policing have been effectively implemented in countries such as the United Kingdom, Australia, and Holland (Dempsey & Forst, 2009). However, there is no single partnership policing model that fits all policing environments, and policing strategies need to be tailor-made for specific conditions. Police agencies relay on institutional and civil society partners to assist them to deal with crime as they have come to realize that they are unable to deal with crime without the involvement of community members (GoK, 2003). Unfortunately, there is a widening gap between the police force and the communities as witnessed in the inefficiencies of policing in areas where there is CBP (GoK, 2003). Therefore, this study intends to address the disconnect that affects the partnership between the police and community policing in addressing insecurity. In particular, Msambweni Sub-County within Kwale County will be the context of the study owing to the side-by-side existence of CBP and rampant insecurity.

GENERAL OBJECTIVE

The general objective of the study is to find out the effect of partnership between the police and community policing on enhancing security in Msambweni Sub-County of Kwale in Kenya.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

1. To determine the effectiveness of partnership in policing between the police and the community in Msambweni Sub-County.
2. To establish the modalities of building partnerships between the police and the community in Msambweni Sub-County.
3. To identify the challenges that hinder partnership in policing in Msambweni Sub-County.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to Tronjanowicz, Kappeler, Gaines and Bucqueroux (1998), community policing is a law enforcement philosophy premised on the concept of police officers and private citizens working together to solve contemporary community problems of insecurity such as crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, among others, if they work together in creative ways. Police departments the world over have attempted to establish CBP in ways such as police patrols, citizen police academies, community meetings crime analysis, among others, in order to break away from the traditional policing. The effects of this new approach has had mixed results depending on the demographic composition of a community (Lombardo & Lough, 2007). Skogan (2006) observed that community policing comprises three core elements, namely: citizen involvement, problem solving, and decentralization. These elements are all related, but the most important of all is the citizen involvement since it forms the basis of community policing.

Community policing requires cooperation between the police and members of a community. The latter assume the responsibility for crime by reporting crimes without delay to the police as well as by volunteering as witnesses whenever crimes occur. The police, on the other hand, is required to mobilize individuals and organizations around crime prevention through various ways (Lombardo & Lough, 2007). In this quest for cooperation, two theories have been used to ground the philosophy of community policing. The first theory is called 'broken window theory' proposed by Wilson and Kelling (1982) and developed by Kelling and Coles (1998). The second is 'the community implant hypothesis as espoused by Rosenbaum (1987).

The broken window theory is premised on the assumption that disorder and crime are connected in a developmental pattern. That is, not fixing a broken window in a building may make all the rest of the windows to break as well, with time. The unfixed window signals that no one cares and so breaking more windows will not lead to any sanction. According to Lombardo and Lough (2007), such vandalism are likely to occur when the sense of mutual regard and the obligations of civility are reduced by actions that seem to signal disinterest. Wilson and Kelly (1982) argued that neighbourhoods where property is abandoned, weeds grow, windows are broken, and people move out. For those who remain, fights occur, litter accumulates, graffiti proliferates, suggesting that the area is uncontrollable, and fear of crime increases. Therefore, by repairing the broken window, other windows may not continue breaking. The community needs to be aware of the broken window and engage the police in fixing it. This theory was empirically tested and confirmed by

Skogan (1990); Kelling and Coles (1996); Silverman (1999); and Lombardo and Lough (2007). This study will adopt the 'broken window theory to explain the evolution of crime within the Msambweni Sub-County.

The community implant hypothesis argues that social control can be started informally by actions of citizen within neighbourhoods where social control is naturally weak or even non-existent (Rosenbaum, 1987; Mastrofski, Worden & Snipes, 1995). The authors defined social control as the capacity of a group to regulate its members through the use of rewards and punishments to ensure that members obey group norms. Whilst formal social control is sanctioned by the written rules and laws, interpreted by the courts and enforced by the police, informal social control is premised on the custom and social norms and is enforced by the citizens themselves through such actions as surveillance, verbal reprimand, rejection and other pressures to encourage conformity (Lombardo & Lough, 2007). To this end, community policing becomes whether the police, working with the community, can enforce informal social control in a socially disorganized community. Skogan (1990) successfully tested and confirmed this theory. This theory will also be used in this study to explain the modalities of implementing CBP in Msambweni Sub-County.

EMPIRICAL REVIEW

In 2003, Safer World, in collaboration with its local partner Peace Net, developed and implemented partnerships policing in Kenya (Tilley, 2005). Safer World is a non-profit and an independent international organization whose work revolve around prevention of violence in order to build safer lives. The organization works with people locally who are affected by conflict in a bid to improve their security, besides conducting wider research. Peace Net, on the other hand is a national network of peace building organizations that focuses on building the capacities of its members and conducting peace action. The initiative is designed to build a partnership between the police and communities and to enable them to work together in finding solutions to community security concerns. This was achieved by creating inter-agency partnerships, community participation and collaboration with stakeholders. Two pilot sites were identified and partnerships were developed successfully at these sites.

