

COMMUNITY POLICING AND SECURITY STATUS OF PEOPLE IN URBAN AREAS.

A CASE STUDY OF MUYENGA PARISH MAKINDYE DIVISION.

BY KAKURU FRED

BSW/38466/123/DU

A RESEARCH DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE

OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL

FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE

AWARD OF A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN SOCIAL

WORK AND SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION OF

KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL

UNIVERSITY

SEPTEMBER, 2015

DECLARATION

I **KAKURU FRED** declare that this is my original work and to the best of my knowledge, has never been presented to any institution for any academic award.

Signed  Date 18/07/2015

KAKURU FRED

APPROVAL

This research dissertation entitled “community policing and security status of people in urban areas of Makindye division” was submitted to the college of humanities and social sciences with my approval as a university supervisor.

Signed

Date 18/09/15

MR. OKELLO CEASER

Supervisor

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I acknowledge that my success is due to the Almighty God who has enabled me to produce this work and the entire course at large. Since dissertation writing, data collection, presentation and analysis is a tiresome exercise, I had to get into contact with well informed elites for guidance and also published literature by several authors, thus I send appreciation to them.

Special appreciation goes to several authors for publishing and availing their materials and literatures at research centers where I had access to them.

In a special way I wish to thank my friends Kereere Lauben, Namanya Jessica, for the great love they extended on to me during the three years course in social work and social administration of Kampala International University.

Sincere thanks go to my supervisor Mr. Okello Ceaser who accepted to take the task of supervising this book.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CIACriminal Investment Authority

CLOs.....Community Liaison Officers

FGDs.....Focus Group Discussions

LC.....Local council

NRM.....National Resistance Movement

U.S.....United States

VIP.....Volunteers in police service

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	i
APPROVAL	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	v
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Background to the study	3
1.2 Statement of the problem.....	7
1.3 Objectives of the study	8
1.4 Research Questions.....	8
1.5 Scope of the study.....	9
1.6 Justification of the research	10
1.7 Significance of the study	10
1.9 Conceptual framework	13
CHAPTER TWO.....	14
LITERATURE REVIEW	14
2.0 Introduction	14

2.1 The concept of community policing	14
2.2 Theories of Community Policing	15
2.3 Reasons for Implementing Community Policing	17
2.4 Challenges of community policing.....	22
2.5 Solutions to the challenges of community policing for improvement of security.....	25
CHAPTER THREE.....	31
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	31
3.0 Introduction	31
3.1 Research design	31
3.2Area of study	31
3.3 Population of the study.....	31
3.4 Sample size and selection procedure	31
3.5Sources of data.....	32
3.6 Instruments for data collection	33
3.7 Data processing and analysis.....	34
3.8 Validity of instruments.....	34
3.9 Data quality control	34
3.10 Data processing.....	34
3.11 Data analysis.....	34
3.12 Expected limitations of the study	35

3.13 Ethical considerations.....	35
CHAPTER FOUR	36
PRESENTATION, DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS.....	36
4.0 Introduction	36
4.1 background information of respondents	36
4.2.2 Challenges of implementing community policing in Makindye division	42
4.2.3 Solutions to the challenges faced in implementation of community policing.....	44
CHAPTER FIVE	46
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	46
5.0 Introduction	46
5.1 Summary.....	46
5.2 Recommendations	47
5.3 Conclusions	48
5.4 Areas for future researchers.....	49
REFERENCES	50
LIST OF APPENDICES	52
APPENDIX I	52
QUESTIONNAIRE	52

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter included the introduction, background to the study, problem statement, objectives of the study, research questions, scope of the study, significance and the conceptual framework to show the dependent and independent variables.

The concept of community policing has been defined by many scholars and practitioners in various ways. Among these conceptual definitions are the institutional. According to the Uganda Police Annual Crime Report (2012), crime and social disorder is the focus of community policing. This is achieved through service delivery which includes aspects of regular law enforcement, prevention, problem solving, as well as community engagement and partnership. Community policing model try to strike a balance between reactive responses with proactive problem solving specifically on the causes of crime and disorder, community policing is essentially about partnership between the police and the citizens. Partnership in this case would mean each party having an agreed stake in the affairs of community policing, but is this the case, the amount of intervention of both the police and community in policing is not known, what is practiced in many Ugandan areas is sensitization programmes as little more than community policing quackery, consisting of pre-crime interventions that are based on neither existing knowledge of the causes of crime or existing knowledge of what programmes are known to change offender behavior.

Security can be defined as the state of being in which individuals or groups may pursue their ends without disruption or harm and without fear of loss or injury. Further, to the organisation it implies being able to continue in business activities without disruption from either criminal threats or natural catastrophe. From this, it should be recognized that security has two bases: that of the individual or group and as it applies to or concerns an organisation. Maintenance of security and good order in the community is now being undertaken by organizations traditionally known as 'police', although we are witnessing an increasing trend towards the use of privately funded bodies, commonly referred to as 'private security'. Whilst this development is concerning

for some, the commission of privately resourced organizations to provide protection is nothing new in fact this method predates the establishment of community-funded, government administered police services (Nalla, 2010).

In the last 3 decades community policing (CP) has attracted increasing attention as a strategy to improve public security and safety. It seeks to transform the policing organizations from reliance on criminal law and procedures to adopt consensual extra-legal strategies in problem solving (Brogden 2002) and emphasizes participation and partnership with the communities in order to address security and other social order problems. This co-production of social order is a key defining characteristic of CP and is founded on two basic assumptions; one, that positive day-to-day encounters with the police are an important avenue through which the public image of the police can be enhanced and bring changes in the public reservations regarding police trustworthiness (Goldsmith 2005); secondly, that improvement in the citizen perceptions of police trustworthiness and legitimacy will increase the willingness of residents to cooperate with police and comply with the law (Hawdon 2008).

As an alternative policing strategy, it has been in existence for about three decades and has been widely practiced in North America and Europe (Brogden 2004). Given the adversarial characteristics of the relationship between the police and the public in most developing countries, CP has been presented as viable strategy to re-build trust between the police and the public and to improve security (Goldsmith 2005). It has been adopted in many of the developing countries emerging from different kinds of conflicts or making a transition from years of authoritarian rule characterized by politicisation of policing institutions, gross abuse of human rights by the police and lack of accountability (Goldsmith 2005) which created a poor relationship between the police and the public (Goldsmith 2005). Advocates of CP regard it as a viable alternative to address the problems of trust and lack of accountability in the police.

1.1 Background to the study

The political era of community policing dates from the introduction of municipal police forces in the 1840s and continued until the early 1900s. Prior to this, many colonial cities had a night watch system, an outgrowth of the English pledge system. The political era was characterized by close ties between police and politics. Local police commanders had frequent contact and communication with political leaders and ward bosses. Police priorities were set in conjunction with these political figures. While it has been argued that the close relationship between police and local politicians increased police legitimacy and responsiveness to the community, it has also been argued that local politicians and ward bosses often acted in their own interest rather than the public interest and that this era of policing was characterized by corruption and discrimination against minorities.

The reform era took hold in the 1930s, reached its peak in the 1950s and 1960s and began its decline in the 1970s. August Vollmer, a former police chief and first professor of police administration, was one of the first advocates of the reform era in the early 1900s. The reform era was characterized by a professional crime fighting approach, reliance upon routine patrol, quick response to calls for service and criminal investigations. The reform era is said to be both a reaction to the corruption of the political era and in keeping with the growing trend toward scientific management. The era of community policing began in the late 1970s, following the civil unrest of the 1960s and the Kansas City preventive patrol experiment and team policing projects of the 1970s. Willard Oliver categorizes the era of community policing as falling within three generations: innovation, 1979–1986; diffusion, 1987–1994 and institutionalization, 1995–present.

Policing is generally viewed as having become far more professional and police organizations far more sophisticated during this era. The community policing/problem-solving era, which began in the late 1970s, developed over the past three decades and continues into the 21st century, albeit in a very different form from its origins. The community policing era is characterized by close working relationships between the police and the community, attention to quality of life and problem solving. Policing is generally viewed to have become far more attentive to community concerns during this period and police organizations became more decentralized.

This formula for order is known as 'the social contract' but the idea of a formal body known as 'police' to enforce it did not come into existence for another century. Until then the military performed the functions of disciplining the community, which largely took the form of tax collection. It is widely accepted that the forerunners of today's public police were the 'Bow Street Runners'. However, whilst they were formed and operated by a magistrate, Henry Fielding, they were funded by the wealthy and businesses. In that sense they were also 'private security' conducting residential patrols (Newman, 1990). Following Fielding's initiative, many competing organisations were created, with wealthy merchants hiring armed men to use on patrols. As South observed (Nalla, 1990) property was seen as being 'private' and not requiring the state to protect it and naturally, the obligation and responsibility of the owner to provide appropriate protection.

Across the Atlantic Ocean in the United States, 'private policing' agencies resulted from the perception that the public law enforcement bodies were politically compromised, corrupt or inadequate to protect the interests of the powerful industrialists. In 1855, Allan Pinkerton, a former Secret Service Agent, who claimed to have established the United States Secret Service, began the North West Police Agency in Chicago which was enlisted by President Lincoln to conduct intelligence activities during the Civil War. By 1892 the number of private policing agencies had increased to 15 in Chicago and 20 in New York. This was happening at the time public agencies were also being established and they developed in parallel (Newman, 1990, 19). In 1909, another former Secret Service Agent, William J. Burns established the William J. Burns Detective Agency that became the sole investigating agency for the American Bankers' Association and it has grown to employ more than 30,000 personnel today.

South (1988) discussed the definition of private security and he prefers not to use the words 'private police' to describe people who work in that industry. He acknowledges that 'private security is a very broad enterprise' (South, 1983) and the concept of 'security' is complex. (Spitzer, 1987). Whilst, Shearing et al. (1980) work towards a definition of security that revolves around the protection of information, persons and property and emphasizes that there is a difference between police and private security with respect to legal status, control and accountability (authors' emphasis). Generally, it is accepted that the word 'police' relates to the

constabulary of government and 'private security is a broader enterprise than public policing, with a wider range of functions' (South, 1983). Policing carries 'connotations of government control and governmental authority' (Shearing, 2010), although it is used by government agencies other than those who provide a 'community policing' service.