Police reports intimate that the partnership approach to addressing insecurity resulted in crime rates being reduced by up to 40 per cent in one of the pilot sites, and this resulted in an increase in trust between the police and residents and in the increased accountability of the police (Haberfeld & Cerrar, 2008). The first pilot site was the area of Kibera, which was faced with the challenge of rampant crime (Haberfeld & Cerrar, 2008). Community members who were both victims and perpetrators of crime were involved in efforts to improve safety through various projects. Communities together with the police launched a number of awareness campaigns to raise attentiveness to the dangers of involvement in crime in general and drugs in particular. Citizens in Kibera gained greater confidence to discuss openly the safety and security issues that confronted them in their day-to-day lives. More opportunities for new partnerships emerged such as the local development fund, the Lang'ata Constituency Development Fund and Adopt-a-Light, which put

up high-mast flood lights in the area to light up the dark alleys frequented by criminals. This street-lighting project reduced the incidence of muggings, thus achieving crime prevention through environmental design. According to Travis (1996), environmental design may contribute to incidents of crime, especially when the areas are poorly policed. Criminals use poorly developed areas such as dark alleys and open spaces, to their advantage.

Overall, the partnerships in policing projects in Kibera served to improve trust and cooperation among the police, civil society and communities. Many residents felt more comfortable approaching police officers in confidence and believed that they would receive support. Police officers reported feeling better equipped for crime prevention because they had the support of the community. The police realized that they could not solve all problems presented to them without citizen involvement (Smith & Cornish, 2003). Furthermore, many problems were more appropriately resolved by working with agencies. This finding is supported by Hughes (1998), who considers that partnerships in crime prevention and community safety have become increasingly important, given the related failure of more traditional policing. All members of the partnership agreed to start with a second pilot, after the first pilot program proved successful.

The second pilot was conducted in Isiolo area. The main causes of crime in this area related to social and economic factors. High levels of unemployment among the young and increasing levels of drug abuse and prostitution were some of the issues that forced many to resort to crime. There was also a proliferation of small arms in this area. The first step was to raise awareness and support for the philosophy and principles of partnerships in policing. Following this, relationships among communities, the local police and local government officials were built to develop programmes that responded to specific safety and security concerns of the residents, and a partnership agreement was signed. A steering committee which included representatives of communities, the Kenya Police and the Local Provincial Administration was established.

The steering committee organized a range of activities to raise awareness among communities and to ensure that people recognized the need to engage the police to tackle security and safety challenges. The pilot also became a success because all the partners were committed to dealing with crime in the area. This point led to forming of partnership in policing in an orderly and organized manner, based on the principle of consultation and obtaining buy-in from all the partners. The review of the literature indicates that national security is highly dependent on governance in that good governance of a country results in a secure society since issues like decision making and resource distribution are done in an inclusive manner.

In the same manner, community policing helps improve national security since the overall internal security depends on intelligence information either on a crime committed or a crime to be committed. This information must come from the community because the criminals live among people in the societies. Internal security is a prerequisite to a peaceful environment that is conducive for foreign and local investment. A peaceful environment therefore helps bring progress

in all aspects of human life. In this manner, this section will examine the interplay between the concepts of security and development, governance, insecurity and community justice.

Security and Development

Development and security are two interrelated phenomena. Purpura (2011) defines security as freedom from danger, and posits that it implies safety, which is freedom from anxiety or fear. Development, on the other hand, is defined by Zedner (2009) as a process that expands the real freedoms people enjoy. The emphasis on human freedoms contrasted with the casual views of development, such as associating development with the growth of gross national product, the increase in personal incomes, industrialization, technological advance, or even social modernization. Development is therefore a key dimension of personal life, social relations, politics, economics and culture.

At the core of development and security is the question of the relationship between government and civil society. Duffield (2007) explains, in contributing to the development of security, that since the Cold War there has been the assumption that development requires security and without security it is difficult to develop. This observation has been repeated over and over in many government reports, policy statements, UN documents, among others. The UN Secretary General in 2005, for example, seemed to concur with this argument as he echoed the same sentiments: "...in an increasingly interconnected world, progress in the areas of development, security and human rights must go hand in hand" (Baylis, 2013). Development can hardly be achieved without security and neither can security be achieved without development. Hence, both development and security are dependent on the respect for human rights and the rule of law.

The President of the UN Security Council, in 2008, once again reiterated the same sentiments when he asserted that the Security Council recognizes that the establishment of an effective, accountable and professional security sector is one of the important elements for building the foundations for peace and sustainable development. Since absence of security signifies the presence of conflict or fear of conflict, in essence, then, violent conflict is rightly seen as a profound development challenge. Schnabel and Farr (2012) are of the view that repeated cycles of political and criminal violence causes human suffering and disrupts development. Moreover, low levels of human development may cause instability and conflict. According to the World Development Report (2011), the inclination to perceive violence as interstate conflict obscures the variety and prevalence of organized violence and downplays its impact on people's lives.

The organized conflicts that disrupt governance and prevents development comprises local violence with militias or even between ethnic groups, gang violence, local resource-related violence and violence linked to trafficking, violence associated with global ideological struggles. Attempts to maintain collective security have been made by human since time immemorial. In fact, from the earliest times there has been the recognition that human safety depends on collaboration, hence the formation of village communities, cities and nation-states. Zoellick, the president of the World Bank, asserted in the World Bank Report (2011) that indeed effort should

be put on securing development, bringing security and development together to smoothly move from conflict to peace and then establish stability to spur growth and development.

Unfortunately, according to the World Bank Report of 2011, insecurity remains a major development challenge of this generation. Millions of people live in areas characterized by fragility, conflict or large-scale organized criminal violence. No low-income fragile or conflict-affected country has to achieve a single United Nation development goal. It is seen that while much of the world has made rapid progress in reduction of poverty in the past six decades, areas still characterized by repeated cycles of political and criminal violence are falling behind with compromised economic growth.

Governance and Insecurity

Conceptually, governance is defined as the rule of the rulers, usually within a given set of rules (Vladislav 2004). This is said to be the process by which authority is conferred on rulers, by which they make the rules, and by which those rules are enforced and modified. The UNDP definition describes governance as the exercise of economic, political, and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels (UNDP, 2000). It comprises mechanisms, processes, and institutions, in which citizens and other groups express their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations, and mediate their differences. Central to any governance system, is the network of different pertinent institutions.

Governance is now understood to include the wide range of ways in which the political, social, and administrative structure of a society impact on the accessibility to basic opportunities by its members. According to Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI) project reports composite indicators of six dimensions of governance, which covers over 200 countries and territories since 1996, and gets updated annually (Vladislav 2004). The study underlying the WGI arises from many of individual sources, and reflects the views on governance of thousands of survey respondents and public, private, and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO) sector experts across the world. Key features and aggregate indicators that define governance in this case are listed as voice and accountability, political stability and absence of violence, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, and control of corruption. Deriving from this, good governance has been equated to sound development management and is defined as the way power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development (Dempsy & Forst, 2009). It is among other things, participatory, transparent, accountable, effective and equitable, and promotes the rule of law. Good governance provides basis for development, which if lacking can lead to criminal activities and insecurity.

According to Putman (1994) the concept of predatory society is the direct opposite of the civic community. In a predatory society, the powerful prey on the weak, there is no real community, no shared commitment to any common vision of the public good, and no respect for law. Behaviour here is cynical and opportunistic and people form alliances with one another in order to ascend to power and get privileges, but not in a horizontal fashion. Rather, relations are steeply hierarchical

and patronized. Brazen inequalities in power and status lead to vertical bonds of dependency and exploitation, which define the way society operates.

The masses at the bottom of a predatory society cannot cooperate with one another because they are trapped in hierarchical networks, fragmented from one another, and generally distrustful. Politicians in the predatory society will use any means and break any rules to get power and wealth. Institutions are a façade and in this context, neither democracy nor development can be sustained for long. Family structure, the organization of markets the state, religious hierarchies, schools, the ways elites have exploited masses to extract surpluses from them, and the general set of values that governs society's cultural outlook are part of the long list of key institutions. According to Diamond (2002), poor governance is marked on the other hand by deficiency in those institutions, policies or political systems that might create situation of exploitation either by the ruler or the ruled.

Poor governance stands as one of the main sources of different form of insecurity, therefore a strategy for safe and secure communities requires the creation of regimes that can achieve the universal goals of freedom and development. Usually, the political and economic development is founded on five forms of capital: financial, physical, human, institutional and social. The concepts of structural theory has been used in many policy and academic disciplines to identify social conditions (structures) that affect group access to services and other qualities-of-life measures. According to this view, a government beset by problems such as economic and military crises is vulnerable to challenges by insurgent forces. Countries that possess abundant social capital (and the strong public institutions and public life that result from it) are civic communities in contrast, countries that lack such capital and institutions are predatory societies (Diamond, 2002).

Community Justice

To understand community's understanding of justice, it is important to appreciate what exactly it is that the police do. The police comprise the official government's body that has to maintain a secure internal state, which includes the personal security of that state's citizens. In order to do this effectively, the police must convince several audiences of their effectiveness. They must convince politicians that they have effectively executed the state's policy and the resources they were allocated; they must convince criminals that they are effective in fighting crime, and they must convince the public that they are effective in crime prevention (or ensuring those citizens personal security).