Each era of policing is characterized by differences in public perception of the primary sources of police legitimacy and authority, view of the police function, organizational design, external relationships between the police and the community, demand management (how police are summoned and the police resources allocated), principal programs and technologies, and measures of success. The concept of community policing in the Uganda police force is advently becoming popular in practice; globally the concept is slowly but gradually assuming a multidimensional as well as a multifaceted idea. Yet, the philosophy remains singular all through from the mid 70's when the drive began to trickle down (Aliyuyero, 2012). Ever since, multitudes of literature have piled up all in an attempt to define, explain and theorize community policing. However, one challenge facing community policing today is that of conceptualization.

In some instances the two concepts seem to be used interchangeably having the same characteristics. Some scholars seem to take the two concepts meaning different things. On one hand community policing mean a police oriented affair having to deal with how officers will adopt new strategies by collaborating with the community in preventing crime and promoting the sense of security, while community oriented policing mean a community based approach and initiative by the people towards crime control and prevention in an attempt to compliment the effort of the police as well as work in partnership for the betterment of the community. This has affected implementation as a result of consensus and conflict interest which has reduced its acceptance, lack of specific indicators which would have made the impact measureable, lack of an overall strategy within the institutional framework, lack of community consultation and participation in decision making as to the nature, contents and most acceptable and appropriate form of community policing which would promote the partnership being sought.

Policing has always been a challenge in developing countries since limited state resources constrain the size and distribution of state police. Inevitably much of the countryside is left to

customary justice processes of variable integrity or to private arrangements of summary justice. Such problems are only exacerbated by the upheaval of conflict. In its aftermath the state police are integral to strengthening a legal framework of citizen rights, yet the return to civilian policing is rarely straightforward. Since it was often human rights abuses by the security forces that constituted one of the causes of armed conflict, capacity-building programmes for them raise the fear of strengthening their repressive capabilities. If there has been a history of serious abuses of human rights and civil liberties by the police then governance programmes need to recruit new personnel from both sides of the conflict. The challenge is to ensure that a post-conflict state police force is accountable through the oversight of the courts, performance monitoring by the internal affairs ministries, and critical appraisal by civil rights organizations and the press. Unless the new police force is fair, accessible, efficient and incorruptible, there is little hope that citizens will have confidence in it or in the new regime that authorizes it.

The signing of a peace agreement is done in faith that security structures to build peace and to restore order will be forthcoming. For most peacekeeping operations initiated in the last 15 years, the reconstruction of security and order has focused on reforming and rebuilding the institution of the state police. The agenda for change in the police has invariably been extensive. It has included the integration of former fighters; the removal of past human rights abusers; the ending of illegal detention and torture; the transition from being agents of the regime to agents of the people; the eradication of the culture of immunity for the powerful; monitoring and disciplinary procedures; the adoption of non-partisanship; training programmes; the ‘professionalization’ of the force (primarily equipment updating); and demilitarization. Yet even assuming that as a result of new training programmes and management systems these matters are addressed, the size of state police forces vis a vis the area to police, makes their potential to secure peace, security and order very limited. The unsolved question has always been how to find and finance enough qualified state police officers to offer nation-wide coverage.

It is now 29 years since the National Resistance Army seized power and brought the war to an end long enough to review the effectiveness of the regime’s experiments with policing. On the one hand it offers examples of what can be positively achieved and sustained in the local community in a post-conflict situation. On the other there are negative lessons to learn from how

it has responded to anxieties about regional security and organized crime. Below I draw out some of these lessons for post-conflict policing, following field research in Uganda February to April 2004. Interestingly, there is a consensus among the academia, Uganda police force and government as to the viability of moving towards a community oriented policing in an attempt to reduce citizen fear and overall attainment of the quality of life, or safe city in other instances. It is the intention of this paper to revisit some of the efforts towards conceptualization and theorization of community policing so that practice is aligned towards the core functions of community policing.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The participatory turn in public security and safety is a fairly recent phenomenon. It has been attributed to the dominance of the neo-liberal approaches to governance (Muller 2010) and the emergence and prominence of participatory democracy that has created room for consideration of alternative forms of service delivery thus challenging the state-centric model that has been dominant for much of the 19th century. As a result, the monopoly of the state as a provider of public services has been changing with entrance of non-state actors laying a claim to what was normally the preserve of the state. While other public sectors such as health, education and agriculture have for long embraced non-state actors in their model of service delivery, the security sector has not until rather recently began to undergo such changes by accommodating, although reluctantly, other actors partnerships in service delivery (Marks, 2009). These partnerships include private security firms and the community. However, despite many countries in the developing world adapting and implementing CP in the last 2 decades, literature suggests that there is still significant divide between the official intentions and the practical realities (Brogden 2004). Nevertheless this has not damped the enthusiasm for CP as countries like Uganda are considering adapting it or expanding its reach as it is perceived as an important element in the reforms of their policing organizations.

Policing has always been a challenge in developing countries like Uganda since limited state resources constrain the size and distribution of state police. Inevitably much of the countryside is left to customary justice processes of variable integrity or to private arrangements of summary justice. Such problems are only exacerbated by the upheaval of conflict. In its aftermath the state

police are integral to strengthening a legal framework of citizen rights, yet the return to civilian policing is rarely straightforward. Since it was often human rights abuses by the security forces that constituted one of the causes of armed conflict in northern Uganda, capacity-building programmes for them raise the fear of strengthening their repressive capabilities. Worse still most local law enforcement officers have never been in the intelligence business and therefore may not know precisely what information they should look at as indicative of terrorist activity or that may have value within a larger intelligence context. Thus because of the above motioned issues the researcher carried out research on the relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas

1.3 Objectives of the study

1.3.1 General objective of the study

The general objective of this study was to examine community policing and security status of people in Muyenga parish Makindye division Kampala district.

1.3.2 Specific objectives of the study

This study was specifically designed to:

- i) Analyze the reasons for implementing community policing for security purposes in Makindye division.
- ii) Identify challenges of implementing community policing in Makindye division.
- iii) Find solutions to the challenges faced in implementation of community policing.

1.4 Research Questions

- i) What are the reasons for implementing community policing for security purposes in Makindye division?
- ii) What are the challenges of implementing community policing in Makindye division?
- iii) What are solutions to the challenges faced in implementation of community policing?

1.5 Scope of the study

1.5.1 Geographical scope

The study was conducted in Kampala district with a case study of Makindye division. The study was carried out from Makindye division in Kampala district. Kampala is the capital city of the Republic of Uganda. Its history can be traced back to the 1600s when it was established as the capital of Buganda Kingdom. It served as a political and administrative capital until 1893 when the British declared Uganda a protectorate and transferred the capital to Entebbe. It returned as capital city in 1962 at Uganda's independence. Kampala means a “hill of Impalas” derived from the Luganda word (Mpala), a type of antelope. These animals were common in Old Kampala (Ellwood; 2006).

Makindye is bordered by Nsambya to the north, Kibuye to the northwest, Najjanankumbi to the west, Lubowa in Kampala District to the south, Luwafu to the southeast and Lukuli to the east. Kansanga and Kabalagala lie to Makindye's northeast. The coordinates of Makindye are: 00 16 45N, 32 11E (Latitude: 0.2791; Longitude: 32.5862). The road distance between Makindye and the central business district of Kampala is about 7 kilometres which is 4.3 miles.

Makindye at its peak stands 1,230 meters (4,040 ft) above sea level. It affords a commanding view of the surrounding areas of the city and of neighboring parts of Kampala District. It also affords a view of Murchison Bay, a part of Lake Victoria to the east and southeast of Makindye. The residential areas on Makindye hill are of middle class proportions. Many of the homes have adjacent plots of land which are often used to grow vegetables (Kullenberg; 2008).

1.5.2 Content scope

The study was carried out to assess the relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas of Uganda, however emphasis was put on Muyenga Parish Makindye division in Kampala district.

1.5.3 Time scope

The study was carried out for a period of four months that is from May 2015 to September 2015.

1.6 Justification of the research

Police in Uganda has been characterized as corrupt, inefficient, brutal and, at time, criminal. As a result, the trust and legitimacy in the public has been very low. At the same time, public security and safety has increasingly become a major concern for many Ugandans. Not a day passes without disturbing cases of crime and threat to security being reported in the media. While the threat is not limited to any social class the poor remain more vulnerable due to limited opportunities to protect themselves from insecurity.

Recently, the partnership between the community and the police under the CP policy has been hailed as viable strategy to address safety and security issues. While Uganda seeks to build its CP program, it is suggested that an exploration and understanding of similar efforts in similar contexts would provide important lessons for the formulation and implementation of CP policy in Uganda. As Muller observes within the context of Mexico and Latin America, but also much relevant to Uganda, ‘the consensus on the usefulness of community policing among politicians, civil society and the public to improve security and the relationship between the public and the police may benefit from a reflection on the analysis and critical evaluations regarding the implementation of community policing programs in other developing countries’ (Muller, 2010:22). This study hopes to contribute to this reflection.

1.7 Significance of the study

- i. The findings of this study will be used to demonstrate the importance of community policing and security status of people in Kampala district.
- ii. It will also be important in encouraging people work hand in hand with the police forces to maintain security in their areas.
- iii. It will also provide an understanding of the challenges faced by the Uganda police force in extending their services to local people.
- iv. Through the findings of the study, the government of Uganda will be in position to meet the needs of the police force together with different communities in urban areas.
- v. Lastly security forces in Uganda will be in position to find ways of connecting to local people as well overcoming would be challenges form community policing.

1.8 Theoretical and Conceptual Framework:

Some research findings suggest that crime results from weak informal social controls and low capacity to mobilize such formal external resources as law enforcement agencies (Field 2003:60). In attempting to explain why some places have weak informal social controls, and therefore prone to crime than others, researchers have applied the theory of social capital (Field 2003, Howdon 2008). In addition, social capital has also been applied to investigate and explain why collective action is more successful in some places than others.

Social capital has been defined as consisting “features of social organization, such as networks, norms, and trust that facilitates action and cooperation for mutual benefit and results in high levels of interpersonal trust and interaction, and norms of aid and reciprocity, and high rates of civic participation” (Putnam, 2009). Two forms of social capital are distinguished: bridging and bonding capital bridging capital accounts for civic interaction and engagement; whereas bonding form of capital explains relationship between those we have shared experiences and expectations with a component of hope for future interactions such as family members and relatives(Ibid).