Having said this, the police's task in crime-prevention remains an issue of debate. As Johan (2007) argues, there is only so much the police can do in crime-prevention. He believes the police as an institution should more contribute to crime prevention, instead of being the main actor responsible for it. He points to the fact that the police's tasks are mostly short-term, like law enforcement. By doing these tasks effectively, they can create a deterrence for criminals and thus contribute to crime-prevention. However, Johan mentions that crime prevention on a larger scale lies in tackling the roots of crime, which are longer-term problems like socio-economic ones. Addressing these

issues is what is called social crime prevention and should be the responsibility of other institutions than the police. This brings me to the wider concept of policing.

Today, the concept of policing is not limited to that what the state-police do anymore. Other actors in policing now include private security companies and community policing initiatives like neighborhood watches. This broadening of the concept of policing brings along problems with governance and accountability. With most crime being of local character, the police need to gain correct and useful information, which is most often only obtainable from the public. Co-operation between the police and the public is thus essential. In order to gain this information, the police need to be considered legitimate by the public. But with more forms of policing surfacing, including community policing and private policing, the actors who govern these other forms of police can become increasingly vague and diverse. This is especially so in a multi-ethnic society. Therefore, proper and clear accountability, and strong governance, are important for a well-functioning police.

As the police are an executive body of the government, they will treat citizens according to their government's behaviour (Smootha & Hanif, 2002). In a liberal democracy for example, in which all citizens are granted equal civil and political rights and are judged by merit, one would expect equal treatment of all citizens. In dictatorships however, the ruler or ruling party does not have to depend on votes from all parts of the population. This means that services, including policing services, might be unequally distributed to those on which the government depends on most. Thus, the issue of accountability here is important, the question of whom the police have to account their actions to influence their actions. Regardless of the political system, however, ethnic profiling (treating certain ethnic groups differently) by the police can result in unrest and unhappiness within a group. When this unrest grows past certain boundaries, it can result in that group considering the government and /or the police illegitimate which could pose an internal security threat.

RESERCH METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The study will employ the descriptive survey design to establish the partnership between the police and community policing in Msambweni Sub-County within Kwale County. According to Kothari (2004), survey involves description, recording, analysis and reporting conditions that exist or existed. Cooper and Schindler (2006) note that a survey method is useful in obtaining data that is useful for evaluating present practices and for decision-making. This design is considered appropriate because it enabled the researcher to collect and analyze data from a wide range of the general public (respondents from the residents of Msambweni Sub-County), police officers, members of community policing committee and members of the Sub-County Security and Intelligence Committee (SCSIC). The design enabled the researcher to investigate the partnership between the police and community policing in enhancing security within Msambweni Sub-County without manipulating the variables.

Target Population

Target population is defined as that population from which a researcher wants to generalize the results of his/her study (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Borg and Gall (1989) define target population as all members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events or objects to which we wish to generalize the results of our research. This research targeted the residents of Msambweni Sub-County within Kwale County, police officers, members of the community policing forums, and members of the Sub-County Security and Intelligence Committee (SCSIC). According to the 2009 census data, Msambweni Sub-County has a population of 288,393 people comprising of 142,305 males and 146,088 females (KNBS, 2013). The choice of this target population was informed by the incidents of insecurity that are attributed to the activities of the Mombasa Republican Council whose headquarter is in Kwale County. Moreover, most of the unemployed youthful population in Msambweni Sub-County usually ends up in Somalia as Al Shabaab recruits, who upon training come back to Mombasa and its environs to execute terrorist activities. Some are taken somewhere else to commit terrorist acts. Given this situation in Msambweni Sub-County, CBP is seen as the only remedy to the insecurity problem in the region.

Sample Selection and Sampling Procedure

The sample of the study was drawn from the residents of Msambweni Sub-County, through non-probability sampling procedure. Convenience sampling was used to select twenty (20) police officers from Diani Police Station; and twenty (20) general public. Additionally, snowballing sampling procedure was used to select ten (10) community policing committee members at the station level. The reason why convenience and snowballing sampling techniques were used is due to the sensitivity of the topic in the area. To begin with, individuals from the general public were afraid of being seen with outsiders discussing issues pertaining to security. Many incidents were cited where people were killed on the suspicion of divulging security secrets of the community to security agents. Given that the researcher was mistaken as a security agent due to the nature of his questions, few people were willing to participate in the research. Secondly, convincing police officers to complete the questionnaires was difficult due to their busy schedules and hence the few who were available and willing to participate were included in the study. Thirdly, the community policing members drawn from the station level were also selected through convenience sampling since getting them was not very easy. Moreover, given that they are also members of the general public, they were wary of their neighbours following the spate of reprisals that had hit their locality. Lastly, members of the SCSIC were selected using judgmental sampling for they were the deemed knowledgeable in matters of security and intelligence in Msambweni Sub-County. These respondents provided qualitative data. As pointed out by Saumure and Given (2008), non-probability sampling is applicable to qualitative research, when a researcher wants in-depth study of a particular group. The latter could be people individually selected to represent typical traits from within that group.