Based on the findings that communities that depict greater cohesion and shared expectations also tend to have lower rates of crime and disorder, it is claimed that such strong networks of communities do have the potential for deterring crime (Field: 2003). This is attributed to the fact that where such cohesion exists members of such communities share a responsibility to intervene before behavior gets out of hand but also because such environments provide its young members ‘with a sense of status and self-esteem, which supports their integration in the society’ (ibid:61). Thus communities that have strong social controls are thought to have lower levels of crime and conversely, weak social capital is associated with high levels of social disorder. It is suggested that public institutions such as the police will encounter more support in places where social capital is high, which provides rationale for policy support for programs that increase levels of bridging capital.

Criticism of social capital holds that it fails to engage with issues of power relations (Fine 2010) while also ‘attempting to rework the (problematic) concept of community’ (Adkins, 2005). Further social capital theorists are criticized for holding on to idealized notions of social capital

that are primarily focused on social benefits. It is argued that ‘social capital may not necessarily be an unproblematic social ‘good’ as it can also be a social ‘bad’ (ibid:7). Furthermore, it is noted that networks are not just benign constructions as they do marginalize those not belonging to particular networks. From a feminist as well as from sociological point of view, critiques have argued that the networks of men and women are not equally privileged as those of women tend to belong to networks that command fewer economic resources (ibid)

Relevant concepts in the analysis of Community-Police partnership are discussed below:

1.8.1 Community policing:

Despite the relative popularity of this concept, there is no shared definition in the academic literature or in the field of practice. CP takes many forms according to a typology proposed by Wisler and Onwudiwe (2008) who distinguish between ‘top-down’ stated led and controlled initiatives from other initiatives ‘that originate and are controlled by civil society’ (429-430). Their typology proposes to analytically distinguish between four forms of CP as ‘vigilantism (associated with use of violence)’ ‘gated communities (creating safe private zones through physical inaccessibility)’ ‘china CP’ styles- emphasize policing through the inculcation of social norms by clans, families and other groups, while top-down CP initiatives are defined as being initiated and controlled by the state (ibid:431).

1.8.2 Community

It is generally agreed that the meaning of the concept of community is contested (Greer 2009), evoking ‘different meanings in different contexts and to different people’. This implies that there are different perspectives in defining the concept of community. There are perspectives that use community to refer to a physical concentration of individuals in one locality, and/or social organization among a concentration of individuals that possess a particular quality of relationships (Greener, 2009).

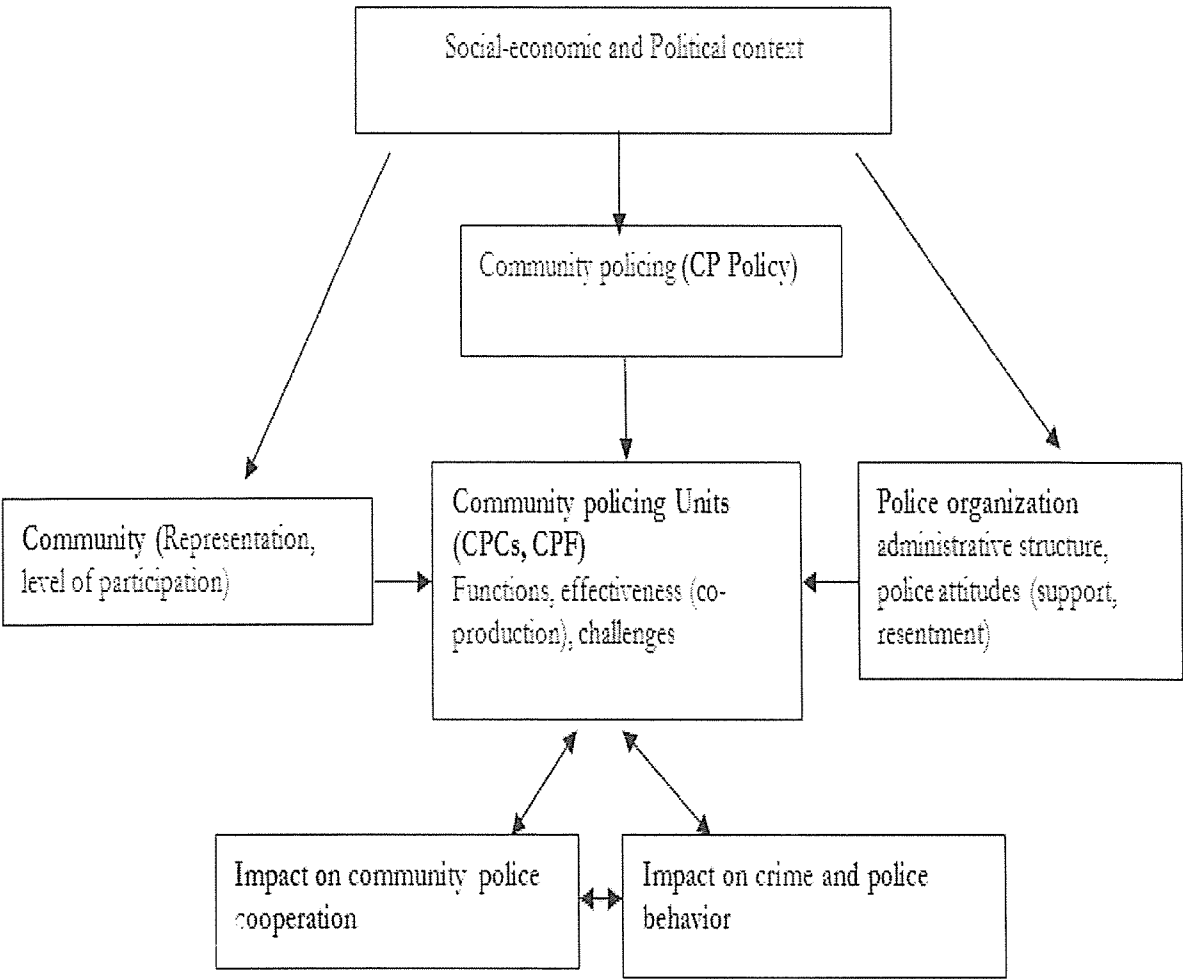
Other perspectives perceive the community not just as empirically descriptive of a social structure but also as normatively prescriptive concept; that refers not just to the unit of a society

as it is, but also to the aspects of the unit that are valued if they exist or desired in their absence (Minar, *ibid*).

Concluding remarks on theory and concepts:

Community Police partnership is built upon notions of social relations and their contribution to maintenance of social order. However, a balanced analysis of the partnership requires also engaging with the issue of power relations, specifically political and information power considering the historical role of the police especially in developing countries, but also the reality of community interactions. This understanding informs the analysis in this study.

1.9 Conceptual framework indicating the relationship between community policing and security status



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presented a review of literature relating to the variables under investigation; it presented the literature review in accordance to the specific objectives of the study. The related literature was presented with the objectives of the study and cited to suit the relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas.

2.1 The concept of community policing

Philosophically, community policing represents a drive which aspires to establish partnership between the people and the police in addressing contemporary challenges to security such as social and physical disorder, crime and fear towards achieving overall quality of life (Bucqueroux, 1998). In application however, visibility and acting become the operational role of the police officer who tries to ensure that disorder and crime are managed properly. On the part of the community information, support and feedback are required and police should respond to all concerns (Manning, 2003). At every attempt to define community policing therefore one will be inclined to know from which angle the concept is being approached, this can offer a credible insight as to what actually represents the view point of the author.

Nevertheless, having a single definition of community policing remains a fleeting illusion because community policing can also be looked from the perspective of the community policing the police in committing crimes, for instance, many drivers on Ugandan roads have signs that alert fellow drivers of the presence of the traffic police ahead, this is a value most taxi drivers have embraced without regret. Tilley (2008) in his contribution to community policing observed that the importance of policing has to do with the people and for the community rather than policing of the community, it aspires to improve the quality of life, aiming to solve community problems alongside the community and by the community. Beyond this, it has proven difficult to pin down what specifically is involved in implementing community policing. On this point, there exist broad agreement among scholars and many police officers (Tilley, 2008). Stipak (1994) in his contribution also defined community policing as a management strategy which aims to

the joint responsibility of community members and police for the purpose of safety. In other words, community policing is about police-citizen partnership.

Finally, the bureau of justice assistance, U.S. Department of Justice (1994) observed that community policing embodies two major components which include community partnership and problem solving. Problem solving in this context involves diagnosing effective and applicable solutions to glaring community ills. The involvement of stakeholders like the local authorities, schools, churches/mosques, social agencies and business groups in crime prevention partnerships with the police becomes necessary for the success of community policing. However, bringing on a unison a fragmentation of such society is not easy due to the fact that society will have intra and inter conflict relationships. Therefore, community partnership in essence begins with proper communication which facilitates the building of trust between the people and the police, making the use of force unnecessary and useless. In the final analysis on the concept of community policing, Allendar (2004) states that community policing represents a philosophy of full time service, personalized policing in which a particular police officer patrols a particular area in an area on a permanent basis from a decentralized place, working in a proactive partnership with citizens to identify and solve problems.

Theories of Community Policing

A number of theories have been advanced by scholars in an attempt to offer explanation in the field, and pave the way for a point of reference in academic discussion as well as a point of reference towards implementation initiatives of community policing. One theory used to explain the philosophical bases of community policing is the Normative Sponsorship Theory by Tiedke (1975). The theory posits that a significant number of people have goodwill and that goodwill becomes a necessary factor towards building a harmonious community. It postulates that a community programme will be supported only if it is “within the limit of established norms” to all people (Trojanowicz, 2014). Simply put, the police cannot achieve any positive socialization without the support of the public. It’s important to note here that society is divided into strata and classes, with common interests in some areas and conflicting interests in fundamental areas. As a result of the inequality in access to societal resources, those who

have access to resources will want a change in the structure and this is a basis of conflict in society and thus the death of goodwill. Conflict perspective therefore argued, that the police were not created to 'serve society' or 'people' but to serve some parts of society and some people at the expense of others (Alemika, 2010).