Data Collection Tools and Procedures

Questionnaire was used to collect data from the police officers and the general public. According to Sekeran (2003), questionnaires are used for data collection because they offer considerable advantages in the administration. Furthermore, they give respondents freedom to express their views or opinion and also to make suggestions. The questionnaire was designed to have six sections covering the following areas: general information; level of community participation in community policing decision-making; challenges of community policing; attitudes of the community towards community policing; attitudes of security officers towards community policing; and strategies employed to improve effectiveness of community policing. The interview schedule was used to guide face-to-face interviews held with community policing committee members and members of the SCSIC which included the Deputy County Commissioner (DCC), the Sub-County Police Commandant (SCPC), the Sub-County Criminal Investigation Officer (SCCIO), the Officer in-charge of a Station (OCS), the Officer in-charge of Anti-Terrorism Police Unit (OC-ATPU), the National Intelligence Service (NIS) officer. The interview schedule comprised items addressing the objectives of the study. This tool was appropriate since it was able to gather first-hand information from the individuals who were charged with the responsibility of security within Msambweni Sub-County.

Data Analysis Techniques

Upon collecting all the data, data cleaning was done in order to determine inaccurate, incomplete, or unreasonable information and then improve the quality through correction of detected errors and omissions. After data cleaning, coding was done and was entered into the computer for analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Data analysis procedures employed involve both quantitative and qualitative procedures. While quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, qualitative data was analyzed using thematic content analysis method based on the analysis of meanings and implications emanating from respondent information and comparing responses to document data on community policing and its implementation.

RESEARCH RESULTS

The study was guided by three objectives that drawn from the central research question. These three objectives were addressed by the data gathered from four categories of respondents, namely: the general public, the police officers, the community policing committee members, and members of the SCSIC. After a thorough analysis of the data, the findings were crystal clear and were sufficiently used to address the set objectives.

Effectiveness of Community Policing

From the responses received, the overarching feedback was that community policing in Msambweni Sub-County was at the infant stages of being effective in offering security to the

residents of this area. This means that it is slowly getting rooted among the residents and some have started embracing it. The effectiveness of this programme was measured by the relative drop in crime rate in the area and the modest attempts by the civilians to provide information to the police through the community policing members so that actions are taken to curb activities that threaten security.

Information sharing between civilians and the police has been a watershed moment for the relative success that community policing has scored so far. Although it has not been easy to extract, community policing members have been working round the clock to obtain this information and channel it to the police. The reason being, the lack of trust that the members of the public have for the police officers, that resulted from betrayal of the former. Even for the community policing members, getting information related to criminal activities and the perpetrators in the neighbourhood, has been a herculean task. It takes a lot of prodding and reassurance of trust before this information is given in confidence. Once this has been done, the community policing members weigh whether they can address the issue at their level or whether they can involve the police to conduct the arrest and process the suspect(s) to the courts of law. In so doing, the community policing members act as a link between the police and the community and their actions are deemed as important in reducing the number of criminal activities in their locality.

The modest achievement that community policing has attained was expressed in the choices made by the respondents when completing the questionnaires; and in the sentiments of those interviewed by the researcher. For instance, the respondents strongly disagreed that the partnership between the police and the community is a big waste of time and that it is not a real police work. Additionally, they strongly disagreed with the thinking that the partnership cannot work and that the police should be left to do their work without public interference. These two, among other statements were indicative of how the public and the police viewed community policing. By the same token, the interviewees also noted that since the community policing programmed was rolled out, incidences of criminal activities have reduced and that the image of the police has been enhanced. Most importantly, the two erstwhile adversaries have started collaborating in a wide range of activities that enhance harmony and bring about security in the neighbourhood.

Partnership building between the Police and the Community

The second objective that revolved around establishing the modalities that build partnership between the police and the community was also addressed by from the data gathered. It emerged that the partnership between the police and the community in Msambweni Sub-County generally adopts three modalities: neighbourhood watch; situational prevention; and citizen mobilization. Neighbourhood watch is where residents of a particular neighbourhood form security watch forums guided by community policing members so that they can easily pinpoint activities that threaten security within the neighbourhood alongside the perpetrators of these activities. Such forums presuppose familiarity among neighbours which is also encouraged not only by the security agencies such as the chiefs and village elders, but also by community policing members. Actually,

most respondents referred to this modality as *nyumba kumi* writ large in the sense that it acts exactly like the famous *nyumba kumi* initiative only that it goes beyond ten households and extend to the entire village or neighbourhood. In this neighbourhood watch, moreover, the community policing members arbitrate in disputes that may metamorphose into a wider security threat; and also offer counseling services and other related support to victims of crime within the neighbourhood.

Situational prevention is also another modality used in building partnership between the police and the community in Msambweni Sub-County. Here, real-time information sharing between the community policing members is done in order to stop security breach before it happens. Usually, this happens due to the collaboration between the community policing members and the general public. It is this close interaction that yields the timely intelligence needed by the police to stop criminal activities before they happen. Another angle of situational prevention as argued by the respondents, was the involvement of the community policing members to address pressing issues of the community, sometime civil issues that can hatch into criminal if not handled in time. The community policing members have been ready and willing to intervene in such cases so that harmony is restored between family members and even among households.

Lastly, civil mobilization was also underscored as one of the ways through which partnership between the police and the community is built. Civil mobilization, according to the respondents, entails holding meeting (*barazas*), usually called by either the local security administrators. In these meetings, civic education is done on the importance of community policing and the role of citizens in this program is elaborated. Citizens are also asked to give feedback regarding the viability of community policing and how it can be improved. Besides, social activities are also organized that bring together the police and civilians in an attempt to thaw the frosty relationship that exists between them. Furthermore, these meetings help to the police to define the problems faced by the community and even suitable solutions sometimes arise out of them. Therefore, these meetings set the stage for engagement between the police and the community.

Challenges hindering partnership between the Police and Community

Community policing in Msambweni Sub-County has been faced by a number of obstacles since its inception. A number of these challenges were mentioned, although some were echoed across the various categories of respondents. One such challenge was the negative attitude that was displayed by the police on the community policing initiative. It emerged that since the police was transformed from a force to a service, some junior officers have never accepted this change, which required them to be humane in dealing with civilians and also involve them in security operations. The negative attitude prevents the affected police officers from freely mingling with civilians and in the process, creating an environment for collaboration. Lack of advanced education was attributed to this attitudinal disposition, since most of these police officers were older and with basic secondary education.

Another challenge that featured prominently was lack of trust towards the police by the general public. When the police were asked about their opinion on the willingness of the general public to volunteer information regarding security breaches in the area, they decried the community's idiosyncratic behaviour of withholding information even when doing so would be beneficial to them. This concern reverberated even among the senior police officers who were interviewed under the SCSIC membership. When the public and the committee members were asked about the genesis of their distrust, they unanimously said it was a result of betrayal that they have experienced once they leak certain sensitive information to the police. The latter blow their cover to the perpetrators who in turn kill them. This reality has made it difficult for them to voluntarily assist the police with the intelligence needed to apprehend perpetrators of security breach in their neighbourhoods.

Finally, the respondent also pointed to the lack of appreciation of the work of community policing members. These people, they said, are working without pay; simply put, they volunteer. When it comes to work that hardly puts food on one's table, other activities can be prioritized over it, and this can have some negative effects on the effectiveness of community policing. Members of this programme, are not even recognized at times by the local political leaders so that their morale can be raised to enable them work hard to provide security in conjunction with the police. Having a reward structure (monetary or non-monetary) can be very helpful in re-energizing the community policing members to continue working in collaboration with both the general public and the police to ensure that security is achieved in the area.

CONCLUSION

This research has painted a clear picture on the level of implementation of community policing programme and the extent to which it is effective. Having exhaustively discussed some of the areas that directly impact on the status of the programme, suffice it to draw some conclusions based on the findings of the three research objectives.

The first conclusion is community policing programme is a worthy initiative that should be sustained. It has been revealed that the programme is effective, albeit in a modest way. Nonetheless, however modest its effect is in the sub-county of Msambweni, it has had some impact on security. While majority of people is still afraid to collaborate with the police, the few who have dared to try have helped in thwarting incidents of crime and other related security breaches that has had an overall impact in the community. Going forward, therefore, the police should do more to win the public by their side so that together they can root out elements in their midst who threaten the stability and security of the community.

Secondly, it can be concluded by the modalities of strengthening the partnership between the police and the community should be amplified. So far, these modalities are making good progress in closing the chasm between the police and the general public. The genius behind community policing programme ensured that having a triadic relationship can be a boon to the success of the programme. Each of the three parties within the complex structure of community policing require

their roles to be explicit so that together they can run the initiative as a system. Since a system operates best with functional subsystems, any modality that enamours these subsystems is welcome. For this reason, the modalities that catalyzes the activities of community policing members, police officers, and the general public; while at the same time galvanizes them to work as a unit is desirable. Neighbourhood watch programmes, situational prevention actions, and citizen mobilization initiatives, are appropriate modalities for strengthening the partnership between the police and the community in Msambweni Sub-County.