Another theory advanced specifically to explain community policing is by Wilson and Kellings; Broken Windows theory, based on this theory social psychologist and police officers tend to agree that if a window in a building is broken and is left unrepaired; all the rest of the windows will soon be broken, the sign of one broken and unrepaired window send an indication that nobody cares so another window can also be broken and nothing will happen (Oliver, 2000)

According to Pollard in Bratton *et al* (1998), Kellings and Wilson's preposition is that the moment deliberate discourtesy such as drunkenness, begging, vandalism, disorderly behavior, graffiti, litter are not controlled, an atmosphere is created in which more serious crimes will be committed. Till today, any discussion on community policing always go hand in hand with the broken windows theory (Allender, 2004).

However, this theory under scores on the argument that there's order inherent in society and that this order is consolidated by the fact that different structures in society work together harmoniously for the sustenance of society. The police are necessary to ensure that public peace is guaranteed through the maintenance of law and order, therefore the police are friends of the public since they exist for the good of the people. The social resource theory re-conceived the idea of crime and policing from the angle of the people and not that of the state. From the people's viewpoint, crime is a personal problem resulting from people's unmet expectation, scarcity of resources and police inefficiency. The police in effect are social resources which are supposed to solve the problems of the people. The ultimate purpose of community policing is to ensure better, responsive and responsible efficient and effective police service. The theory is of the people, for the people and by the people, a theory of democratic governance, empowerment, and a theory of self-help (Wong, 2008). The social resource theory begins from observing that crime represents illegality but only from the state point of view. However, for the people crime represents one of the experiences of life, the theory represents a radical shift in theorizing

community policing because it completely gave people the power in effect and made the police influence a social resource, made visible by the state by choosing within the citizens to address societal ills (Wong 2008). This theory overlooks the issue of partnership, in partnership it's a win win situation, if then community policing is advocating for partnership, then the issue of social resource by the police doesn't arise.

2.3 Reasons for Implementing Community Policing

Community policing was implemented to prevent and reduce crime and improve relationships between police and citizens. Crime rose steadily from the early 1960s through the early 1980s. The mid-1980s brought further increases in crime, particularly violent crime, often linked to drug-related criminal activity. Inner-city violence, particularly homicides involving young African American men, captured headlines across the urban United States. Quality of life in communities deteriorated as a result of rising crime, violence and poverty. The early community policing literature argued that community policing had the potential to prevent and reduce crime and disorder, curb growing violence and alleviate fear of crime and disorder.

In addition to rising crime, the growing isolation of the police from the community and complaints of police brutality and indifference especially in minority communities, substantially contributed to the development of community policing. Among the primary reasons for the growing isolation of the police from the public were the emphasis on police as crime control professionals and the reliance on routine automotive patrol.

As a result of the growing focus on enforcement and reliance upon automotive patrol, informal contacts between police and citizens were reduced and the bond between police and citizens weakened. At the same time, aggressive patrol tactics adopted in response to rising crime and civil disobedience increased the likelihood of hostile confrontations between police and citizens and contributed to increasing complaints against the police.

Community policing encourages the use of non-law enforcement resources within a law enforcement agency such as volunteerism, which involves active citizen participation with their

law enforcement agency. Volunteer efforts can help free up officer time, and provide an effective channel for citizen input. It has long been recognized that many of the basic functions within a law enforcement agency can be accomplished by other than sworn deputies or civilian employees. Volunteer efforts can help free up officer time, and allow sworn personnel to be more proactive and prevention-oriented. In many jurisdictions around the country, citizens who have the time to volunteer in the community have offered their services to law enforcement agencies, freeing up law enforcement personnel to spend more time in a crime reduction role.

In Uganda, the Uganda Police introduced community policing three years after the end of the civil war, although only now is it beginning to take root. The main emphasis has been on education in the law and on crime prevention through regular spots on 40 radio FM stations, in newspapers and through workshops in schools. 200 Community Liaison Officers (CLOs) also exist, one located at every police station. They have been instrumental in initiating, Police Dialogues with the community over security issues, Neighborhood Watch schemes for 70 urban and rural communities and Crime Prevention Panels.

The Uganda Police are to be commended that they have encouraged non-state policing groups who work within the law, through offering training and co-operation. It would have been easy to have resisted allowing civilians to meddle in 'their' domain. There are many different ways that the partnership can be furthered. For instance, if a community policing organisation comes to a decision that requires a responder to pay back money to the complainant, the state's enforcement machinery could be summoned to enforce the 'judgment'. Instead of a policy of partnership, some countries have followed a path of co-optation, as regards 'state approved' private initiatives (e.g. Tanzania with the sungusungu anti-rustling groups). This has the advantage of bringing them operationally under the umbrella of the state Police so that excesses can be more readily controlled and the activities can receive central or local government funding. The danger is that it can kill local enthusiasm and requires additional organisational capacity by the Police.

As regards the local community perception, the biggest change since the civil war has been in the relationship between the public and the Police. This has not happened quickly. Until relatively

recently the Police were still regarded with suspicion and fear. Yet now, whatever the criticisms concerning their slowness to respond, and persistent claims by the majority of those interviewed of Police bribe seeking (confirmed by the Inspector General of Government's assertion of the Police as the most corrupt institution in the country), the almost universal response in research interviews was that the Police were now friendly, approachable and showed respect to all citizens.

Cutcliffe (2014) believed that good traffic control programs in residential neighborhoods help citizens to understand that the police are trying to improve their quality of life and that should bring communities and the police together. Baker (2007) advocated the use of horses by mounted officers to satisfy the curiosity of children, because "Strong, positive relationships between children and police officers often grow into similarly positive relationships between adults and police officers." Meese (2010) felt that since officers will become problem solvers, decisions makers, and innovators, their own quality of life and job satisfaction will increase. Research evidence from police departments where community policing activities were implemented indicated that it "has not led to increased problems of corruption or misbehavior" as some critics predicted, or as others are still claiming will happen (Kelling, 2009). Alpert and Dunham (2010) concluded: "If Sir Robert Peel were to look down upon the proposals, it is very likely that he would strongly approve of the return to his original concept of policing the community."

Community-oriented policing is based on the premise that citizens should be empowered to enhance their quality of life and prevent or eliminate crime and the problems that lead to crime. Everyone benefits when community members understand the role and function of their police department and become active proponents of law enforcement. One such initiative used by law enforcement agencies is the citizen academy. Citizen academies have been effective in educating members of the community about the mission, goals, objectives and programs of the police department. Citizen academies should be expanded to address the issue of terrorism and the role that the community can play in assisting law enforcement with information gathering, identification of target vulnerabilities, and volunteer opportunities directly supporting the homeland security strategy.

Community-oriented policing has served as the impetus for law enforcement agencies to establish a closer relationship with citizens to identify threats within the community that create a climate of fear and social disorder. The emphasis in community policing on community involvement and problem solving clearly establishes a solid foundation upon which homeland security efforts should be built. At a time when local law enforcement agencies have to deal with additional homeland security responsibilities and shrinking budgets, there could be a tendency to reduce community policing efforts, which are still often thought of as a “frill.” Under these circumstances, it is important that law enforcement agencies not revert to the “traditional” approach to policing. Instead of de-emphasizing community-oriented policing efforts, law enforcement agencies must realize that a strong community-oriented policing philosophy within the agency provides a strong basis for preventing and responding to terrorism and its goal of creating fear in the community. Local law enforcement must realize that their efforts are integral to any national homeland security strategy and that community-oriented policing could be their most effective strategy in dealing with terrorism prevention and response in their community.

Police may not always be close at hand to many citizens, but generally people would not hesitate to call upon them if there was something that needed their assistance. This is a remarkable turn around, the more so given that across much of Africa the Police are often held in contempt and fear. Of course there are still hangovers from the past and for all the reforms, the Police are still troubled by charges of human rights abuses especially excessive force (even according to reports of the Police’s own Human Rights Desk, complaints run into the hundreds each year). Likewise they are repeatedly charged with political partisanship in the increasingly heated political atmosphere of emerging multi-partyism.

This pattern of centralisation and militarisation of policing in post-conflict states and new democracies in the face of rising crime has been noted before the growth of crime itself in transitional societies has in many cases undercut the growth of local forms of policing by ensuring more centralised and militarised responses to disorder’. Unfortunately it works against the very legitimacy that states are trying to create for their forces after years of abuse under authoritarian regimes: All transitional societies have had to balance the requirement of ensuring

local accountability (which remains weak in all cases) with centralized control the desire to manage change from the centre to ensure both that it occurs uniformly and that local groups (who may oppose the central state) do not obtain control of the police in their area.

Crime Prevention Panels are planned for every sub-county or district, though currently they are only successful operating in a few districts. They consist of local residents that are trained in crime prevention with a view, not only to empowering people about crime prevention and the requirements of the law but also that citizens and communities will accept responsibility themselves for law and order in their locality. Two models of Crime Prevention Panels are emerging: one based on the community at large and one based on work associations/employment groups. Their difference of emphasis can be appreciated by examining three successful Panels.

Prior to the Katwe Crime Prevention Panel, Kampala, being formed in 1993, there were very negative attitudes to the Police and 'arrests could not be made without a gun'. The common attitude was that the Police only existed 'to arrest and to torture; they can never be friendly' and as a result criminals were not handed over to the Police. Reinforcing the gulf was 'an initial resistance from the local Police' to the community policing programme, for fear of empowering the people in the field of their own expertise and of exposing Police corruption. Since the Panel's formation a remarkable 30,000 have been trained as 'crime preventers'. Given that the Katwe Police Division only has 400 officers and a few LAPS scattered between 4 police stations and 20 police posts, this is a considerable crime prevention resource.

During the course of 30 2-hour evening sessions, these local volunteers are given training in such topics as the nature of community policing and crime prevention; the differences between criminal and civil cases; the importance of preserving the evidence at the scene of the crime; the institution of criminal proceedings; the LC judicial structure and the cases that they should and should not handle; summons and warrants; road safety; community service; bomb threats; sexual offences; human rights; constitutional rights; domestic violence; laws as they relate to children; marriage and divorce; and mob justice. The training is conducted by the Panel and the Police. It aims to sensitise citizens in crime matters, but not to turn them into police. As each group passes

the training and gets the certificate, they form a local team or sub-panel. Being an entirely voluntary organisation, there are no government funds available for the scheme.

Though these ‘crime preventers’ are separate from the LC structure, they are to a considerable extent under-girded by it, since the elected Crime Prevention Panel executive includes local LC1 and LC2 chairmen and others with experience of civic responsibility. The success of the scheme lies largely in the way people have been mobilised, so that the Crime Prevention Panels are now largely self-sufficient. Though statistics are not available to prove that these ‘crime preventers’ in Katwe have reduced crime, the Katwe Police argue that it has improved the public’s perception of the Police so that ‘they do not fear them anymore’. In addition, they claim that there has been no case of mob justice in the last 3 years.