Thirdly, on the challenges facing community policing in the sub-county of Msambweni, it can be concluded that these challenges have the potential of collapsing the community policing initiative into oblivion. The backbone of community policing programme being members of this initiative, it is important that their concerns are addressed and that they are somehow facilitated in their work, something which is currently lacking. Since they form an interface between the police and the general public, their absence or even ineffectiveness will definitely affect the negatively, community policing activities. On the same note, the trust which is currently lacking between the community and the police following the betrayal by the latter, is very toxic to the community policing programme. Finding a permanent solution to it, may save the programme from dying out.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the following policies can be debated further by relevant security apparatus in order to enhance community policing effectiveness:

1. Refresher courses to be offered to police officers on the importance of collaborating with civilians to enhance security.
2. The SCSIC to schedule meetings with the community from time to time to build relationships, learn the security problems of the community and encourage homegrown solutions to the same.
3. A reward structure to be developed to not only facilitate the work of community policing members, but also to compensate them for their dedication.
4. Local security agencies to strengthen the *nyumba kumi* initiative in all the neighbourhoods in order to foster greater contact between neighbours for easy extraction of intelligence.
5. Police officers who collude with perpetrators of security breaches to be interdicted and charged in courts of law.

REFERENCES

- Baker, B. (2002). When the Bakassi boys came: Eastern Nigeria confronts vigilantism. *Journal of Contemporary African Studies*, 20(2), 223-244.
- Balloch, S., & Taylor, M. (2001). *Partnership working: policy and practice*. Thousand Oaks, FL: Policy Press.
- Baylis, J., Smith, S. & Owens, P. (2013). *The globalization of world politics: An introduction to international relations*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

- Berg, B.L. (1999). *Policing in Modern Society*. New York, NY: Gulf Professional Publishing.
- Burger, J. (2007). *Strategic perspectives on crime and policing in South Africa*. Thousand Oaks: FL: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Buzan, B. (1991). *People, States and Fear*, (2nd ed). New York, NY: Boulder, Lynne Rienner.
- Collen, L. (2009). *Accountability*. In the SAGE Dictionary of Policing. New York, NY: SAGE Publishers.
- Commission on Human Security (2003). *Human Security Now*. New York, NY: Communications Development Incorporated.
- Cooper, D.R. & Schindler, P.S. (2006). *Business Research Methods*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. New York, NY: Sage Publications.
- Dempsey, J. & Forst, L. (2009). *An Introduction to Policing*. New York, NY: Cengage Learning.
- De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H, Schulze, S. & Patel, L. (2011). The sciences and the profession. In De Vos A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché C.B. & Delpont C.S.L. *Research at the grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions*. 4 th ed. Pretoria: JL Van Schaik Publishers.
- Dewitt, D.B. & Hernandez, C.G. (Eds.). (2003). *Development and Security in Southeast Asia: Globalization* (Vol. 3). New York: Ashgate Publishing, Ltd.
- Diamond, L. (2002). "Winning The New Cold War on Terrorism". *Institute for Global Democracy Policy Paper*.
- Duffield, M. (2007). *Development, security and unending war: governing the world of peoples*. London, ENG: Cengage.
- Eastern, S. (2007). "Eastern Europe Clearinghouse for the Control of Small Arms and Light Weapons. 2006". *Review of Key Literature on Children, Youth and Small Arms*.
- Ellison, K. W. (2004). *Stress and the police officer*. New York, NY: Charles C Thomas Publisher.
- Engels, B. (2010). "Mapping the phenomenon of militias and rebels in Africa". *Militias, Rebels and Islamist*, 69.
- Ewusi, S. K. (2012). *Weaving Peace: Essays on Peace, Governance and Conflict Transformation in the Great Lakes Region of Africa*. London, ENG: Trafford Publishing.
- Gaffigan, S.J. (1994). "Understanding Community Policing: A Framework For Action" [Monograph]. Bureau of Justice Assistance, Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice, Washington, DC, USA.
- Government of Kenya (2003). *The Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation 2003–2007*, Government Printers, Nairobi
- Hasisi, B. (2008). "Police, politics, and culture in a deeply divided society". *The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, 1119-1145.
- Haynes, J. (2008). *Development Studies*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge Polity Press.