2.4 Challenges of community policing

Taylor (1998) identified five major challenges community policing is facing insufficient holistic researches, most evaluations are carried out on specific programmes, general implementation especially by city government, problem of full implementation by, most of what constitute community police remains in paper, involvement of politics, protecting community policing from criticism and difficulty in determining the intricate relationship between community policing and crime. The above challenges identified by Taylor (1998) still remain valid today in the Uganda Police Force in addition to poor motivation of Community Liaisons Officers, in terms of promotional opportunities, community policing has suffered due to un-coordinated transfers, no consultation with the general public concerning appropriate time of meetings, no notice required and seasonal preferences are not considered to promote better attendance, lack of provision of guidelines and training materials to Community Liaisons Officers so as to facilitate a more effective, efficient and targeted approach to community policing.

Additionally, Hills (2011) also identified another source of challenge to community policing which is “policing a plural society where inter communal conflict as well as inter religious conflict flourish”. In a situation like Uganda where the community is fragmented in terms of tribe, religion, there’s a like hood that crime and criminality will be rampant and the community that is supposed to collaborate to tackle security challenges in collaboration with the police is

party to the crime then community oriented policing is out of question or were the police officers are also influenced by their values and affect their decision then there cannot be community policing.

Although the police officers need the consent of citizens to be effective, in many instances that consent is not given. He thought that if the police then change back to law enforcement to get the job done, then the community will feel that community policing was abandoned. Waddington (1984:91) felt that community policing was nothing more than a restoration of the "bobby on the beat" concept of policing, because it was less impersonal than the officer "flashing past" in a police car. Waddington (1984) concluded that community policing was a "romantic delusion" because it was not based on "the world we have lost" as some supporters are claiming. According to him, there was never a time when the police officer was everyone's friend, and there will never be such a time in the future.

Mob Justice; it was said earlier that the success of the LC system largely accounts for the relative absence of informal and illegal policing and justice. Whilst it is true that popular and accessible law and order provision restricts the room for their emergence, mob-justice has still not been eradicated from Uganda. Mobs still target alleged criminals or witches. They engage in stonings, beatings, machete attacks and burning alive or stripping suspects of their clothes and parading them through the streets. In April 2001 the Inspector General of Police, Major General Wamala, estimated that more than 1,000 persons had been killed by mob violence since 1991 and called for an end to the practice. Likewise the National Political Commissar, Dr. Kiyonga, called mob justice, 'another type of insecurity'. Admitting that it was rampant in many parts of the country, he called for the use dialogue through elders to resolve conflicts. Where that was beyond their powers, he called for issues to be forwarded to the courts. Despite such appeals, the practice continues across all parts of the country and in both rural and town environments. For example, the press alone reported 11 incidents from January 2003 to March 2004 from every region of the country and many more went unreported. There were 'lynchings' that is to say mob murders for suspected murder, theft, personal injury, defilement and witchcraft.

Klockars (1988) argued that the police forces do not really want to make any changes to their behavior and are using community policing to gain legitimacy. Eck (1993:73) felt that community policing will not reduce the tension between the police and the public, but "At best they will make police actions more acceptable to the public, even if due process is violated." To overcome some of this, Mastrofski and Greene (1993:99) suggested that "the impetus for community participation must be sustained more by the community's continuing commitment to achieve it than by police willingness to try it." They also stated that if community policing was something more than just rhetoric, then the police would not implement it. Weatheritt (2014) wrote that community policing fails to address the problems of practical and constitutional limits to police actions and that the concept is seductive to the public only because it is vague.

Bayley (2008) stated: "It is probably fair to say that community policing in 1988 is more rhetoric than reality." Buerger (2011) contended: "Reinventing the police is all but impossible; the police rank-and-file energetically defend their prerogatives. Reinventing the community is almost as difficult; the most that can be done is to redefine it in symbolic terms." Alexander (1995:93) claimed that community policing programs give very little real power to the community. He also argued that "the programs have seldom served as a handle for real reform of brutal police departments and are in most cases cosmetic at best." Manning (2009) claimed: "Community policing is no different from other police strategies aimed at shaping and manipulating public opinion." Since the police control all information about crime and disorder, he believed that they use rhetoric in "political dramas" to manage impressions of their power and efficacy. Wycoff (2009) presented the possibility that once the police and the members of the public work together too closely, there could be an increase in police corruption.

Critics also point to the failure of some patrol experiments to reduce the crime rate and use the Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment (Kelling 2011) and the Newark Foot Patrol Experiment (Pate, 2006) as their prime examples. However, it should be noted that these experiments were limited to patrol activities alone and cannot honestly be described as failed community policing projects. Greene and Taylor (2008) claimed that the numerous design and analytical shortcomings of these studies indicated the poor theory on which they were based. Klockars (2008) added to that by saying that Skolnick and Bayley (2011) did not have any

critical reservations as to the capacities and limits of community policing. "Police can no more create communities or solve the problems of urban anomie than they can be legalized into agents of the courts or depoliticized into pure professionals" (Klockars, 2009).

2.5 Solutions to the challenges of community policing for improvement of security

Given the limitations of size and skills of state Police forces in post-conflict situations, governments should consider how citizens can be mobilized in an acceptable way to play a role in keeping law and order and in implementing anti-crime strategies. There is a huge potential in mobilising communal self-interest to join in the effort, even if the strategy will inevitably see the emergence of some undesirable elements. The NRM government has never insisted that policing must be a state monopoly. Instead, it has sought security partners who will work within the law and under its supervision. Two types of citizen self-policing have emerged in the post-conflict period: one initiated by the Police themselves and one originating from commercial interests.

Some have argued for extending privatisation, placing most policing functions, apart from where the use of firearms is required, in the hands of commercial companies. In its favour such a strategy would release state Police to specialise in 'bandit catching'. Superficially it is attractive to consider tapping into the manpower and transport resources of the commercial security industry. However, the industry is still relatively young in Uganda and such a policy is not likely to be attractive to governments wedded to the principle that all social services should be offered on the basis of universal provision rather than being no more than a guaranteed minimum provision.

Mob justice is often a problem in post-conflict situations when policing structures and justice systems are yet to be established. There is no short cut to eradicating it, as Uganda's experience shows. The solution is nothing less than to address the underlying issues that precipitate the need for it. These are primarily perceived failure by legal institutions in tackling crime. For instance criticism is made about inefficiency, inaction, lack of resources and inadequate training, as well as corruption and complicity with criminals. For citizens not persuaded of the adequacy of the LC system to tackle their problems, the best approach appears to be civic education. In this

regard there is considerable value in encouraging the Crime Prevention Panels. Apart from anything else it keeps citizens, particularly ones with limited access to the media, abreast of legal developments. Awareness, for instance, about bail laws can defuse resentment based on the misunderstanding that the fact that a suspect has been released pending trial does not mean that the state has acquitted him/her. Further, civil education can address the belief, widespread in much of Africa, that women can be sexually harassed and assaulted Tilley (2008).

Under a community policing approach, the community can become eyes and ears for the police, reporting suspicious behavior and notifying the authorities when something seems amiss. Just as street-level knowledge is important to breaking up narcotics activities in a neighborhood, community partnerships and trusting relationships will inspire the confidence of citizens to pass along information that can help to uncover terrorist individuals or cells. Both here and abroad, those who have first-hand experience preventing terrorism incidents enthusiastically promote the importance of community partnerships to defeat terrorism. "It is not the police and the intelligence services who will defeat terrorism," according to Sir Ian Blair, the commissioner of the London Metropolitan Police Service. "It is communities who defeat terrorism."² Former CIA Director R. James Woolsey testified to Congress that "only an effective local police establishment that has the confidence of citizens is going to be likely to hear from, say, a local merchant in a part of town containing a number of new immigrants that a group of young men from abroad have recently moved into a nearby apartment and are acting suspiciously. Local police are best equipped to understand how to protect citizens' liberties and obtain such leads legally."³

Partnerships with Immigrant Communities; while most police agencies have established many valuable community partnerships, they may be with specific segments of the community who are accustomed to working with law enforcement. Other communities, however, may not have experience cooperating with police authorities. Some may be reticent to cooperate given their cultural experiences of, and history with, police in their country of origin. Other factors may lead to their hesitation to work with the police, including language barriers, immigration status, and a general mistrust of their local police because of misperception and reputation. Yet these groups may be just the ones who are in the best position to provide information that could lead to the

prevention of a terror attack because they often possess information that is unknown outside of what are often insular communities; information that could relate to impending threats before that information would come to the attention of others. To develop and maintain these open lines of communication, diligent, determined, and ongoing efforts are required by all sides.

Volunteers in police service (VIP); this program provides training for civilian volunteers who assist local police departments by performing “non-sworn” duties, effectively freeing up officers to spend more time on critical functions. Since September 11, 2001, the demands on state and local law enforcement have increased dramatically. As a result, already-limited resources are being stretched farther at a time when our country needs every available officer out on the beat. The program provides resources to assist local law enforcement officials by incorporating community volunteers into the activities of the law enforcement agency and by using best practices to help state and local law enforcement design strategies to recruit, train, and utilize citizen volunteers in their departments.

Internal electronic mail systems and the Internet are also giving police access to unlimited information to help them perform their jobs better. Internal information systems are also more accessible to the police officer. Some police training can also be automated and pursued individually at times convenient to the officer and the organisation, thus reducing training costs and eliminating the difficulty of taking a number of officers out of the field at the same time. Many police Web sites and list serves on the Internet also enable officers to consult and share information with colleagues all over the world. Thus, both formal and informal use of electronic networks is improving the knowledge and skills of police officers. They can find the information they need to resolve professional problems without the necessity of having to refer to a higher authority. Consequently, there is less need for the same number of supervisory layers in an organisation or the same number of policy and procedures manuals.

Together they can develop a community safety plan and share human and physical resources. They can also create channels for referral to services provided by one another. Once a need is identified, options can be sought that are both state and non-state or joint projects and the key principle is different institutions working towards the same goal but using their core strength.

There are a number of community policing practices that can support efforts in homeland security. These practices include adopting the philosophy organization-wide, decentralizing decision-making and accountability, fixing geographic and general responsibilities and utilizing volunteer resources. Local law enforcement officers are most likely to come into contact with individuals who are either directly or indirectly involved in terrorist activities and are certain to be the first responders to any attack.

Empowering officers at lower levels with greater decision-making authority and responsibility for important decisions could be valuable in a crisis. During a terrorist event, there may be little time for decisions to move up the chain of command. Officers who are accustomed to making decisions and retaining authority may be better prepared to respond quickly and decisively to any event. In terms of prevention, developing a flat organizational structure can help lower-level officers feel free to pursue leads regarding possible terrorist activity. In addition, officers who work in a fixed geographic area for an extended period are more likely to develop specific intelligence that may be a vital part of counter-terrorism efforts.

Organization-wide adoption; homeland Security, like community policing, must be adopted agency-wide to realize its full potential and effectiveness. Integrating the homeland security responsibility into the agency's mission statement, goals, policies and procedures, training programs, and other systems and activities that define organizational culture, should reflect this adoption.

Training; local agencies will need to expand beyond the rudimentary aspects of law enforcement training such as firearms, driving, unarmed defense and criminal law into one that emphasizes an analytical preventative approach. While law enforcement must continue to train for their roles as first responders in post-incident management and investigation, police must receive training and education in understanding the nature, dynamics, and operations of international terrorist groups that may operate in or against the United States, and how that translates into more effective patrol and investigative functions; understanding the locations, movements and plans of international terrorist cells that live and work in local communities; gathering and analyzing intelligence on potential terrorist activities; conducting threat assessments; conducting inquiries

and investigations into potential terrorists while safeguarding the constitutional rights of all people in the United States.

Intelligence Gathering; for years, local law enforcement agencies have complained about federal agencies failing to appreciate the role of law enforcement in intelligence activities. At a time when asymmetric terrorist threats pose some of the biggest threats to our communities, however, we cannot afford not to have local law enforcement more fully integrated into the National Homeland Security Strategy. The challenge here will be two-fold. First, it will require a philosophical change in federal law enforcement to break down the barriers of compartmentalization and accept local agencies as full partners in the national security intelligence infrastructure. Secondly, local agencies need to receive the necessary training and analytical resources. The challenge will come not in obtaining additional human resources, but in training existing personnel to recognize information or behavior of individuals or groups of possible threats, and the ability to disseminate that information with others in a manner that would allow for the intervention of any future terrorist acts.

Public education; another area of training that law enforcement must commit to is public education. Although the majority of communities will never be impacted by a terrorist event, the threat of potential terrorist attacks can create fear and undermine the sense of community safety. It will therefore be critical that police take a leadership role in maintaining community confidence. This can be done by educating the public as to the nature of threats and actively responding to specific community concerns. For the public to respond to an alert, it needs to know what to watch for. Educating the public also garners support for government action in a crisis. Moreover, citizens educated about potential threats can assist law enforcement during alerts. The public would know what to look for, what to do, and how to respond.

Decentralized decision-making and accountability; in community policing, individual line officers are given authority to solve problems and make operational decisions. Leadership is required and rewarded at every level; supervisors and officers are held accountable for decisions and the effects of their efforts at solving problems. Empowering officers at the lower levels will

allow them the freedom to pursue leads or suspected terrorist activity, or to identify possible terrorist vulnerabilities within the community.

Fixed geographic accountability and generalist responsibilities; in community policing, most staffing, supervision, deployment and tactical decision-making are geographically based. Personnel are assigned to fixed geographic areas for extended periods of time in order to foster communication and partnerships between individual officers and their community. Having fixed-geographic responsibility allows officers to develop more productive relationships with members of their community and as a result, officers should be more attuned to rising levels of community concern and fear. By virtue of these relationships, officers should be in a position to respond effectively to those needs and concerns. Community policing engenders trust and increases satisfaction among community members and police which in periods of heightened unrest or crisis can translate to dealing more effectively with community fear.

In conclusion;

To be effective community policing needs a democratic environment to flourish in. This can only happen if the community and the police form a partnership of equality. They must also learn to trust each other with the understanding that whatever the one does will also be in the best interest of the other. The wounds caused by questionable police involvement in government suppression of the citizens of former non-democratic societies would be healed the fastest if community policing becomes a reality based on trust and cooperation. Only then will the police be able to truly serve and protect those model citizens who strive to obey the laws their own democracy creates.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter dealt with the type of research design which were followed, area of study, population of the study, sample size and selection procedure, sources of data, instruments for data collection, data processing and analysis, validity of instruments, data quality control, data processing, data analysis, expected limitations of the study and their solutions and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research design

This research was carried out using a case study design where information was obtained systematically using interview schedules and questionnaires, focus group discussions and documentary sources.

3.2 Area of study

The study was conducted in Kampala district with the case study of Makindye division.

3.3 Population of the study

The population of the study involved in the study was; local people, local leaders, government officials, humanitarian agencies and police officers in Kampala district.

3.4 Sample size and selection procedure

The sample of respondents was 100, that is, 40 police officers from Kampala city, 50 community members from Makindye division and 10 local leaders in Makindye division (LC Chairmen). However, 30% of the population of selected groups was investigated intensively, data analyzed and conclusions were applied to the rest of the population. This was illustrated in the table below;

Table 1 illustrating the summary of respondents

Outlet	Target Population	Sample size
Police officers from Kampala city	40	40
Community members from Makindye	50	50
Local leaders from Makindye	10	10
Grand total	100	100

Source; Primary Data 2015

3.4.2 Justification of the sample size distribution

In accordance to the study population, the sample size of selected respondents was similar to the target because all the questionnaires submitted were retrieved.

3.5 Sources of data

Secondary sources

This is where the researcher obtained data that was already written about the topic under study. This helped to review the literature of the study and helped the researcher to cite areas of agreement and disagreements that the authors had and how such existing gaps were filled by the research.

Primary source

This included information from the field where the researcher interacted with various respondents and collected first hand information. This helped the researcher to obtain data that was used as findings of the study which was discussed to draw final conclusions and research recommendations. Primary data was gathered using the following instruments:

3.6 Instruments for data collection

3.6.1 The questionnaire

The semi-structured questionnaire was the main instrument of the study administered to the selected groups of people. The questionnaire was designed to explore key variables of the relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas. The researcher used this method because of its ability to collect information from respondents within a short time. Respondents were given time to consult records to ensure that sensitive questions were truthfully answered.

3.6.2 Interviews

Interviews were administered to different groups of people in Makindye and local authorities from the city. Structured interviews were designed in such a way that more specific and truthful answers related to community policing and security status of people were got. Interviews were preferred because they give a clear presentation of all respondents that is to say some of them spoke out their minds.

3.6.3 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

Data from local people was collected through focus group discussions. During the discussions, the researcher was the moderator. In the discussions the dominating members were regulated while the shy ones were encouraged to put across their views. Focus group discussions with the local people were conducted in the local languages (Luganda and Runyankore) spoken by many people in Kampala district. During the focus group discussions, the researcher wrote key words in a note book for use in writing detailed notes after the discussions. To ensure that the information from FGDs was not forgotten or distorted, the researcher held one FGD per day and immediately he wrote down the detailed notes. Narration of personal experiences was recorded verbatim.

3.6.4 Documentary sources

Documentary review was used for content analysis. Some data was collected using secondary sources like different workshop reports in areas where community policing was experienced, Unpublished and published books and other relevant literature to the topic under investigation.

1

3.7 Data processing and analysis

The collected information was put together, tabulated and summarized using average scores and percentages. Then information was interpreted accordingly to justify the relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas.

3.8 Validity of instruments

Validity of questionnaires

The validity of questionnaire was established by expert judgment method proposed by Gay (2000). My supervisor was contacted to judge the materials and the researcher adjusted the materials according to the supervisor's recommendation.

3.9 Data quality control

Well constructed research instruments were used and the information obtained through questionnaires was crosschecked by observing whether the behavior patterns match with what the respondents filled in the questionnaires.

3.10 Data processing

After gathering, the necessary data was edited, sorted and summarized with the view of checking for completeness and accuracy. The raw data collected was transformed to statistical data and the researcher used tables illustrating percentages and frequency to interpret data. The researcher used the hypothesis based on each category of the questionnaires and for other items, frequency tables and percentage methods were used for data presentation, analysis and qualification.

3.11 Data analysis

Data was analyzed in line with research objectives in order to realize a harmonious plan during the study and it depended on the response from field study. Thus the researcher organized and extracted meanings from the data collected during the study and it was grouped into frequency tables and percentages, analyzed, interpreted, discussed and conclusions were made.

3.12 Limitations of the study

The researcher faced a number of problems:

The study was carried out in a short time to generate conclusions based on the whole research on the relationship between community policing and security status of people in Makindye division and submission of questionnaires to different respondents in the whole division. However this was overcome through making a plan for every thing in regards to time management.

Question avoidance arose in the answers since some of the respondents dodged answering questions due to lack of time. However this was overcome through use of lunch time hour where some respondents got time.

Failure of respondents to understand the language used to draft questionnaires and interview guides. However this was overcome through use of the local language (Luganda) and interpreters for those who did not understand Luganda.

3.13 Ethical considerations

The researcher got a letter from the head of department for social work and social administration and then he proceeded to the field for research. After verification of the research findings, he took back to the supervisor for clarification and after he made hard cover binding and took to the supervisor for approval before final submission.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presented the results of the study collected from the field using primary sources of collecting data. The primary source used the questionnaire which was designed to establish the relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas in Kampala District with great emphasis on Makindye division.

In the survey, 100 questionnaires were distributed randomly and distributed among the Administration of Makindye division plus the local people as well as local leaders and some police officers and interesting enough all the 100 questionnaires were retrieved.

4.1 background information of respondents

Since sampling was random, the respondents had differences in terms of background. This included different age groups, education level, marital status and sex. The following issues were obtained from the questionnaires submitted to different groups of people in Makindye division.