- Hilz, W. & Hans J. Morgenthau, (2007). "Politics Among Nations: The Struggle for Power and Peace, New York 1948". In *Schlüsselwerke der Politikwissenschaft* (pp. 310-314). VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.
- Ikelegbe, A. (2005). "Militias, Rebels and Islamist Militants: Human Security and State Crises in Africa". *Pretoria: Institute of Security Studies*.
- Kelling, G. & Coles, C. (1996) *Fixing Broken Windows: Restoring Order and Reducing Crime in Our Communities*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Klockars, C.B. (2005), *The Rhetoric of Community Policing*. In *Policing: Key Readings*. Tim Newburn, Ed. Devon: Willan Publishing.
- Kothari, C.R. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. New Delhi, India: New Age International.
- Kubai, A. (2010). Historical and cultural dimensions of militia and rebel groups in Africa. Nairobi, KE: Longhorn Publishers
- Lombardo, M. R. & Lough, T. (2007). "Community Policing: Broken Windows, Community Building, and Satisfaction with the Police", *Police Journal*, 80(2), 117 - 140.
- Mastrofski, S., Worden, S. & Snipes, J. (1995). "Law Enforcement in a Time of Community Policing", *Criminology*, 33, 539 - 63.
- Mawby, R. I. (2008). Models of policing. *Handbook of policing*, 2, 17-46.
- McNeish, J. A., & Lie, J. H. S. (Eds.). (2010). *Security and development* (Vol. 11), New York, NY: Berghahn Books.
- Miller, L., Hess, K., & Orthmann, C. (2013). *Community policing: Partnerships for problem solving*. New York, NY: Nelson Education.
- Minnaar, A. (2001). The new vigilantism in post-April 1994 South Africa: crime prevention or an expression of lawlessness. *Institute for Human Rights and Criminal Justice Studies*.
- Mugenda, O. M., & Mugenda, A. G. (2003). *Research methods: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Nariobi, Kenya: African Centre for Technology Studies.
- Munneke, J. (2011). *The Eyes and Ears of the Police? Questioning the Role of Community Policing in Durban, South Africa*. Unpublished Bachelor Thesis Cultural Anthropology and Development Sociology.
- Newburn, T. (2003). Policing since 1945. *Handbook of Policing*, 2, 90-111.
- Newburn, T. (Ed.). (2005). *Policing: Key Readings*. Cullompton, Devon: Willan.
- Nuechterlein, D. E. (1976). "National interests and foreign policy: A conceptual framework for analysis and decision-making". *British Journal of International Studies*, 2(03), 246-266.
- Oloo, A., Wafula, O., & Ikelegbe, A. (2010). *Marginalization and the rise of Militia Groups in Kenya: The Mungiki and the Sabaot Land Defence Force*.
- Omeje, K., & Githigaro, J. M. (2010). "The Challenges of State Policing in Kenya". *Peace and Conflict Review*.
- Palmiotto, M. (2000). *Community Policing: A Policing Strategy for the 21st Century*. Chicago, IL: Jones & Bartlett Learning.

- Purpura, P. P. (2011). *Security: An Introduction*. New York, NY: CRC Press.
- Putman, R. (1994). *Making Democracy Work*, New York, NY: Princeton University Press.
- Rosenbaum, D. (1987). 'The Theory and Research behind Neighborhood Watch: Is it a Sound Fear and Crime Reduction Strategy?' *Crime and Delinquency* 33: 103 - 34.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2003) *Research method for business students*.(7th Ed). New York: Pearson Education.
- Schnabel, A., & Farr, V. (2011). *Back to the Roots: Security Sector Reform and Development*. New York, NY: Verlag Münster.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research methods for business* 4th Ed. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Silverman, E. (1999). *NYPD Battles Crime: Innovative Strategies in Policing*. Boston, MA: Northeastern University Press.
- Silverman, J. (2008). *Community Policing: Partnerships for Problem Solving*. Boston, MA: Northeastern University Press
- Skogan, W. (1990). *Disorder and Decline: Crime and the Spiral of Decay in American Cities*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Skogan, W. (2006). 'The Promise of Community Policing'. In D. Weisburd and A. Braga (eds), *Police Innovation*. Cambridge, NY: Cambridge University Press, 27- 44.
- Smootha, S., & Hanf, T. (1992). "The diverse modes of conflict-regulation in deeply divided societies", *International Journal of Comparative Sociology*, 33(1), 26-47.
- Tilley, N. J. (2003). Community policing, problem-oriented policing and intelligence-led policing.
- Tronjanowicz, R., Kappeler, V., Gaines, L. & Bucqueroux, B. (1998). *Community Policing: A Contemporary Perspective*. Cincinnati, Ohio: Anderson Publishing.
- Van der Spuy, E., & Röntsch, R. (2008). "Police and crime prevention in Africa: a brief appraisal of structures, policies and practices". *Cape Town, South Africa: International Centre for the Prevention of Crime*.
- Vladislav (2004), *Terror and governance, Anti-Americanism Working Papers*. Budapest: Centre for Policy Studies.
- Wakefield, A., & Fleming, J. (Eds.). (2008). *The Sage dictionary of policing*. New York, NY: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Wilson, J. & Kelling, G. (1982). "Broken Windows: Police and Neighbourhood Safety", *Atlantic Monthly*, 249: 29 - 38.
- Wisler, D., & Onwudiwe, I. D. (2008). "Community policing in comparison". *Police Quarterly*, 11(4), 427-446.
- Worrall, J.L. & Marenin, O. (1998). "Emerging liability issues in the implementation and adoption of community oriented policing". *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 21(1), 121-136.
- Zedner, L. (2009). *Security: Key Ideas in Criminology*. New York, NY: Routledge.