4.1.1 Sex of Respondents

According to Table 2, male participated most that is 70% while female participants were few in number that is to say 30%. These showed that due to the fact that the research was basically focused on identifying ways in which community policing leads to security status; it was more male based though some women especially from some police stations in Makindye division were given a chance to participate in the study. It should however be noted that the research in Makindye division was so good and the environment conducive to the researcher in that if it was not time more questionnaires would have been printed as seen below;

Table 2: Sex of respondents

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	70	70%
Female	30	30%
Total	100	100

Source: Primary Data, 2015

Table 2 showed that the majority of respondents were male making a percentage of 70% and 30% were female who contributed to a small portion of participants in the study. This was obvious as the topic was based on analysis of community policing and security status of people in urban areas in Kampala district, the researcher had to focus on more male than female counterparts to get the expected results the research deserved and it is very true that men are more chanced in security related jobs because they are taken to be more energetic as compared to men.

4.1.2 Marital status

The researcher also looked at the marital status of respondents since it was through it that some people determined their ability to participate in community policing in urban areas. The results on the marital status of respondents were presented in Table 3;

Table 3 showing the marital status of respondents in percentages

Marital status	Frequency	Percentages
Married	60	60%
Single	40	40%
Total	100	100

Source; Primary Data 2015

Table 3 showed that 60 out of the 100 respondents representing 60% were married yet 40 out of 100 respondents representing 40% were single; this was analyzed since in Kampala district it was found out that most of the police officers were married and others (singles) still students hence they were good to carryout this research on community policing.

4.1.3 Education level

Table 4 showed the education level of respondents from Makindye division and Kampala district at large;

Table 4 showing the education level of respondents

Education level	Frequency	Percentages
Primary and below	17	17%
Secondary	28	28%
Diploma	24	24%
Degree	15	15%
Above degree	16	16%
Total	100	100

Source: Primary Data 2015

Table 4 showed that 17 out of the 100 respondents representing 17% finished primary. 28 out of the 100 respondents representing 28% finished secondary, 24 out of the 100 respondents representing 24% finished with diploma awards yet 15 out of the 100 respondents representing 15% had degree awards and 16 out of the 100 respondents representing 16% had awards in different post graduate fields which indicated that though most of them were married busy with policing, they had attained education hence they could easily read and write hence data collection went on smoothly and the bigger number of them could interpret and fill in the questionnaires by themselves. This was an implication of the fact that though people are in

security positions, they go for education and currently most police officers hold bachelors and diplomas yet others go for masters in different fields.

4.1.5 Period stayed in Makindye division by respondents

Table 5: Response on period lived in Makindye division

Response	Frequency	Percentages
Less than 1 year	14	14%
1-5 years	48	48%
6-10 years	16	16%
Over 10 years	22	22%
Total	100	100

Source: Primary data 2015

Table 5 showed that 14 out of the 100 respondents representing 14% lived in Makindye division for less than one year, 48 out of the 100 respondents representing 48% lived between 1-5 years, 16 out of the 100 respondents representing 16% lived between 6-10 years and 22 out of the 100 respondents representing 22% lived for a period of over 10 years. This equally indicated that most of the respondents who participated in the research were residents of Makindye by birth which made data collection simple because the researcher and respondents could communicate well linguistically (in both Luganda and Runyankore).

4.2 Results from the objectives of the study on community policing and security status of people in Muyenga parish Makindye division

This study was guided by three research objectives. Verification of the three objectives was guided by the conditions which described the data.

4.2.1 Relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas of Makindye division

The first research objective of the study sought to investigate relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas in Makindye division. In order to collect information to answer the above question, the researcher was able to collect data on issues related to whether most respondents understood the concepts in question (community policing and security status); the relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas;

Table 6; whether most of the respondents understood the meaning of the terms community policing and security status of people in urban areas;

Response	Frequency	Percentages
True	60	60
False	25	25
No idea	15	15
Total	100	100

Source; Primary Data 2015

From the study results, 60 out of the 100 respondents representing 60% reported that they understood the terms, 25 out of 100 respondents representing 25% reported that it was false because they had never heard of it yet 15 out of the 100 respondents representing 15% had no idea. In comparison to the three findings, due to the fact that most of the residents in Kampala district were in various groups and offices, they could easily explain the terms because it was not new to most of them.

Relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas

The general objective of the study focused on analysis of the relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas specifically Muyenga parish in Makindye division and this was the objective which guided the whole research work. Hence in analyzing the ways in which community policing and security status of people in urban areas are related, the following were analyzed in table 7 below;

Table 7 showed the relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas in Kampala district.

Response	Frequency	Percentages
Prevention and reduction of crime	15	15
help citizens to understand the law	10	10
Provide an effective channel for citizen input	50	50
Crime prevention	25	25
Total	100	100

Source: Primary Data 2015

From Table 7, 15 out of the 100 respondents representing 15% reported that prevention and reduction of crime comes as a result of community policing which leads to security for instance in most cases it has been heard that insecurity in many areas comes due to failure of the police to connect to the local populace hence due to community policing this will come to an end

10 out of 100 respondents representing 10% reported that community policing in Kampala has helped citizens to understand the law and this is simply because it is extended to people in rural areas.

50 out of 100 respondents representing 50% reported that an effective channel for citizen input is also embodied through community policing and this is an indication of security status for instance if the citizens mobilize themselves to strengthen their security it is very clear through community policing.

Lastly 25 out of 100 respondents argued that community policing is an indication of crime prevention in an area where it is carried out since the work is done by the community with the help of security groups like the police.

4.2.2 Challenges of implementing community policing in Makindye division

The second research objective of the study sought to analyze the challenges of implementing community policing in Makindye division. In coding the data from respondents the results were presented in Table 8;

Table 9: Challenges of implementing community policing in Makindye division

Response	Frequency	Percentages
Mob Justice	22	22
Issue of making police actions more acceptable to the public	35	35
more rhetoric than reality	30	30
Poverty	13	13
Total	100	100

Source: Primary Data 2015

Table 9 shows that 22 out of the 100 respondents representing 22% reported that community policing is also challenged by mob justice for instance it was said earlier that the success of the LC system largely accounted for the relative absence of informal and illegal policing and justice. Whilst it is true that popular and accessible law and order provision restricts the room for their

emergence, mob-justice has still not been eradicated from Uganda. Mobs still target alleged criminals or witches. They engage in stonings, beatings, machete attacks and burning alive or stripping suspects of their clothes and parading them through the streets.

35 out of the 100 respondents representing 35% reported that community policing is challenged by the issue of making police actions more acceptable to the public for instance Klockars (1988) argued that the police forces do not really want to make any changes to their behavior and are using community policing to gain legitimacy. Eck (1993:73) felt that community policing will not reduce the tension between the police and the public, but "At best they will make police actions more acceptable to the public, even if due process is violated.

30 out of the 100 respondents representing 30% reported that community policing is more rhetoric than reality for instance the police hides its actions in the community as it is depicted by authors like Bayley (2008) who stated that it is probably fair to say that community policing in 1988 is more rhetoric than reality." Buerger (2011) contended: "Reinventing the police is all but impossible; the police rank-and-file energetically defend their prerogatives. Reinventing the community is almost as difficult; the most that can be done is to redefine it in symbolic terms.

Yet 13 out of the 100 respondents representing 13% reported that poverty also challenges the issue of community policing for example in cases of mob justice police officers fail to rescue and save the offenders because of the issue of petrol to put in their cars and people end up killing each other.

4.2.3 Solutions to the challenges faced in implementation of community policing

The last research objective of the study sought to find out solutions to the challenges faced in implementation of community policing. **In their response to the above objective of the study the results below were analyzed;**

Table 11: Solutions to the challenges faced in implementation of community policing

Response	Frequency	Percentages
Intelligence Gathering	20	20
Pubic education	30	30
Decentralized decision-making and accountability	15	15
Training	25	25
Empowering officers at lower levels	10	10
Total	100	100

Source: Primary Data, 2015

From Table 11 on the study results on the solutions to the challenges faced in implementation of community policing, 20 out of 100 respondents representing 20% argued that emphasis should be put on Intelligence Gathering to make changes in federal law enforcement to break down the barriers of compartmentalization.

Still 30 out 100 respondents representing 30% argued that special attention should be put on Pubic education which will help police take a leadership role in maintaining community confidence.

15 out of 100 respondents representing 15% argued that emphasis should be put on decentralizing decision-making and accountability and this will help police officers to collect views at the grassroots which will help in emphasizing community policing.

25% of the response argued that emphasis should be put on training people on how community policing should be carried out.

10% of the responses emphasized Empowering officers at lower levels with greater decision-making authority and responsibility for important decisions could be valuable in a crisis and at last it will help them associate with local people.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presented the summary of findings, recommendations and conclusions from the research carried out in Makindye division Kampala district.

5.1 Findings

Below were the summary of the three objectives of the study;

Relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas in Makindye division

From the same study, community policing and security status of people in urban areas go hand in hand since community policing encourages the use of non-law enforcement resources within a law enforcement agency such as volunteerism, which involves active citizen participation with their law enforcement agency meaning that security is extended at the grass root level.

Challenges of implementing community policing in Makindye division

However, there are many challenges to community policing which range from financial, psychological, social, political and strategic issues hence it is necessary that police officers together with local leaders handle such first before going into the system.

Solutions to the challenges faced in implementation of community policing

Such challenges can be solved through mobilizing communal self-interest to join in the effort, extending privatisation, placing most policing functions and enforcing the community to become eyes and ears for the police, reporting suspicious behavior and notifying the authorities when something seems amiss.

5.2 Recommendations

Below are the recommendations for improvement in community policing and security status;

Relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas in Kampala district

It is recommended that for community policing to be more effective in maintenance of stability and security status more focus needs to be put on government intervention since it is the backbone of the financial year budgets

Challenges to community policing

There are many challenges to community policing to lead to security status of people in urban areas for example as asserted by Taylor (1998) , there are five major challenges community policing is facing like insufficient holistic researches, most evaluations are carried out on specific programmes, general implementation especially by city government, problem of full implementation by, most of what constitute community police remains in paper, involvement of politics, protecting community policing from criticism and difficulty in determining the intricate relationship between community policing and crime. The above challenges identified by Taylor (1998) still remain valid today in the Uganda Police Force in addition to poor motivation of Community Liaisons Officers, in terms of promotional opportunities, un-coordinated transfers, no consultation with the general public concerning appropriate time of meetings, no notice required and seasonal preferences are not considered to promote better attendance, lack of provision of guidelines and training materials to Community Liaisons Officers so as to facilitate a more effective, efficient and targeted approach to community policing. Hence more needs to be done.

Solutions to challenges of community policing

However, challenges can be overcome through education, moral support; government intervention as researchers like Tilley (2008) asserts that issues like mob justice can only be dealt with through addressing the underlying issues that precipitate the need for it. These are primarily perceived failure by legal institutions in tackling crime. For instance criticism is made about

inefficiency, inaction, lack of resources and inadequate training, as well as corruption and complicity with criminals. For citizens not persuaded of the adequacy of the LC system to tackle their problems, the best approach appears to be civic education. In this regard there is considerable value in encouraging the Crime Prevention Panels. Apart from anything else it keeps citizens, particularly ones with limited access to the media, abreast of legal developments.

Lastly, focus should be put on a community policing approach to enable the community become eyes and ears for the police, reporting suspicious behavior and notifying the authorities when something seems amiss as asserted by the former CIA Director R. James Woolsey who testified to Congress that “only an effective local police establishment that has the confidence of citizens is going to be likely to hear from, say, a local merchant in a part of town containing a number of new immigrants that a group of young men from abroad have recently moved into a nearby apartment and are acting suspiciously. Local police are best equipped to understand how to protect citizens’ liberties and obtain such leads legally.”

5.3 Conclusions

The relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas in Kampala district

In conclusion therefore, regardless of the challenges encountered community policing has paved way for the security status of rural areas for example in Makindye division it has paved way for investigation of criminals in the area as compared to when security was only police based.

Challenges faced by women in security status

However, like any other community based activity, community policing is challenged by issues which are mostly related to financial issues like failure to reach at the crime scene due to low fuel in cars and as well poor facilitation provided to crime preventers from both the police and the local community.

Solutions to challenges faced by women in security status

In conclusion therefore challenges faced by community policing can only be overcome if there are certain agreements reached at by different stakeholders inside the policy for example the police, community members and the government at large should work together to overcome issues like mob justice, poverty, poor coordination and this can only be achieved through coordination, use of media and more facilitation in terms of finance.

5.4 Areas for future researchers should include the following

Emphasis for further research should be put on;

- i) Effects of community policing on peace and stability in Kampala central.
- ii) Role played by the central government in strengthening community policing.
- ii) Solutions to effective community policing in urban areas of Uganda.

REFERENCES

- Aliyuyero J. Othman, (2012). Re-Visiting Concept and Theories of Community Policing. *International Journal of Academic Research Part B*.
- Allender D. M, 2004. *Community policing: Exploring the philosophy*, FBI law enforcement bulleting.
- Bratton J. M, G. William, 2008. *Zero tolerance: Policing a Free Society*, London, Hartington fine art limited.
- Brown L. P. 2009, Houston Police Department: Neighbourhood-oriented policing. In M.Freeman (ed), *Community oriented policing*, MIS reports
- Bureau of Justice Assistance(2014), U.S. Department of Justice. *Understanding Community Policing: A Framework for Action*, Washington and Community Policing Consortium.
- Fielding N.G., 2005. Concept and theory in community policing, *The Haward Journal*. Vol 44 No5.
- Hills A., (2011). *Policing a plurality of worlds: The Nigerian police in metropolitan Kano*, Oxford University press, London.
- James W., 2002. *Police: Community Policing*; Encyclopedia of Crime and Justice.
- Manning, P., 2003. *Policing Contingencies*, *Journal of Criminal Justice and Popular Culture*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 11(1).
- Office of Community Oriented Policing Service, US Department of Justice (2007). What is Community Policing? from <http://www.cops.usdoj.gov/default%20asp?item=36>.

Oliver W. M, 2000. Community Policing: Classical Readings, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall.

Palmiotto, 2011, Community Policing: A Police-Citizen Partnership, New York, Routledge.

Stipak B., 2004, *Are you really doing Community Policing? The Police Chief*, Vol: 61 Issue.

Skolnick H. J. and D.H Bayley, 2008. Community Policing: Issues and Practice around the World, USA.

Tiedke K. & W. Freeman, (2007).Community involvement. Glencoe, IL: The Free Press.

Tilley N., 2008. Modern approach to policing, problem oriented and intelligence-led in the new burn handbook of policing, pp: 373-403. Willan: Cullompton, Devon.

Trojanowicz R. and B. Bucqueroux, 2008. Community Policing: how to get started, 2nd edition, Cincinnati: Alderson publishing co.

Taylor R. W., 2008. Core Challenges Facing Community Policing: The Emperor still has no clothes. Academy of Criminal Justice Services Today 17(1).

Trojanowicz R. C. and S. L. Dixon, 2004.Criminal Justice and the Community. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Wilson M. J. In B. Erhan and k. Bahadirk, 2011. Contingency Theory Approach for Effective Community Policing, *Journal of Arts and Social Science.*, No23.

Wong K. C., 2008.A General Theory of Community Policing. Ohio.

LIST OF APPENDICES
APPENDIX I
QUESTIONNAIRE
KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY,
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
COMMUNITY POLICING AND SECURITY STATUS OF PEOPLE IN URBAN AREAS
IN KAMPALA DISTRICT A CASE STUDY OF MUYEGA PARISH MAKINDYE
DIVISION

Dear respondents my name is **KAKURU FRED** a student from Kampala International University pursuing a bachelor's degree in SWASA, year three, semester two. Below is my research questionnaire on the above mentioned topic

Tick one or write the relevant information in the space provided.

SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1. Age

- | | |
|--|---|
| a) Below 18 years <input type="checkbox"/> | b) 19 – 30 years <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) 31 – 44 years <input type="checkbox"/> | d) 45 and above <input type="checkbox"/> |

2. Sex

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| a) Male <input type="checkbox"/> | b) Female <input type="checkbox"/> |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|

3. Marital status

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| a) Married <input type="checkbox"/> | b) Single <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) Divorced <input type="checkbox"/> | d) Separated <input type="checkbox"/> |

4 Level of education

- a) Not gone to school ☐ b) Primary ☐
c) Secondary ☐ d) Tertiary ☐
e) Others, (specify).....

5) Duration stayed in makindye division by respondents

- a) Less than 1 year ☐ b) 6-10 years ☐
c) 1-5 years ☐ d) Over 10 years ☐

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE ONE

Relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas

6) What do you understand by the terms?

6.1) Community policing;
.....
.....

6.2) Security status;
.....
.....

7. What is the relationship between community policing and security status of people in urban areas?

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

8. How effective is the community involvement in security status in Muyenga parish?

.....
.....

9. Who are the most beneficiaries from community policing?

i) Police

i) Government

i) Local community members

v) LCs

10. From Qn 9) above, how has such a group benefited from community policing?

.....

.....

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE TWO

Challenges of implementing community policing in Makindye division.

What are some of the challenges faced in community policing?

.....

.....

Who are the most affected by the so likely challenges?

.....

.....

How can the government go about such challenges?

.....

.....

What can the local community do to overcome such challenges?

.....

.....

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE THREE

Solutions to the challenges faced in implementation of community policing

How can the challenges of community policing be overcome?

.....

.....

How can the Uganda police deal with issues resisting community policing in Kampala district at large?

.....

.....

How can the government best cope up with such challenges to enforce security in the area?

.....

.....

What laws protect community member’s involvement in security forces?

.....

.....

COMMUNITY POLICING AND SECURITY STATUS OF PEOPLE IN URBAN AREAS.

A CASE STUDY OF MUYENGA PARISH MAKINDYE DIVISION.

BY KAKURU FRED

BSW/38466/123/DU

**A RESEARCH DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE
OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN SOCIAL
WORK AND SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION OF
KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL
UNIVERSITY**

SEPTEMBER, 2015

COMMUNITY POLICING AND SECURITY STATUS OF PEOPLE IN URBAN AREAS.

A CASE STUDY OF MUYENGA PARISH MAKINDYE DIVISION.

BY KAKURU FRED

BSW/38466/123/DU

**A RESEARCH DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE
OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN SOCIAL
WORK AND SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION OF
KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL
UNIVERSITY**

SEPTEMBER, 2015

COMMUNITY POLICING AND SECURITY STATUS OF PEOPLE IN URBAN AREAS.

A CASE STUDY OF MUYENGA PARISH MAKINDYE DIVISION.

BY KAKURU FRED

BSW/38466/123/DU

**A RESEARCH DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE
OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN SOCIAL
WORK AND SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION OF
KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL
UNIVERSITY**

SEPTEMBER, 2015

COMMUNITY POLICING AND SECURITY STATUS OF PEOPLE IN URBAN AREAS.

A CASE STUDY OF MUYENGA PARISH MAKINDYE DIVISION.

BY KAKURU FRED

BSW/38466/123/DU

A RESEARCH DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE

OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL

FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE

AWARD OF A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN SOCIAL

WORK AND SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION OF

KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL

UNIVERSITY

SEPTEMBER, 2015

COMMUNITY POLICING AND SECURITY STATUS OF PEOPLE IN URBAN AREAS.

A CASE STUDY OF MUYENGA PARISH MAKINDYE DIVISION.

BY KAKURU FRED

BSW/38466/123/DU

A RESEARCH DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE

OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL

FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE

AWARD OF A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN SOCIAL

WORK AND SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION OF

KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL

UNIVERSITY

SEPTEMBER, 2015

COMMUNITY POLICING AND SECURITY STATUS OF PEOPLE IN URBAN AREAS.

A CASE STUDY OF MUYENGA PARISH MAKINDYE DIVISION.

BY KAKURU FRED

BSW/38466/123/DU

**A RESEARCH DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE
OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN SOCIAL
WORK AND SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION OF
KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL
UNIVERSITY**

SEPTEMBER, 2015

COMMUNITY POLICING AND SECURITY STATUS OF PEOPLE IN URBAN AREAS.

A CASE STUDY OF MUYENGA PARISH MAKINDYE DIVISION.

BY KAKURU FRED

BSW/38466/123/DU

**A RESEARCH DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE
OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN SOCIAL
WORK AND SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION OF
KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL
UNIVERSITY**

SEPTEMBER, 2015

COMMUNITY POLICING AND SECURITY STATUS OF PEOPLE IN URBAN AREAS.

A CASE STUDY OF MUYENGA PARISH MAKINDYE DIVISION.

BY KAKURU FRED

BSW/38466/123/DU

**A RESEARCH DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE
OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF A BACHELOR'S DEGREE IN SOCIAL
WORK AND SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION OF
KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL
UNIVERSITY**

SEPTEMBER, 2015